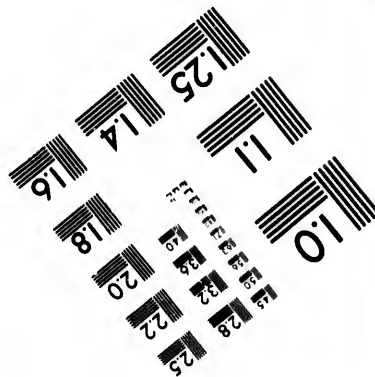
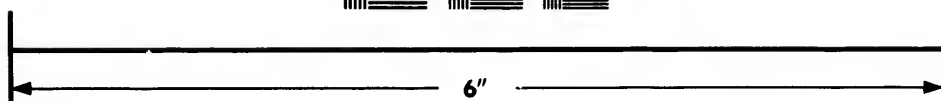
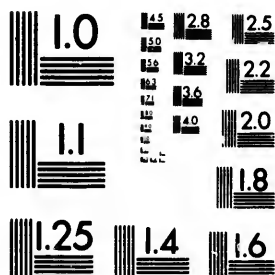


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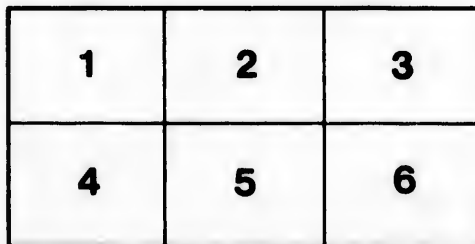
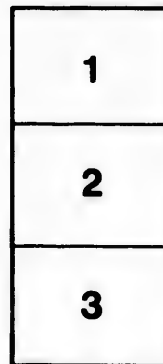
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BY WILLIAM GUTHRIE, Esq.

The ASTRONOMICAL PART by JAMES FERGUSON, F.R.S.

TO WHICH HAVE BEEN ADDED

The late DISCOVERIES of Dr. HERSCHEL, and other eminent ASTRONOMERS.

ILLUSTRATED WITH

A CORRECT SET OF MAPS,

Engraved from the most recent Observations and Draughts of Geographical Travellers.

The SEVENTEENTH EDITION, Corrected,
And CONSIDERABLY ENLARGED.

L O N D O N :

PRINTED FOR CHARLES DILLY, IN THE FOULTRY; AND
G. G. AND J. ROBINSON, IN PATER-NOSTER ROW.

1798.

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

It may, however, be reasonably expected that, at the appearance of this new edition, some account should be given of the improvements which have been made, and of the accession of new matter, which will be found to enrich it.

In an age so celebrated as the present for Geographical science, and for that spirit of adventure which has explored the most distant countries, it is highly proper that a work of this kind should afford a selection of that information which is most useful and interesting, and faithfully exhibit every thing valuable to be found in the latest voyages and travels. Of these, since the improved edition of this grammar, in 1785, a great variety have been published, which have been perused with the most careful attention, and which have furnished many

important particulars to the accounts of the different kingdoms upon the continent of *Europe*.——To Dr. Robertson's Historical Disquisitions concerning India; to the splendid and accurate Map of that country by Major Rennell, whose geographical knowledge has deservedly gained him the highest celebrity; to Major Dirom's narrative of the campaign in the Peninsula, which terminated the war with Tippoo Sultan, in 1792; to the Abbé Grosier's history of China, and Mr. Franklin's travels in Persia, we have been much indebted in our progress through the immense regions of *Asia*.——Of *Africa* little can be said, because little is known. Europeans, at the end of the eighteenth century, are as much unacquainted with the interior parts of that vast continent, as if it were situated in one of the most distant planets. However, nothing has been neglected, that could add to the small stock of knowledge we have of this quarter of the globe. The travels of Mr. Bruce, the narrative of Mr. Vaillant, the proceedings of the African Association, and Major Rennell's Memoir and Map of the Northern parts of this vast territory, have been very diligently attended to, and from them the most valuable information has been extracted.——The Geography of *America* owes much to the labours of Mr. Morie, a gentleman of that country, who visited in person the several states in the Union, and maintained an extensive correspondence with men of science. From this authentic source, besides a variety of other particulars, the divisions of the respective states into districts, counties, towns, &c. are now given; to which

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are added the descriptions of the new-formed states of Kentucky and Vermont.

From the works abovementioned many additions were made to the last edition, in 1796. The present has been considerably enlarged by the information afforded by various Voyages and Travels that have been since published; among which may be enumerated, count Stolberg's Travels in Switzerland and Italy; Mr. Townson's in Hungary; Mr. Murphy's in Portugal; Professor Thunberg's Voyage to Japan; and, especially, Sir George Staunton's Authentic Account of the Voyage and Embassy of Lord Macartney to China, which has enabled us considerably to enlarge and correct the account of that empire. The Geography of America has been corrected from a recent American publication of the greatest accuracy and authority, of which an improved edition is now printing in this country; the descriptions of the new states of Kentucky and Vermont have been enlarged, and an account added of the territory north-west of the Ohio, and the Tennessee government.

As this work is historical as well as geographical, the perpetual changes of states and human affairs, especially those produced by the late revolutions which have convulsed Europe, have rendered some considerable additions and alterations necessary in the historical part. Such have been made in this edition; and the history of each country is brought down to the present time; that of Great Britain is considerably enlarged; and the stupendous exertions and rapid con-

quests of the French republic have been faithfully detailed; while the calamitous events, which, in that distracted country, have been the consequence of contending factions and an unsettled government; have been pourtrayed in their true colours, and such as cannot fail to excite every honest Patriot to cherish and defend the well-poised constitution of government in his own happy island; a constitution formed and improved by the accumulated wisdom of ages.

To make room for these additions, and such insertions as were absolutely necessary to render the work more perfect, some parts, which appeared too diffuse, have been abridged; and others, less important, have been omitted. Yet so numerous have the additions been, as to enlarge this edition much beyond the last. Though the two last improved editions exceeded in bulk very considerably the preceding ones, this will be found to exceed the last (in 1796) by more than Fifty Pages, and above one hundred of new information;— a proof that great pains have been employed to give the work a just and continued claim to general notice and approbation.

May, 1798.

P R E F A C E.

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

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

advance this improvement, is the principal design of our present undertaking. No subject appears more interesting than that we have chosen, and none seems capable of being handled in a manner that may render it more generally useful. -

The knowledge of the world, and of its inhabitants, though not the sublimest pursuit of mankind, it must be allowed, is that which most nearly interests them, and to which their abilities are best adapted. And books of Geography, which describe the situation, extent, soil, and productions of kingdoms; the genius, manners, religion, government, commerce, sciences, and arts, of all the inhabitants upon earth, promise the best assistance for attaining this knowledge.

The compendium of Geography we now offer to the Public, differs in many particulars from other books on that subject. Besides exhibiting an easy, distinct, and systematic account of the theory and practice of what may be called Natural Geography, the Author has attempted to render the following performance an instructive, though compendious, detail of the general history of the world. The character of nations depends on a combination of a great many circumstances, which reciprocally affect each other. There is a nearer connection between the learning, the commerce, the government, &c. of a state, than most people seem to apprehend. In a work of this kind, which pretends to include moral, or political, as well as natural Geography, no one of these objects should pass unnoticed. The omission of any one of them would, in reality, deprive us of a branch of knowledge, not only interesting in itself, but which is absolutely necessary for enabling us to form an adequate and comprehensive notion of the subject in general. We have thought it necessary, therefore, to add a new article to this work, which comprehends the history and present state of learning in the several countries we describe, with the characters of such persons as have been most eminent in the various departments of letters and philosophy. This subject will, on a little reflection, appear altogether requisite, when we consider the powerful influence of learning upon the manners, government, and general character of nations. These objects, indeed, till of late, seldom found a place in geographical perform-

ances; and, even where they have been introduced, are by no means handled in an entertaining or instructive manner. Neither is this to be altogether imputed to the fault of geographical writers. The greater part of travellers, acting solely under the influence of avarice, the passion which first induced them to quit their native land, were at little pains, and were indeed ill qualified, to collect such materials as are proper for gratifying our curiosity, with regard to these particulars. The geographer, then, who could only employ the materials put into his hands, was not enabled to give us any important information upon such subjects. In the course of the present century, however, men have begun to travel from different motives. A thirst for knowledge, as well as for gold, has led many into distant lands. These they have explored with a philosophic attention; and by laying open the internal springs of action; by which the inhabitants of different regions are actuated, exhibit to us a natural and striking picture of human manners, under the various stages of barbarity and refinement. Without manifest impropriety, we could not but avail ourselves of their labours, by means of which we have been enabled to give a more copious and a more perfect detail of what is called Political Geography, than has hitherto appeared.

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

We are sensible that a reader could not examine the present state of nations with much entertainment or instruction, unless he was also made acquainted with their situation during the preceding ages, and of the various revolutions and events, by the operation of which they have assumed their present form and appearance. This constitutes the historical part of our work; a department which we have endeavoured to execute in a manner entirely new. Instead of fatiguing the reader with a dry detail of newspaper occurrences, no way connected with one another, or with the general plan of the whole, we have mentioned only such facts as are interesting, either in themselves, or from their relation to objects of impor-

tance. Instead of a meagre index of incoherent incidents, we have drawn up a regular and connected epitome of the history of each country; such an epitome as may be read with equal pleasure and advantage, and which may be considered as a proper introduction to more copious accounts.

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

In the execution of our design, we have all along endeavoured to observe order and perspicuity. Elegance we have sacrificed to brevity; happy to catch the leading features which distinguish the characters of nations, and by a few strokes to hit off, though not completely to finish, the picture of mankind in ancient and modern times.

What has enabled us to comprise so many subjects within the narrow bounds of this work, is the omission of many immaterial circumstances, which are recorded in other performances of the same kind, and of all those fabulous accounts or descriptions, which, to the disgrace of the human understanding, swell the works of geographers; though the falsity of them, both from their own nature, and the concurring testimony of the most enlightened and best informed travellers and historians, has been long since detected.

As to particular parts of the work, we have been more or less diffuse, according to their importance to us as men, and as subjects of Great Britain. Our own country, in both respects, deserved the greatest share of our attention. Great Britain, though she cannot boast of a more luxuriant soil or happier climate than many other countries, has advantages of another and superior kind, which make her the delight, the envy, and the mistress of the world:

these are, the equity of her laws, the freedom of her political constitution, and the moderation of her religious system. With regard to the British empire we have therefore been singularly copious.

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

Europe having occupied so large a part of our volume, Asia next claims our attention; which, however, though in some respects the most famous quarter of the world, offers, when compared to Europe, extremely little for our entertainment or instruction. In Asia, a strong attachment to ancient customs, and the weight of tyrannical power, bear down the active genius of man, and prevent that variety in manners and character, which distinguishes the European nations.

In Africa, the human mind seems degraded below its natural state. To dwell long upon the manners of this country, a country so immersed in rudeness and barbarity, besides that it could afford little instruction, would be disgusting to every lover of mankind. Add to this, that the inhabitants of Africa, deprived of all arts and sciences, without which the human mind remains torpid and inactive, discover no great variety in manners or character. A gloomy sullenness almost every where prevails; and the trifling distinctions which are discovered among them, seem rather to arise from an excess of brutality on the one hand, than from any perceptible approaches towards refinement on the other. But though these quarters of the globe are treated less extensively than Europe, there is no district of them, however barren or savage, entirely omitted.

America, whether considered as an immense continent, inhabited by an endless variety of different people, or as a country intimately connected with Europe by the ties of commerce and government, deserves very particular attention. The bold discovery and barbarous conquest of this New World, and the manners and prejudices of the original inhabitants, are objects which, together with the

description of the country, deservedly occupy no small share of this performance.

In treating of such a variety of subjects, some less obvious particulars, no doubt, must escape our notice. But if our general plan be good, and the outlines and chief figures sketched with truth and judgment, the candour of the learned, we hope, will excuse imperfections which are unavoidable in a work of this extensive kind.

We cannot, without exceeding the bounds of a Preface, insist upon the other parts of our plan. The Maps, which are executed with care, by the best informed artists in these kingdoms, will, we hope, afford satisfaction. The science of natural geography, for want of proper encouragement from those who are alone capable of giving it, still remains in a very imperfect state; and the exact divisions and extent of countries, for want of geometrical surveys, are far from being well ascertained. This consideration has induced us to adopt the most unexceptionable of Templeman's Tables, which, if they give not the exactest account, afford at least a general idea of this subject; which is all indeed we can attain, until the geographical science arrives at greater perfection.

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United

Austria

Germa

Prussia

Bohem

Hunga

Transy

Poland

C O N T E N T S.

INTRODUCTION.

PART I. *Of Astronomical Geography.*

	page
SOLAR System	1
Table of the Diameters, Periods, &c. of the several Planets in the Solar System	4
Comets	4
Fixed Stars	5
Constellations	8
Copernican and other Systems of the Universe	8
Doctrine of the Sphere	10
Globe	11
Problems performed by the Globe	19
Geographical Observations	23
Natural Divisions of the Earth	25
Winds and Tides	27
Maps	29
Cardinal Points	30

PART II. *Of the Origin of Laws, Government, and Commerce* 30

PART III. *Of the Origin and Progress of Religion* 56

Of the natural and political Parts of EUROPE	59
Its Situation, Boundaries, grand Divisions, and History	60
Denmark	62
East and West Greenland, and Iceland	63
Norway	69
Denmark Proper	76
Lapland	94
Sweden	99
Muscovy, or the Russian Empire	117
Scotland, and the Hebrides, Orkneys, &c.	150
England	199
Wales	389
Isle of Man, Isles of Wight, Jersey, Guernsey, &c.	395
Ireland	400
France	426
United Netherlands, or Holland	477
Austrian and French Netherlands	437
Germany	497
Prussia	530
Bohemia	535
Hungary	538
Transylvania, Sclavonia, and Croatia	543
Poland and Lithuania	546

C O N T E N T S.

Switzerland	page 572
Spain	582
Portugal	609
Italy	619
Turkey in Europe, the ancient Greece	647
Turkish Islands in the Levant, being part of ancient Greece	654
†† Other European Islands are described with the Countries to which they respectively belong.	

A S I A.

Its Situation, Boundaries, grand Divisions, and History	657
Of Turkey in Asia	660
Tartary in Asia	681
China	689
India in general	708
India beyond the Ganges	714
India within the Ganges, or the Empire of the Great Mogul	720
The Peninsula within the Ganges	734
Persia	744
Arabia	759
Indian and Oriental Isles belonging to Asia	765

A F R I C A.

Its Situation, Boundaries, grand Divisions, and History	773
Of Egypt	777
The States of Barbary	785
Abyssinia	793
Fezzan, Bornou, and Cashna	799
Sierra Leone and Bulam	803
Africa, from the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope	804
Country of the Hottentots	805
Caffraria	810
African Islands	815

A M E R I C A.

Its Discovery and History	822	
Original Inhabitants	833	
Situation, Boundaries, and grand Divisions	842	
British America. {	New Britain, and other Countries towards the North	848
	Pole	851
	Canada	859
America. {	Nova Scotia	861
	United States of America	864
New England	874	
New York	878	
New Jersey	879	
Pennsylvania and Delaware	884	
Maryland	886	
Virginia	892	
North and South Carolina and Georgia	899	
New States formed in North America	906	
General Description of the West Indies		

CONTENTS.

		page	
	Jamaica and other Islands in the West Indies	910	
page	Spanish America. { East and West Florida	} North America {	921
572			New Mexico, including California
582	Old Mexico, or New Spain	923	
609	Terra Firma	927	
619	} South America {	}	930
647			Peru
654	Chili	934	
	Paraguay, or La Plata	937	
	Cuba and Hispaniola, and other Islands in America	939	
	Portuguese America, Brazil	942	
	French America, Cayenne	943	
	St. Domingo, Martinico, and other French Islands in the West Indies	946	
657	Dutch America, Surinam	947	
660	St. Eustatius, and other Dutch Islands in the West Indies	949	
681	St. Thomas's, and other Danish Islands in Ditto	950	
689	New Discoveries	950	
708	Northern Archipelago	952	
714	The Discovery of an Inland Sea, containing a great number of	953	
720	Islands, in North America	954	
734	The Pelew Islands	954	
744	The Marquesas Islands	956	
759	Ingraham's Islands	959	
765	Otaheite, or King George's Island	960	
	The Society Islands	961	
	Oheteroa	964	
	The Friendly Islands	965	
773	New Zealand	967	
777	The New Hebrides	970	
785	New Holland	985	
793	New Guinea	985	
799	Sandwich Islands	985	
803	Terra Incognita	985	
804	A New Geographical Table, alphabetically arranged	985	
805	A table of the Coins of all Nations, and their value in English	985	
810	Money	1000	
815	Chronological Table of Remarkable Events, &c.	1000	
822			
833			
842			
848			
851			
859			
861			
864			
874			
878			
879			
884			
886			
892			
899			
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DIRECTIONS for placing the M A P S.

The WORLD, To front the Title.		GERMANY,	page 497
CHART of the WORLD, according to Mercator's projection, p. 1		POLAND, LITHUANIA, PRUSSIA,	and 546
The SPHERE,	10	SWITZERLAND,	572
EUROPE,	59	SPAIN and PORTUGAL,	582
DENMARK, SWEDEN, and NORWAY,	62	ITALY,	619
RUSSIA in EUROPE,	117	TURKEY in EUROPE, and HUNGARY,	647
SCOTLAND,	150	ASIA,	657
ENGLAND and WALES,	199	EAST INDIES,	708
IRELAND,	400	AFRICA,	773
FRANCE,	426	NORTH AMERICA,	848
SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES, and NETHERLANDS,	477	WEST INDIES,	906
		SOUTH AMERICA,	927

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INTRODUCTION.

PART I.

OF ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

SECT. I.

Of the PLANETS, the COMETS, the FIXED STARS, and the different SYSTEMS of the UNIVERSE.

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

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Maps.

The earth was long considered as one extensive plane, of no remarkable thickness; and the regions below it were supposed to be the habitations of spirits. The heavens, in which the sun, moon, and stars, appeared to move daily from east to west, were conceived to be at no great distance from it, and to be only designed for its use or ornament. Several reasons, however, occurred, which rendered this opinion improbable; it is needless to mention them, because we have now a sufficient proof of the figure of the earth, from the voyages of many navigators, who have actually sailed round it; particularly from that of Magellan's ship, which was the first that circumnavigated the globe, sailing west from a port in Europe in 1519, and returning to the same, after a voyage of 1124 days, without altering its direction, except to the north or south, as compelled by the winds, or intervening land.

The spherical figure of the earth being fully proved, a way was thereby naturally opened for the discovery of its motion. For while it was considered as a plane, mankind had an obscure notion of its being supported, like a scaffolding, on pillars, though they could not tell what supported these. But the figure of a globe is much better adapted to motion. This is confirmed by considering, that, if the earth did not move round the sun, not only the sun, but all the stars and planets, must move round the earth. Now, as astronomers, by reckonings founded on the surest observations, have been able to judge pretty nearly of the distances of the heavenly bodies from the earth and from each other, just as every one that knows the first elements of mathematics can measure the height of a steeple, or any object placed on it,—it appeared, that, if we conceived the heavenly bodies to move round the earth, we must suppose them endowed with a motion or velocity so immense as to exceed all conception: whereas all the appearances in nature may be as well explained by imagining the earth to move round the sun in the space of a year, and to turn on its own axis once in 24 hours.

To form a conception of these two motions of the earth, we may imagine a ball moving on a billiard-table or bowling-green: the ball proceeds forwards upon the green or table, not by sliding along like a plane upon wood, or a slate upon ice, but by turning round its own axis, which is an imaginary line drawn through the centre or middle of the ball, and ending on its surface in two points called its poles. We must, however, remember that these two motions in the earth are perfectly distinct, and not imagine that the number of revolutions caused by the rotatory motion is in proportion to the space passed through by the progressive, as is the case with the ball on the table or the bowling-green. The earth, therefore, in the space of 24 hours, moves from west to east, while the inhabitants on the surface of it, like men on the deck of a ship, who are insensible of their own motion, and think that the banks move from them in a contrary direction, will conceive that the sun and stars move from east to west in the same time of 24 hours, in which they, along with the earth, move from west to east. This daily or diurnal motion of the earth being once clearly conceived, will enable us easily to form a notion of its annual or yearly motion round the sun. For as that luminary seems to have a daily motion round our earth, which is really occasioned by the daily motion of the earth round its own axis, so, in the course of a year, he seems to have an annual motion in the heavens, and to rise and set in different points of them, which is really occasioned by the annual mo-

tion of the earth in its orbit or path round the sun, which it completes in the space of a year. Now as to the first of these motions we owe the difference of day and night, so to the second we are indebted for the difference in the length of the days and nights, and in the seasons of the year.

[THE PLANETS.] Thus much being premised with regard to the motion of the earth, which the smallest reflection may lead us to apply to the other planets, — we must observe, before exhibiting our table, that, besides the seven planets already mentioned, which move round the sun, there are fourteen other bodies which move round four of these, in the same manner as they do round the sun; and of these our earth has one, called the moon; Jupiter has four; Saturn has seven (two * of these having been lately discovered by Dr. Herschel); and the Georgium Sidus has two, as that excellent astronomer has shown. These are called moons, from their agreeing with our moon which was first attended to; and sometimes they are called *secondary* planets, because they seem to be attendants of the Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus, about which they move, and which are called *primary*.

There are but two observations more, necessary for understanding the following table. They are these: we have already said that the annual motion of the earth occasioned the diversity of seasons. But this would not happen, were the axis of the earth exactly parallel to or in a line with the axis of its orbit; because then the same parts of the earth would be turned towards the sun in every diurnal revolution; which would deprive mankind of the grateful vicissitudes of the seasons, arising from the difference in length of the days and nights. This, therefore, is not the case: — the axis of the earth is inclined to the plane of the earth's orbit, which we may conceive by supposing a spindle put through a ball, with one end of it touching the ground; if we move the ball directly forwards, while one end of the spindle continues to touch the ground, and the other points towards some quarter of the heavens, we may form a notion of the inclination of the earth's axis to its orbit, from the inclination of the spindle to the ground. The same observation applies to some of the other planets, as may be seen from the table. The only thing that now remains, is to consider what is meant by the *mean distances* of the planets from the sun. In order to understand this, we must learn that the orbit, or path which a planet describes, were it to be marked out, would not be quite round or circular, but in the shape of a figure called an ellipsis, which, though resembling a circle, is longer than broad. Hence the same planet is not always at the same distance from the sun; and the mean distance of it is that which is exactly betwixt its greatest and least distance. Here follows the table:

* See the 80th vol. of the Philosophical Transactions.

INTRODUCTION.

A TABLE of the DIAMETERS, PERIODS, &c. of the several PLANETS in the SOLAR SYSTEM.

Names of the planets.	Diameters in English Miles.	Mean distances from the sun, as determined from observations of the transit of Venus, in 1761.	Annual period round the sun.			Diurnal rotation on its axis.	Hourly motion in its orbit.	Hourly motion of its equator.	Inclination of axis to orbit.
			Y.	D.	H.				
Sun	890,000					D. H. M.			
Mercury	3,000	36,841,468	0	87	23	25 6 0	109,699	3,818	8° 0' 0"
Venus	7,900	68,891,486	0	224	17	24 8 0	80,295	43	75° 0' 0"
Earth	7,970	95,173,000	1	0	0	1 0 0	68,243	1,042	23 29 0
Moon	2,180	ditto	1	0	0	29 12 44	22,490	92	2 10 0
Mars	5,400	145,014,148	1	321	17	1 0 40	55,287	556	0 0 0
Jupiter	94,000	494,990,976	11	314	18	0 9 56	29,083	25,920	0 0 0
Saturn	78,000	907,959,130	29	167	6	unknown	22,101	unknown	unknown
Georgium Sidus	34,217	1,815,912,266	83	121	0	unknown	unknown	unknown	0 43 35

The Georgian planet (or Georgium Sidus) having greatly excited the attention of the learned world, it would be unpardonable, in a work of this nature, to omit giving the reader a brief account of it. It was discovered by Dr. Herschel, with his telescope of great size and power, forty feet in length, and four and a half in diameter, in the year 1781. For this discovery he obtained from the Royal Society the honorary recompense of Sir Godfrey Copley's medal. In so recent a discovery of a planet so distant, many particulars cannot be expected. We have introduced some account of it into the above table from the first authority.

Though the Georgium Sidus was not known as a planet till the time of Dr. Herschel, yet there are many reasons to suppose it had been seen before, but had then been considered as a fixed star; but, from the steadiness of its light, from its diameter being increased by high magnifying powers, and from the change he had observed in its situation, he concluded that it was a comet; but in a little time, he, with others, determined that it was a planet, from its vicinity to the ecliptic, the direction of its motion, being stationary in the time, and in such circumstances, as correspond with similar appearances in other planets. — When the moon is absent, it may be seen by the naked eye; and the discovery of two satellites attending it seems to confer upon it a dignity, and to raise it into a more conspicuous situation among the great bodies of our solar system. As the distances of the planets, when marked in miles, are a burden to the memory, astronomers often express their mean distances in a shorter way, by supposing the distance from the earth to the sun to be divided into ten parts. Mercury may then be estimated at four of such parts from the sun, Venus at seven, the Earth at ten, Mars at fifteen, Jupiter at fifty-two, Saturn at ninety-five, and the Georgium Sidus at one hundred and ninety.

COMETS.] The reader having obtained an idea of the planets from the table, and the previous observations necessary for understanding it, must next turn his attention to the comets, which, as they revolve round our sun, are a part of the solar system. These, descending from the far distant parts of the system with great rapidity, surprize us with their singular appearance of a train or tail, which accompanies them; become visible to us in the lower parts of their orbits, and, after a short

PLANETS

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	2	10
0	0	0
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unknown		
0	43	35

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stay, go off again to vast distances, and disappear. Though some of the ancients had more just notions of them, yet the opinion having prevailed, that they were only meteors generated in the air, like to those we see in it every night, and in a few moments vanishing, no care was taken to observe or record their phænomena accurately, till of late. Hence this part of astronomy is very imperfect. The general doctrine is that they are solid, compact bodies, like other planets, and regulated by the same laws of gravity, so as to describe equal areas in proportional times by radii drawn to the common centre. They move about the sun in very eccentric ellipses, and are of much greater density than the earth; for some of them are heated in every period to such a degree as would vitrify or dissipate any substance known to us. Sir Isaac Newton computed the heat of the comet that appeared in the year 1680, when nearest the sun, to be 2000 times hotter than red-hot iron, and that, being thus heated, it must retain its heat till it comes round again, although its period should be more than 20,000 years; and it is computed to be only 575. It is believed that there are at least 21 comets belonging to our system, moving in various directions; and all those which have been observed have moved through the ethereal regions and the orbits of the planets, without suffering the least sensible resistance in their motions; which sufficiently proves that the planets do not move in solid orbs. Of all the comets, the periods of three only are known with any degree of certainty, being found to return at intervals of 75, 129, and 575 years; and of these, that which appeared in 1680 is the most remarkable. This comet, at its greatest distance, is about 11 thousand 200 millions of miles from the sun, while its least distance from the centre of the sun is about 490 thousand miles; being less than one third part of the sun's semidiameter from his surface. In that part of its orbit which is nearest the sun, it flies with the amazing velocity of 880,000 miles in an hour; and the sun, as seen from it, appears 100 degrees in breadth, consequently 40,000 times as large as he appears to us. The astonishing distance that this comet runs out into empty space naturally suggests to our imagination the vast distance between our sun and the nearest of the fixed stars, of whose attractions all the comets must keep clear, to return periodically and go round the sun. Dr. Halley, to whom every part of astronomy, but this in a particular manner, is highly indebted, has joined his labours to those of sir Isaac Newton on this subject. Our earth was out of the way, when this comet last passed near her orbit: but it requires a more perfect knowledge of the motion of the comet, to be able to judge if it will always pass by us with so little effect; for it may be here observed that the comet, in one part of its orbit, approaches very near to the orbit of our earth; so that, in some revolutions, it may approach near enough to have very considerable, if not fatal, effects upon it. See Newton, Halley, Gregory, Keil, Mac Laurin, Derham, Ferguson, and Whiston.

THE FIXED STARS.] Having thus briefly surveyed the solar system, which, though great in itself, is small in comparison with the immensity of the universe, we next proceed to the contemplation of those other vast bodies, called the *fixed stars*, which, being of infinite use in the practice of geography, claim a particular notice in this work. These fixed stars are distinguished by the naked eye from the planets, by being less bright and luminous, and by continually exhibiting that appearance which we call the twinkling of the stars. This arises from their being so extremely small, that the interposition of the least body, of which there are many constantly floating in the air, deprives us of the

sight of them; when the interposed body changes its place, we again see the star; and this succession being perpetual, occasions the twinkling. But a more remarkable property of the fixed stars, and that from which they have obtained their name, is their never changing their situation, with regard to each other; as the planets, from what we have already said, must evidently be always changing theirs. The stars which are nearest to us seem largest, and are therefore called stars of the first magnitude. Those of the second magnitude appear less, being at a greater distance; and so proceeding on to the sixth magnitude, which includes all the fixed stars that are visible without a telescope. As to their number, though, in a clear winter's night without moonshine, they seem to be innumerable (which is owing to their strong sparkling, and our looking at them in a confused manner), yet when the whole firmament is divided, as it has been by the ancients, into signs and constellations, the number that can at any time be seen with the naked eye, is not above a thousand. Since the invention of telescopes, indeed, the number of the fixed stars has been justly considered as immense; because the greater perfection we arrive at in our glasses, the more stars always appear to us. M. Flamsteed, late royal astronomer at Greenwich, has given us a catalogue of about 3000 stars. These are called telescopic stars, from their being invisible without the assistance of the telescope. Dr. Herschel, to whose ingenuity and assiduity the astronomical world is so much indebted, has evinced what great discoveries may be made by improvements in the instruments of observation. In speaking here of his discoveries, I shall use the words of M. de la Lande: "In passing rapidly over the heavens with his new telescope, the universe increased under his eye; 44,000 stars, seen in the space of a few degrees, seemed to indicate that there were seventy-five millions in the heavens." But what are all these, when compared to those that fill the whole expanse, the boundless fields of æther? Indeed the immensity of the universe must contain such numbers, as would exceed the utmost stretch of the human imagination; for who can say how far the universe extends, or point out those limits, where the Creator "stayed his rapid wheels," or where he "fixed the golden compasses?"

The immense distance of the fixed stars from our earth, and from each other, is, of all considerations, the most proper for raising our ideas of the works of God. For, notwithstanding the great extent of the earth's orbit or path (which is at least 190 millions of miles in diameter) round the sun, the distance of a fixed star is not sensibly affected by it; so that the star does not appear to be any nearer us when the earth is in that part of its orbit nearest the star, than it seemed to be when the earth was at the most distant part of its orbit, or 190 millions of miles farther removed from the same star. The star nearest us, and consequently the largest in appearance, is the dog-star, or Sirius. Modern discoveries make it probable that each of those fixed stars is a sun, having planets and comets revolving round it, as our sun has the earth and other planets revolving round him. Now the dog-star appears 27,000 times less than the sun; and, as the distance of the stars must be greater in proportion as they seem less, mathematicians have computed the distance of Sirius from us to be two billions and two hundred thousand millions of miles. A ray of light, therefore, though its motion is so quick as to be commonly thought instantaneous, takes up more time in travelling from the stars to us than we do in making a West India voyage. A sound, which, next to light, is considered as the quickest body we are ac-

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quainted with, would not arrive to us from thence in 50,000 years. And a cannon ball, flying at the rate of 480 miles an hour, would not reach us in 700,000 years.

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

It is far from probable that the Almighty, who always acts with infinite wisdom, and does nothing in vain, should create so many glorious suns, fit for so many important purposes, and place them at such distances from each other, without proper objects near enough to be benefited by their influences. Whoever imagines that they were created only to give a faint glimmering light to the inhabitants of this globe, must have a very superficial knowledge of astronomy *, and a mean opinion of the divine wisdom; since, by an infinitely less exertion of creating power, the Deity could have given our earth much more light by one single additional moon.

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

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

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

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

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

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

[THE CONSTELLATIONS.] The *first* people who gave much attention to the fixed stars, were the *shepherds* in the beautiful plains of Egypt and Babylon; who, partly for amusement, and partly with a view to direct them in travelling during the night, observed the situation of these celestial bodies. Endowed with a lively fancy, they divided the stars into different companies or constellations, each of which they supposed to represent the image of some animal, or other terrestrial object. The peasants in our own country do the same thing; for they distinguish that great northern constellation, which astronomers call the *Ursa Major*, by the name of the *Plough*, the figure of which it certainly may represent, with a very little aid from the fancy. The constellations in general have preserved the names which were given them by the ancients; and were reckoned 21 *northern* and 12 *southern*; but the moderns have increased the number of the northern to 36, and of the southern to 32. Besides these, there are the 12 *signs*, or constellations in the *Zodiac*, as it is called, from the Greek word *ζωον*, an animal, because each of these 12 is supposed to represent some animal. This is a great circle which divides the heavens into two equal parts, of which we shall speak hereafter. In the mean time we shall conclude this section with an account of the rise and progress of astronomy, and the revolutions which have taken place in that science.

[DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF THE UNIVERSE.] Man and must have made a very considerable improvement in observing the motions of the heavenly bodies, before they could so far disengage themselves from the prejudices of sense and popular opinion, as to believe that the earth upon which we live was not fixed and immovable. We find, accordingly, that Thales, the Milesian, who, about 580 years before Christ, first taught astronomy in Europe, had made a sufficient progress in this science to calculate eclipses, or interpositions of the moon between the earth and the sun, or of the earth between the sun and the moon (the nature of which may be easily understood, from what we have already observed). Pythagoras, a native of Samos, flourished about 50 years after Thales, and was, no doubt, equally well acquainted with the motion of the heavenly bodies. He conceived an idea, which there is no reason to believe had ever been thought of before, namely, that the earth itself was in motion, and that the sun was at rest. He found that it was impossible, in any other way, to give a consistent account of the heavenly motions. His system, however, was so extremely opposite to all the prejudices of sense and opinion, that it never made great progress, nor was ever widely diffused in the ancient world. The philosophers of antiquity, despairing of being able to overcome ignorance by reason, endeavoured to adapt the one to the other, and in some measure to reconcile them. Ptolemy, an Egyptian philosopher, who flourished

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finished 138 years before Christ, supposed, with the vulgar, that the earth was fixed immovably in the centre of the universe, and that the seven planets, considering the moon as one of the primaries, were placed near to it; above them was the firmament of fixed stars, then the crystalline orbs, then the primum mobile, and, last of all, the cœlum empyrium, or heaven of heavens. All these vast orbs he imagined to move round the earth once in 24 hours, and, besides that, in certain fixed and periodical times. To account for these motions, he was obliged to conceive a number of circles, called eccentrics and epicycles, crossing and interfering with each other. This system was universally maintained by the peripatetic philosophers, who were the most considerable sect in Europe, from the time of Ptolemy to the revival of learning in the sixteenth century.

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

Europe, however, was still immersed in ignorance; and the general ideas of the world were not able to keep pace with those of a refined philosophy. Copernicus therefore had few abettors, but many opponents. Tycho Brahe, in particular, a noble Dane, sensible of the defects of the Ptolemaic system, but unwilling to acknowledge the motion of the earth, endeavoured, about 1586, to establish a new system of his own, which was still more perplexed and embarrassed than that of Ptolemy. It allows a monthly motion to the moon round the earth, as the centre of its orbit; and makes the sun to be the centre of the orbits of Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The sun, however, with all the planets, is supposed to be whirled round the earth in a year, and even once in the twenty-four hours. This system, notwithstanding its absurdity, met with many advocates. Longomontanus, and others, so far refined upon it, as to admit the diurnal motion of the earth, though they insisted that it had no annual motion.

About this time, after a darkness of many successive ages, the first dawn of learning and taste began to appear in Europe. Learned men in different countries began to cultivate astronomy. Galileo, a Florentine, about the year 1610, introduced the use of telescopes, which furnished new arguments in support of the motion of the earth, and confirmed the old ones. The fury and bigotry of the clergy, indeed, had almost stifled the science in its infancy; and Galileo was obliged to renounce the Copernican system, as a damnable heresy. The happy reformation in religion, however, placed a great part of Europe beyond the reach of the papal thunder. It taught mankind that the scriptures were not given for explaining systems of natural philosophy, but for a much nobler purpose, — to make us just, virtuous, and humane; that, instead of opposing the word of God, which, in speaking of natural things, suits itself to the prejudices of weak mortals, we employed our faculties in a manner highly agreeable to our maker, in tracing the nature of his works, which, the more they are considered, afford us the greater reason to admire his glorious attributes of power, wisdom, and goodness. From this time, therefore, noble discoveries were made in all the branches of astronomy. Not only the motions of the heavenly bodies were clearly explained, but the general law of nature, according to which they moved, was discovered and illustrated by the immortal

Newton. This law is called *Gravity or Attraction*, and is the same by which any body falls to the ground, when disengaged from what supported it. It has been demonstrated, that this same law, which keeps the sea in its channel, and the various bodies which cover the surface of this earth from flying off into the air, operates throughout the universe, retains the planets in their orbits, and preserves the whole fabric of nature from confusion and disorder.

S E C T. II.

Of the Doctrine of the SPHERE.

HAVING, in the foregoing Section, treated of the UNIVERSE in general, in which the earth has been considered as a planet, we now proceed to the doctrine of the SPHERE, which ought always to precede that of the Globe or earth, as we shall see in the next Section. In treating this subject, we shall consider the earth as at rest, and the heavenly bodies, as performing their revolutions around it. This method cannot lead the reader into any mistake, since we have previously explained the true system of the universe, from which it appears, that it is the *real* motion of the earth which occasions the *apparent* motion of the heavenly bodies. It is besides attended with this advantage, that it perfectly agrees with the information of our senses. The imagination therefore is not put on the stretch; the idea is easy and familiar; and, in delivering the elements of science, this object cannot be too much attended to.

N. B. In order more clearly to comprehend what follows, the reader may occasionally turn his eye to the figure of the artificial sphere on the opposite page.

The ancients observed, that all the stars turned (in appearance) round the earth, from east to west, in twenty-four hours; that the circles which they described in those revolutions, were parallel to each other, but not of the same magnitude; those passing over the middle of the earth being the largest, while the rest diminished in proportion to their distance from it. They also observed, that there were two points in the heavens, which always preserved the same situation. These points they termed celestial poles, because the heavens seemed to turn round them. In order to imitate these motions, they invented what is called the *Artificial Sphere*, through the centre of which they drew a wire or iron rod, called an *Axis*, whose extremities were fixed to the immovable points called *Poles*. They farther observed, that, on the 20th of March and 23d of September, the circle described by the sun was at an equal distance from both of the poles. This circle, therefore, must divide the earth into two equal parts, and on this account was called the *Equator* or *Equaller*. It was also called the *Equinoctial Line*, because the sun, when moving in it, makes the days and nights of equal length all over the world. Having also observed, that, from the 21st of June to the 22d of December, the sun advanced every day towards a certain point, and having arrived there, returned towards that from whence it set out, from the 22d of December to the 21st of June, — they fixed these points, which they called *Solstices*, because the direct motion of the sun was stopped at them; and represented the bounds of the sun's motion by two circles, which they named *Tropics*, because the sun no sooner arrived there than he turned back. Astronomers ob-

servng the motion of the sun, found its quantity, at a mean rate, to be nearly a degree (or the 360th part) of a great circle in the heavens, every 24 hours. This great circle is called the *Ecliptic*, and it passes through certain constellations, distinguished by the names of animals, in a *zone* called the *Zodiac*. It touches the tropic of Cancer on one side, and that of Capricorn on the other, and cuts the equator obliquely, at an angle of 23 degrees, 29 minutes, the sun's greatest declination. To express this motion, they supposed two points in the heavens, equally distant from and parallel to this circle, which they called the *Poles* of the zodiac, which, turning with the heavens, by means of their axis, describe the *two polar circles*. In the artificial sphere, the equinoctial, the two tropics, and two polar circles, are cut at right angles, by two other circles called *Colures*, which serve to mark the points of the solstices, equinoxes, and poles of the zodiac. The ancients also observed that when the sun was in any point of his course, all the people inhabiting directly north and south, as far as the poles, have noon at the same time. This gave occasion to imagine a circle passing through the poles of the world, which they called a *Meridian*, and which is immovable in the artificial sphere, as well as the horizon, which is another circle representing the bounds betwixt the two hemispheres, or half spheres, viz. that which is above it, and that which is below it.

S E C T. III.

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

BY the Doctrine of the GLOBE is meant the representation of the different places and countries on the face of the earth, upon an artificial globe or ball. Geographers have represented the situation of one place upon this earth with regard to another, or with regard to the earth in general, by transferring the circles of the sphere to the artificial globe; and this is the only method they could employ. This will be abundantly obvious from an example. After that circle in the heavens, which is called the equator, was known to astronomers, there was nothing more easy than to transfer it to the earth, by which the situation of places was determined, according as they lay on one side of the equator or the other. The same may be observed of the other circles of the sphere above mentioned. The reader having obtained an idea of the principle upon which the Doctrine of the Globe is founded, may proceed to consider the doctrine itself, or, in other words, the description of our earth, as represented by the *artificial globe*.

FIGURE OF THE EARTH.] Though, in speaking of the earth with the other planets, it was sufficient to consider it as a spherical or globular body,—yet it has been discovered that this is not its true figure, and that the earth, though nearly a sphere or ball, is not perfectly so. This occasioned great disputes between the philosophers of the last age, among whom sir Isaac Newton, and Cassini, a French astronomer, were the heads of two different parties. Sir Isaac demonstrated, from mathematical principles, that the earth was an *oblate spheroid*, or that it was flatted at the poles, and jutted out towards the equator, so that a line, drawn through the centre of the earth, and passing through the poles, which is called a diameter, would not be so long as a line drawn through the same centre and passing through the east and west points. The French philosopher asserted precisely the reverse; that is, that its diameter was

lengthened towards the poles. In order to decide this question, the King of France, in 1736, sent out some able mathematicians towards the north pole, and likewise others towards the equator, in order to measure a degree, or the three hundred and sixtieth part of a great circle, in those different parts; and from their report, the opinion of Sir Isaac Newton was confirmed beyond dispute. Since that time, therefore, the earth has always been considered as more flat towards the poles than towards the equator. The reason of this figure may be easily understood, if the reader fully comprehends what we formerly observed, with regard to the earth's motion. For if we fix a ball of soft clay on a spindle, and whirl it round, we shall find that it will jut out or project towards the middle, and flatten towards the poles. This is exactly the case with respect to our earth; only that its axis, represented by the spindle, is imaginary. But though the earth be not properly spherical, the difference from that figure is so small, that it may be represented by a globe, without any sensible error.

CIRCUMFERENCE AND DIAMETER OF THE EARTH.] In the general table which we have exhibited, page 4, the diameter of the globe is given according to the best observations; so that its circumference is 25,038 English miles. This circumference is conceived, for the convenience of measuring, to be divided into three hundred and sixty parts or degrees, each degree containing sixty geographical miles, or sixty-nine English miles and a half. These degrees are in the same manner conceived to be divided each into sixty minutes.

AXIS AND POLES OF THE EARTH.] The axis of the earth is that imaginary line passing through its centre, on which it is supposed to turn round once in twenty-four hours. The extreme points of this line are called the Poles of the earth; one in the north and the other in the south, which are exactly under the two points of the heavens called the North and South Poles. The knowledge of these poles is of great use to the geographer in determining the distance and situation of places; for the poles mark, as it were, the ends of the earth, which is divided in the middle by the equator: so that the nearer one approaches to the poles, the farther he removes from the equator; and, in removing from the poles, he approaches the equator.

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

EQUATOR.] The first *great circle* is the *Equator*, or *Equinoctial*; and by navigators called the *Line*. The poles of this circle are the same with those of the world. It passes through the east and west points of the world, and, as has been already mentioned, divides it into the northern and southern hemispheres. It is divided into three hundred and sixty degrees, the use of which will soon appear.

HORIZON.] This *great circle* is represented by a broad circular piece of wood encompassing the globe, and dividing it into the upper and lower hemispheres. Geographers very properly distinguish the horizon into the *sensible* and *rational*. The first is that which bounds the utmost prospect of our sight, when we view the heavens around us, *apparently* touching the earth or sea.

This circle determines the rising or setting of the sun and stars, in any particular place; for when they begin to appear above the eastern

edge, we say they rise; and when they go beneath the western, we say they are set. It appears that each place has its own *sensible* horizon. The other horizon, called the *rational*, encompasses the globe exactly in the middle. Its poles (that is, two points in its axis, each ninety degrees distant from its plane, as those of all circles are) are called the *Zenith* and *Nadir*, — the former exactly above our heads, and the latter directly under our feet. The broad wooden circle which represents it on the globe, has several circles drawn upon it: of these the innermost is that exhibiting the number of degrees of the twelve signs of the Zodiac (of which hereafter), viz. thirty to each sign. Next to this, you have the names of these signs, together with the days of the month according to the old style, and then according to the new style. Besides these, there is a circle representing the thirty-two rhumbs, or points of the mariner's compass. The use of all these will be explained hereafter.

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

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

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

COLURES.] If we imagine *two great circles* passing both through the poles of the world, and one of them through the equinoctial points Aries and Libra, and the other through the solstitial points Cancer and Capricorn, these are called the *Colures*, — the one the Equinoctial, the other the Solstitial Colure. These are *all the great circles*.

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

POLAR CIRCLES.] If two other circles are supposed to be drawn at

the like distance of twenty-three degrees, thirty minutes, reckoned on the meridian from the polar points, these are called the Polar Circles. The northern is called the *Arctic*, because the north pole is near the constellation of the Bear, in Greek *αρκτος*; the southern, the *Antarctic*, because opposite to the former. And these are the four lesser circles. Besides these ten circles now described, which are always drawn on the globe, there are several others which are only supposed to be drawn on it. These will be explained as they become necessary, lest the reader should be disgusted with too many definitions at the same time, without seeing the purpose for which they serve. The principal design of all these circles being to exhibit the respective situation of places on the earth, we shall proceed to consider more particularly how that is effected by them. It was found easier to distinguish places by the quarters of the earth in which they lay, than by their distance from any one point. Thus, after it was discovered that the equator divided the earth into two parts, called the Northern and Southern hemispheres, it was easy to see that all places on the globe might be distinguished, according as they lay on the north or south side of the equator.

ZONES.] After the four lesser circles we have mentioned came to be known, it was found that the earth, by means of them, might be divided into five portions, and consequently that the places on its surface might be distinguished according as they lay in one or other of these portions, which are called *Zones*, from the Greek word *ζώνη*, which signifies a girdle; being broad spaces, like swathes, girding the earth about.

The *torrid zone* is that portion of the earth between the tropics, and called by the ancients *torrid*, because they conceived, that, being continually exposed to the perpendicular or direct rays of the sun, it was rendered uninhabitable, and contained nothing but parched and sandy deserts. This notion, however, has long since been refuted. It is found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail almost throughout the torrid zone, render the earth not only habitable, but so fruitful, that in many places they have two harvests in a year; all sorts of spices and drugs are almost solely produced there; and it furnishes the most perfect metals, precious stones, and pearls. In short, the countries of Africa, Asia, and America, which lie under this zone, are in all respects the most fertile and luxuriant upon earth.

The two *temperate zones* are comprised between the tropics and polar circles. They are called temperate, because, meeting the rays of the sun obliquely, they enjoy a moderate degree of heat.

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

None of all these zones are thoroughly discovered by the Europeans. Our knowledge of the southern temperate zone is very imperfect; we know little of the northern frigid zone; and still less of the southern frigid zone. The northern temperate and torrid zones are those we are best acquainted with.

CLIMATES.] But the division of the earth into hemispheres and zones, though it may be of advantage in letting us know in what quarter of the earth any place lies, is not sufficiently minute for giving us a notion of the distances between one place and another. This however is

still more necessary, because it is of more importance to mankind to know the situations of places with regard to each other, than with regard to the earth itself. The first step taken for determining the relative situation of places was to divide the earth into what are called *Climates*. It was observed, that the day was always twelve hours long at the equator, and that the longest day increased in proportion as we advanced north or south on either side of it. The ancients therefore determined how far any place was north or south of the equator, or what is called the *Latitude* of the place, from the greatest length of the day in that place. They conceived a number of circles parallel to the equator, which bounded the length of the day at different distances from the equator; and as they called the spaces contained between these circles, *Climates*, because they declined from the equator towards the pole, so the circles themselves may be called *Climatical Parallels*. This, therefore, was a new division of the earth, more minute than that of zones, and still continues in use; though, as we shall show, the design which first introduced it may be better answered in another way. There are 30 climates between the equator and either pole. In the first 24, the days increase by half hours: but in the remaining six, between the polar circle and the pole, the days increase by months. The nature and reason of this the reader will more fully understand, when he becomes acquainted with the use of the globe: in the mean time, we shall insert a table, which will serve to show in what climate any country lies, supposing the length of the day, and the distance of the place from the equator, to be known.

Ch.	Lat. D. M.	Breadth D. M.	l. o. Dn. H. M.	Names of Countries and remarkable Places, situated in every Climate North of the Equator.
1	8 25	8 25	12 30	I. Within the first Climate lie the Gold and Silver Coasts in Africa; Malacca in the East-Indies; Cayenne and Surinam, in Terra Firma S. America.
2	16 25	8 0	13 0	II. Here lie Abyssinia in Africa; Siam, Madras, and Pondicherry in the East-Indies; Straits of Darien, between N. and S. America; Tobago, the Granades, St. Vincent, and Barbadoes, in the W. Indies.
3	23 50	7 25	13 30	III. Contains Mecca in Arabia; Bombay, part of Bengal, in the East-Indies; Canton in China; Mexico, Bay of Campeachy, in North America; Jamaica, Hispaniola, St. Christopher's, Antigua, Martinico, and Guadaloupe, in the West-Indies.
4	30 20	6 30	14 0	IV. Egypt, and the Canary Islands, in Africa; Delhi, capital of the Mogul Empire, in Asia; Gulf of Mexico, and East Florida in North America; the Havanna, in the West Indies.
5	36 28	6 8	14 30	V. Gibraltar, in Spain, part of the Mediterranean sea; the Barbary coast, in Africa; Jerusalem, Ispahan, capital of Persia; Nankin in China; California, New Mexico, West Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas, in North America.
6	41 22	4 54	15 0	VI. Lisbon, in Portugal; Madrid, in Spain; Minorca, Sardinia, and part of Greece, in the Mediterranean; Asia Minor; part of the Caspian Sea; Samarcaud; in Great Tartary; Peking, in China; Corea, and Japan; Williamsburgh, in Virginia; Maryland, and Philadelphia, in North America.
7	45 29	4 7	15 30	VII. Northern provinces of Spain; southern ditto of France; Turin, Genoa, and Rome, in Italy; Constantinople, and the Black Sea, in Turkey; the Caspian Sea, and part of Tartary; New York, Boston, in New England, North America.
8	49 1	3 32	16 0	VIII. Paris, Vienna, capital of Germany; Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Canada, in N. America.
9	52 0	2 59	16 30	IX. London, Flanders, Prague, Dresden; Cracow, in Poland; southern provinces of Russia; part of Tartary; north part of Newfoundland.
10	54 27	2 27	17 0	X. Dublin, York, Holland, Hanover, and Tartary; Warsaw, in Poland; Labrador, and New South Wales, in North America.
11	56 37	2 10	17 30	XI. Edinburgh, Copenhagen, Moscow, cap. of Russia.
12	58 29	1 52	18 0	XII. South part of Sweden; Tobolski, cap. of Siberia.
13	59 58	1 29	18 30	XIII. Orkney Isles; Stockholm, capital of Sweden.
14	61 18	1 20	19 0	XIV. Bergen, in Norway; Petersburg, in Russia.
15	62 25	1 7	19 30	XV. Hudson's Straits, North America.
16	63 22		57 20	XVI. Siberia, and the south part of West Greenland.
17	64 6		44 20 30	XVII. Drontheim, in Norway.
18	64 49		43 31	XVIII. Part of Finland, in Russia.
19	65 21		32 21 30	XIX. Archangel, on the White Sea, Russia.
20	65 47		26 22	XX. Hecla, in Iceland.
21	66 6		19 22 30	XXI. Northern part of Russia and Siberia.
22	66 20		14 23	XXII. New North Wales, in North America.
23	66 28		8 23 30	XXIII. Davis's Straits, in ditto.
24	66 31		2 24	XXIV. Samoieda.
25	67 21		1 Month.	XXV. South part of Lapland.
26	69 48		2 Months.	XXVI. West Greenland.
27	73 37		3 Months.	XXVII. Zembla Australis.
28	78 30		4 Months.	XXVIII. Zembla Borealis.
29	84 5		5 Months.	XXIX. Spitzbergen, or East Greenland.
30	90 0		6 Months.	XXX. Unknown.

LATITUDE.] The distance of places from the equator, or what is called their *Latitude*, is easily measured on the globe, by means of the meridian above described. For we have only to bring the place, whose latitude we would know, to the meridian, where the degree of latitude is marked, and it will be exactly over the place. As latitude is reckoned from the equator towards the poles, it is either northern or southern; and the nearer the poles, the greater the latitude; and no place can have more than 90 degrees of latitude, because the poles, where the reckoning of the latitude terminates, are at that distance from the equator.

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

LONGITUDE.] The *Longitude* of a place is its situation with regard to the first meridian, and consequently reckoned towards the east or west: in reckoning the longitude, there is no particular spot from which we ought to set out preferably to another; but, for the advantage of a general rule, the meridian of Ferro, the most westerly of the Canary islands, was formerly considered as the first meridian in most of the globes and maps, and the longitude of places was reckoned to be so many degrees east or west of the meridian of Ferro. The modern globes fix the first meridian, from which the degrees of longitude are reckoned, in the capital city of the different countries where they are made, viz. the English globes date the first meridian from London or Greenwich, the French globes from Paris, &c. The degrees of longitude are marked on the equator. No place can have more than 180 degrees of longitude, because, the circumference of the globe being 360 degrees, no place can be remote from another above half that distance; but many foreign geographers improperly reckon the longitude quite round the globe. The degrees of longitude are not equal, like those of latitude, but diminish in proportion as the meridians incline, or their distance contracts in approaching the pole. Hence, in 60 degrees of latitude, a degree of longitude is but half the quantity of a degree on the equator, and so of the rest. The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude, in each parallel of latitude, are set down in the table in the following page.

LONGITUDE AND LATITUDE FOUND.] To find the longitude and latitude of any place, therefore, we need only bring that place to the brazen meridian; and we shall find the degree of longitude marked on the equator, and the degree of latitude on the meridian. So that to find the difference between the latitude or longitude of two places, we have only to compare the degrees of either, thus found, with one another, and the reduction of these degrees into miles, according to the table given below; and, remembering that every degree of longitude at the equator, and every degree of latitude all over the globe, is equal to 69 geographic miles, or 69 one-half English, we shall be able exactly to determine the distance between any places on the globe.

DISTANCE OF PLACES MEASURED.] The distance of places which lie in an oblique direction, i. e. neither directly south, north, east, nor west, from one another, may be measured in a readier way, by extending the compasses from the one to the other, and then applying them to the equator. For instance, extend the compasses from Guinea in Africa, to Brazil in America, and then apply them to the equator, and you will find the distance to be 25 degrees, which, at 60 miles to a degree, makes the distance 1500 miles.

QUADRANT OF ALTITUDE.] In order to supply the place of the compasses in this operation, there is commonly a pliant narrow plate of brass screwed on the brazen meridian, which contains 90 degrees, or one quarter of the circumference of the globe, by means of which the distances and bearings of places are measured without the trouble of first extending the compasses between them, and then applying the same to the equator. This plate is called the **Quadrant of Altitude.**

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

A T A B L E,

SHOWING

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

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

PROBLEMS PERFORMED BY THE GLOBE.

PROBLEM 1. *The Diameter of an artificial Globe being given, to find its Surface in square, and its Solidity in cubic Measure.*

MULTIPLY the diameter by the circumference, which is a great circle dividing the globe into two equal parts, and the product will give the first; then multiply the said product by one sixth of the diameter, and the product of that will give the second. After the same manner we may find the surface and solidity of the natural globe, as also the whole body of the atmosphere surrounding the same, provided it be always and every where of the same height; for, having found the perpendicular height thereof by the common experiment of the ascent of mercury at the foot and top of a mountain, double the said height, and add the same to the diameter of the earth; then multiply the whole, as a new diameter, by its proper circumference, and from the product subtract the solidity of the earth, it will leave that of the atmosphere.

PROB. 2. *To rectify the Globe.*

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

PROB. 3. *To find the Longitude and Latitude of any Place.*

For this, see page 17.

PROB. 4. *The Longitude and Latitude of any Place being given, to find that Place on the Globe.*

Bring the degree of longitude to the brazen meridian; reckon upon the same meridian the degree of latitude, whether south or north, and make a mark where the reckoning ends; the point exactly under the mark is the place desired.

PROB. 5. *The Latitude of any Place being given, to find all those Places that have the same Latitude.*

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(a) PROB. 2. Elevate the pole *(a)* according to the latitude of the given place; find the sun's place in the ecliptic *(b)* at that time; which being brought to the east side of the horizon, set the index of the horary circle at noon, or the upper figure XII. and turning the globe about till the aforesaid place of the ecliptic touch the western side of the horizon, look upon the horary circle; and where the index points, reckon the number of hours to the upper figure of XII. for that is the length of the day, the complement of which to 24 hours is the length of the night.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and set the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day in that place. Then turn about the globe till the index points at the upper figure of XII. and observe what

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

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

The sun's place in the ecliptic (*a*) being found, and (*a*) **PROB. 5.** brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark above the (*b*) **PROB. 16.** same; then (*b*) find those places of the earth in whose meridian the sun is at that instant, and bring them to the brazen meridian; which done, observe that part of the earth which falls exactly under the aforesaid mark in the brazen meridian; for that is the particular place to which the sun is vertical at that time.

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

This problem cannot be solved by any globe fitted up in the common way, with the hour-circle fixed upon the brass meridian, unless the sun be on or near either of the tropics on the given day. But by a globe fitted up according to Mr. Joseph Harris's invention, where the hour-circle lies on the surface of the globe below the meridian, it may be solved for any day in the year, according to his method, which is as follows:

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

If any place be brought to the upper semicircle of the brazen meridian, and the hour index be set to the upper XII. or noon, and then the globe be turned round eastward on its axis, when the place comes to the western semicircle of the horizon, the index will show the time of sun rising at that place; and when the same place comes to the eastern se-

micircle of the horizon, the index will show the time of the sun's setting.

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

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

The moon's place in the zodiac may be found readily enough at any time by an ordinary almanack; and her latitude, which is her distance from the ecliptic, by applying the semicircle of position to her place in the zodiac. For the solution of the problem, elevate the pole (*a*) according to the latitude of the given place; and (*a*) **PROB. 2.** the sun's place in the ecliptic at the time being (*b*) found, and marked, as also the moon's place at the same time, (*b*) **PROB. 6.** bring the sun's place to the brazen meridian, and set the index of the horary circle at noon; then turn the globe till the moon's place successively meet with the eastern and western side of the horizon, as also the brazen meridian; and the index will point at those various times the particular hours of her rising, setting, and southing.

PROB. 20. *Two Places being given on the Globe, to find the true distance between them.*

Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both the places; and the number of degrees intercepted between them will be their true distance from each other, reckoning every degree to be 69½ English miles.

PROB. 21. *A Place being given on the Globe, and its true Distance from a second Place, to find what other Places of the Earth are at the same Distance from the given Place.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and elevate the pole according to the latitude of the said place; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and reckon upon that quadrant the given distance between the first and second place, provided the same be under 90 degrees; otherwise you must use the semicircle of position, and making a mark where the reckoning ends, and moving the said quadrant or semicircle quite round upon the surface of the globe, all places passing under that mark are those desired.

GEOGRAPHICAL OBSERVATIONS.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

OF THE NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

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

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

The parts of the water are oceans, seas, lakes, straits, gulfs, bays, or creeks, rivers, &c. The waters are divided into three extensive oceans (besides lesser seas, which are only branches of these), viz. the *Atlantic*, the *Pacific* and the *Indian* Ocean. The Atlantic, or Western Ocean, divides the eastern and western continents, and is 3000 miles wide. The Pacific divides America from Asia, and is 10,000 miles over. The Indian Ocean lies between the East Indies and Africa, being 3000 miles wide.

The *ocean* is a vast collection of water, without any entire separation of its parts by land; as the Atlantic Ocean. A *sea* is a smaller collection of water, which communicates with the ocean, confined by the land; as the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. A *lake* is a large collection of water, entirely surrounded by land; as the lake of Geneva, and the lakes in Canada. A *strait* is a narrow part of the sea, confined or lying between two shores, and opening a passage out of one sea into another; as the strait of Gibraltar, or that of Magellan. This is sometimes called a *sound*; as the strait into the Baltic. A *gulf* is a part of the sea running up into the land, and surrounded by it, except at the passage whereby it communicates with the sea or ocean. If a gulf be very large, it is called an *inland sea*; as the Mediterranean; if it do not go far into the land, it is called a *bay*, as the Bay of Biscay; if it be very small, a *creek*, *haven*, *harbour*, or *road* for ships, as Milford Haven. Rivers, canals, brooks, &c. need no description; for these lesser divisions of water, like those of land, are to be met with in most countries, and every one has a clear idea of what is meant by them. But in order to strengthen the remembrance of the great parts of the land and water we have described, it may be proper to observe that there is a strong analogy or resemblance between them. The description of a continent resembles that of an ocean; an island encompassed with water resembles a lake encompassed with land. A peninsula of land is like a gulf or inland sea. A promontory or cape of land is like a bay or creek of the sea; and an isthmus, whereby two lands are joined, resembles a strait, which unites one sea to another.

To this description of the divisions of the earth, rather than add an enumeration of the various parts of land and water which correspond to them, and which the reader will find in the body of the work, we shall subjoin a table, exhibiting the superficial contents of the whole globe in square miles, sixty to a degree, and also of the seas and unknown parts, the habitable earth, the four quarters or continents; likewise of the great empires and principal islands, which shall be placed as they are subordinate to one another in magnitude.

	Square Miles.	Islands.	Square Miles.	Islands.	Sq. Mi.
The Globe	148,510,627	Cuba	38,400	St. Michael	920
Seas and unknown Parts	117,843,821	Java	38,250	Sky Islands	900
The Habitable World *	30,666,306	Hispantola	36,000	Lewis	880
Europe	4,749,349	Newfoundl.	35,500	Funea	768
Asia	10,247,487	Ceylon	27,730	Yvica	625
Africa	8,506,108	Ireland	27,457	Minorca	520
America	9,153,762	Formosa	17,000	Rhodes	480
Persian Empire under Darius	1,650,000	Anlan	11,900	Cephalonia	420
Rom. Em. in its utmost height	1,610,000	Gilolo	10,400	Amboyna	400
Ruffian	3,376,485	Sielly	9400	Orkn. Pomona	324
Chinefe	1,749,000	Timor	7800	Scio	300
Great Mogul	1,116,000	Sardinia	6600	Martinico	260
Turkish	960,037	Cyprus	6300	Lemnos	220
British, exclusive of Settlements in Africa and Gibraltar	809,996	Jamaica	6000	Corfu	194
Present Persian	800,000	Flores	6000	Providence	168
		Ceram	5400	Man	160
		Breton	4000	Bornholm	160
		Socotra	3600	Wight	150
		Candia	3200	Malta	150
		Porto Rico	3200	Barbadoes	140
		Sumatra	219,000	Corfica	2520
		Japan	118,000	Zante	120
		Great Britain	72,926	Zealand	1935
		Celebes	68,400	Majorca	1400
		Manilla	58,500	St. Jago	1400
		Iceland	46,000	Negropont	1300
		Terra del Fuego	42,075	Teneriff	1272
		Mindanao	39,200	Gothland	1000
				Madeira	950
				Rhode	36

ISLANDS.

To these islands may be added the following, which have lately been discovered or more fully explored. The exact dimensions of them are not ascertained; but they may be arranged in the following order, according to their magnitude, beginning at the largest, which is supposed to be nearly equal in size to the whole continent of Europe;

New Holland,	Otaheite, or King George's Island,
New Guinea,	Friendly Islands,
New Zealand,	Marquesas,
New Caledonia,	Easter, or Davis's Island.
New Hebrides,	

* The number of inhabitants computed at present to be in the known world, at a medium, taken from the best calculations, are about 953 millions.

Europe contains	53 Millions.
Asia	500
Africa	150
America	150
Total	953

WINDS AND TIDES.] We cannot finish the doctrine of the earth, without considering the winds and tides, from which the changes that happen on its surface principally arise.

WINDS.] The earth on which we live is every where surrounded by a fine invisible fluid, which extends to several miles above its surface, and is called *Air*. It is found by experiments, that a small quantity of air is capable of being expanded, so as to fill a very large space, or to be compressed into a much smaller compass than it occupied before. The general cause of the expansion of the air is heat; the general cause of its compression is cold. Hence if any part of the air or atmosphere receive a greater degree of cold or heat than it had before, its parts will be put in motion, and expanded or compressed. But when air is put in motion, we call it *wind* in general, and a breeze, gale, or storm, according to the quickness or velocity of that motion. Winds,

therefore, which are commonly considered as things extremely variable and uncertain, depend on a general cause, and act with more or less uniformity in proportion as the action of this cause is more or less constant. It is found by observations made at sea, that, from thirty degrees north latitude, to thirty degrees south, there is a constant east wind throughout the year, blowing on the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and called the *Trade Wind*. This is occasioned by the action of the sun, which, in moving from east to west, heats and consequently expands the air immediately under him; by which means a stream or tide of air always accompanies him in his course, and occasions a perpetual east wind within these limits. This general cause however is modified by a number of particulars, the explication of which would be too tedious and complicated for our present plan, which is to mention facts rather than theories.

The winds called the *Tropical Winds*, which blow from some particular point of the compass without much variation, are of three kinds: 1. The *General Trade Winds*, which extend to nearly thirty degrees of latitude on each side of the equator in the Atlantic, Ethiopic, and Pacific seas. 2. The *Monsoons*, or shifting trade-winds, which blow six months in one direction, and the other six months in the opposite direction. These are mostly in the Indian or Eastern Ocean, and do not extend above two hundred leagues from the land. Their change is at the vernal and autumnal equinoxes, and is accompanied with terrible storms of thunder, lightning, and rain. 3. The *Sea and Land Breezes*, which are another kind of periodical winds, that blow from the land from midnight to midday, and from the sea from about noon till midnight; these, however, do not extend above two or three leagues from shore. Near the coast of Guinea in Africa, the wind blows nearly always from the west, south-west, or south. On the coast of Peru in South America, the wind blows constantly from the south-west. Beyond the latitude of thirty north and south, the winds, as we daily perceive in Great Britain, are more variable, though they blow oftener from the west than any other point. Between the fourth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and between the longitude of Cape Verd and that of the easternmost of the Cape Verd islands, there is a tract of sea condemned to perpetual calms, attended with terrible thunder and lightning, and such rains, that this sea has acquired the name of *the Rains*.

It may be also useful to students in navigation and geography to observe farther, that the course or latitude our ships generally keep in their passage from England to America, and the West Indies, is,

To Boston in New England, and Halifax in Nova Scotia, from 42 to 43 degrees.

To New York by the Azores or Western Islands, 39 degrees.

To Carolina and Virginia by Madeira, which is called the upper course, 32 degrees; but the usual course, to take advantage of the trade-winds, is from 16 to 23 degrees; and in this course they frequently touch at Antigua: it is this course our West India ships sail in.

The Spanish galleons and the flota from Spain keep from 15 to 18 degrees; and in their return to Spain, about 37 degrees.

[TIDES.] By the *tides* is meant that regular motion of the sea, according to which it ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours. The doctrine of the tides remained in obscurity, till the immortal sir Isaac Newton explained it by his great principle of gravity or attraction. For, having demonstrated that there is a principle in all bodies within the solar system, by which they mutually draw or attract one another in

proportion to their distance, it follows, that those parts of the sea which are immediately below the moon, must be drawn towards it; and consequently, wherever the moon is nearly vertical, the sea will be raised, which occasions the flowing of the tide there. A similar reason occasions the flowing of the tide likewise in those places where the moon is in the nadir, and which must be diametrically opposite to the former: for in the hemisphere farthest from the moon, the parts in the nadir being less attracted by her than the other parts which are nearer to her, gravitate less towards the earth's centre, and consequently must be higher than the rest. Those parts of the earth, on the contrary, where the moon appears on the horizon, or ninety degrees distant from the zenith and nadir, will have low water; for as the waters in the zenith and nadir rise at the same time, the waters in their neighbourhood will press towards those places to maintain the equilibrium; to supply the places of these, others will move the same way, and so on to the places ninety degrees distant from the zenith and nadir, where the water will be lowest. By combining this doctrine with the diurnal motion of the earth, above explained, we shall be sensible of the reason why the tides ebb and flow twice in a lunar day, or about twenty-four hours fifty minutes.

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

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

MAPS.] A map is the representation of the earth, or a part of it, on a plane surface. Maps differ from the globe in the same manner as a picture does from a statue. The globe truly represents the earth; whereas a map, being a plane surface, cannot represent a spherical body. But though the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet

by means of several, each containing about ten or twenty degrees of latitude, the representation will not fall very much short of the globe for exactness; because such maps, if joined together, would form a spherical convex nearly as round as the globe itself.

CARDINAL POINTS.] The north is considered as the upper part of the map; the south is at the bottom, opposite to the north; the east is on the right hand, the face being turned to the north; and the west on the left hand opposite to the east. From the top to the bottom are drawn meridians, or *lines of longitude*; and from side to side, *parallels of latitude*. The outermost of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of latitude and longitude, by means of which, and the scale of miles commonly placed in the corner of the map, the situation, distance, &c. of places, may be found, as on the artificial globe. Thus, to find the distance of two places, suppose London and Paris, by the map, we have only to measure the space between them with the compasses, or a bit of thread, and to apply this distance to the scale of miles, which shows that London is 210 miles distant from Paris. If the places lie directly north or south, east or west, from each other, we have only to observe the degrees on the meridians and parallels; and by turning these into miles, we obtain the distance without measuring. Rivers are described in maps by black lines, and are wider towards the mouth than towards the head or spring. Mountains are sketched on maps as on a picture. Forests and woods are represented by a kind of shrub; bogs and morasses, by shades; sands and shallows are described by small dots; and roads usually by double lines. Near harbours, the depth of the water is expressed by figures representing fathoms.

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

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

The Russian vorst is little more than $\frac{3}{4}$ English.

The Turkish, Italian, and old Roman lesser mile, is nearly one English.

The Arabian, ancient and modern, is about $1\frac{1}{4}$ English.

The Scotch and Irish mile is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ English.

The Indian is almost 3 English.

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

The German is more than 4 English.

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

The French common league is near 3 English; and

The English marine league is 3 English miles.

PART II

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

HAVING, in the following work, mentioned the ancient names of countries, and even sometimes, in speaking of those countries, carried our researches beyond modern times, — it was thought necessary, in

order to prepare the reader for entering upon the particular history of each country we describe, to place before his eye a general view of the history of mankind, from the first ages of the world to the reformation in religion during the 16th century. By a history of the world, we do not mean a mere list of dates (which, when taken by itself, is a thing extremely insignificant), but an account of the most interesting and important events which have happened among mankind; with the causes that have produced, and the effects which have followed from them. This we judge to be a matter of high importance in itself, and indispensably requisite to the understanding of the present state of commerce, government, arts, and manners, in any particular country: it may be called commercial and political geography, and, undoubtedly, constitutes the most useful branch of that science.

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

It appears in general, from the first chapters in Genesis, that the world, before the flood, was extremely populous; that mankind had made considerable improvement in the arts, and were become extremely vicious, both in their sentiments and manners. Their wickedness gave occasion to a memorable catastrophe, by which the whole human race, except Noah and his family, were swept from the face of the earth. The deluge took place in the 1656th year of the world, and produced a very considerable change in the soil and atmosphere of this globe, and gave them a form less friendly to the frame and texture of the human body. Hence the abridgement of the life of man, and that formidable train of diseases which has ever since made such havock in the world. A curious part of history follows that of the deluge,—the re-peopling of the world, and the rising of a new generation from the ruins of the former. The memory of the three sons of Noah, the first founders of nations, was long preserved among their several descendants. Japhet continued famous among the western nations, under the celebrated name of Iapetus; the Hebrews paid an equal veneration to Shem, who was the founder of their race; and, among the Egyptians, Ham was long revered as a divinity, under the name of Jupiter Hammon. It appears that hunting was the principal occupation some centuries after the deluge. The world teemed with wild beasts; and the great heroism of those times consisted in destroying them. Hence Nimrod obtained immortal renown, and, by the admiration which his courage and dexterity universally excited, was enabled to acquire an authority over his fellow-creatures, and to found at Babylon the first monarchy whose origin is particularly mentioned in history. Not long after, the foundation of Nineveh was laid by Assur; in Egypt the four governments of Thebes, Theri, Memphis, and Tanis, began to assume some appearance of form and regularity. That these events should have happened so soon after the deluge, whatever surpris-

* The Samaritan copy of the Pentateuch, or five books of Moses, makes the antediluvian period only 1307 years, 349 short of the Hebrew Bible computation; and the Septuagint copy stretches it to 2261 years, which is 606 years exceeding it; but the Hebrew chronology is generally acknowledged to be of superior authority.

it may have occasioned to the learned some centuries ago, need not in the smallest degree excite the wonder of the present age. We have seen, from many instances, the powerful effects of the principles of population, and how speedily mankind increase, when the generative faculty lies under no restraint. The kingdoms of Mexico and Peru were incomparably more extensive than those of Babylon, Nineveh, and Egypt, during that early age; and yet these kingdoms are not supposed to have existed four centuries before the discovery of America by Columbus. As mankind continued to multiply on the earth, and to separate from each other, the tradition concerning the true God was obliterated B. C. or obscured. This occasioned the calling of Abraham to be the 1941 * father of a chosen people. From this period the history of ancient nations begins a little to expand itself; and we learn several particulars of very considerable importance.

Mankind had not long been united into societies before they began to oppress and destroy one another. Chedorlaomer, king of the Elamites, or Persians, was already become a robber and a conqueror. His force, however, could not have been very considerable, since, in one of his expeditions, Abraham, assisted only by his household, set upon him in his retreat, and, after a fierce engagement, recovered all the spoil that had been taken. Abraham was soon after obliged by a famine to leave Canaan, the country where God had commanded him to settle, and to go into Egypt. This journey gives occasion to Moses to mention some particulars respecting the Egyptians, which evidently discover the characteristics of an improved and powerful nation. The court of the Egyptian monarch is described in the most brilliant colours. He was surrounded by a crowd of courtiers, solely occupied in gratifying his passions. The particular governments into which that country was divided, were now united under one powerful prince; and Ham, who led the colony into Egypt, became the founder of a mighty empire. We are not, however, to imagine, that all the laws which took place in Egypt, and which have been so justly admired for their wisdom, were the work of that early age. Diodorus Siculus, a Greek writer, mentions many successive princes, who laboured for their establishment and perfection. But in the time of Jacob, two centuries after, the first principles of civil order and regular government seem to have been tolerably understood among the Egyptians. The country was divided into several districts or separate departments; councils, composed of experienced and select persons, were established for the management of public affairs; granaries for preserving corn were erected; and, in fine, the Egyptians in that age enjoyed a commerce far from inconsiderable. These facts, though of an ancient date, deserve our particular attention. It is from the Egyptians that many of the arts, both of elegance and utility, have been handed down in an uninterrupted chain to the modern nations of Europe. The Egyptians communicated their arts to the Greeks; the Greeks taught the Romans many improvements both in the arts of peace and war; and to the Romans, the present inhabitants of Europe are indebted for their civility and refinement. The kingdoms of Babylon and Nineveh remained separate for several centuries; but we scarcely know even the names of the kings who governed them, except that of Ninus, the successor of Assur, who, fired with the spirit of conquest, extended the

* According to Dr. Playfair's Chronological Tables, the birth of Abraham is fixed at before Christ 2060, and his being called out of Urr, at 1986.

bounds of his kingdom, added Babylon to his dominions, and laid the foundation of that monarchy, which, raised to its meridian splendor by his enterprising successor Semiramis, and distinguished by the name of the Assyrian empire, ruled Asia for many ages.

Javan, son of Japhet, and grand-son of Noah, is the stock from whom all the people known by the name of Greeks are descended. Javan established himself in the islands on the western coast of Asia Minor, from whence it was impossible that some wanderers should not pass over into Europe. The kingdom of Sicyon, near Corinth, founded by the Pelasgi, is generally supposed to have commenced in the year before Christ 2090. To these first inhabitants succeeded a colony from Egypt, who, about 2000 years before the Christian era, penetrated into Greece, and, under the name of Titans, endeavoured to establish monarchy in that country, and to introduce into it the laws and civil polity of the Egyptians. But the empire of the Titans was soon dissolved; and the Greeks, who seem to have been at this time as rude and barbarous as any people in the world, again fell back into their lawless and savage manner of life. Several colonies, however, soon after passed over from Asia into Greece, and, by remaining in that country, produced a more considerable alteration in the manners of its inhabitants. The most ancient of these were the colonies of Inachus and Ogyges; of whom the former settled in Argos, and the latter in Attica. We know very little of Ogyges or his successors. Those of Inachus endeavoured to unite the dispersed and wandering Greeks; and their endeavours for this purpose were not altogether unsuccessful.

But the history of the Israelites is the only one with which we are much acquainted during those ages. The train of curious events which occasioned the settling of Jacob and his family in that part of Egypt of which Tanis was the capital, are universally known. That patriarch died, according to the Septuagint version of the Bible, 1794 years before Christ, but, according to the Hebrew chronology, only 1689 years, and in the year of the world 2315. This is a remarkable era with respect to the nations of heathen antiquity, and concludes that period of time which the Greeks considered as altogether unknown, and which they have greatly disfigured by their fabulous narrations. Let us regard this period then in another point of view, and consider what we can learn from the sacred writings, with respect to the arts, manners, and laws of ancient nations.

It is a common error among writers on this subject, to consider all the nations of antiquity as being on the same footing with regard to those matters. They find some nations extremely rude and barbarous, and hence they conclude that all were in that situation. They discover others acquainted with many arts, and hence they infer the wisdom of the first ages. There appears, however, to have been as much difference between the inhabitants of the ancient world, in point of art and refinement, as between the civilised kingdoms of modern Europe, and the Indians of America, or the negroes on the coast of Africa. Noah was undoubtedly acquainted with all the science and arts of the antediluvian world; these he would communicate to his children, and they again would hand them down to their posterity. Those nations, therefore, who settled nearest the original seat of mankind, and who had the best opportunities to avail themselves of the knowledge which their great ancestor was possessed of, early formed themselves into regular societies, and made considerable improvements in the arts which are most subservient to human life. Agriculture appears to have been

known in the first ages of the world. Noah cultivated the vine: in the time of Jacob, the fig-tree and the almond were well known in the land of Canaan; and the instruments of husbandry, long before the discovery of them in Greece, are often mentioned in the sacred writings. It is hardly to be supposed that the ancient cities, both in Asia and Egypt, (whose foundation, as we have already mentioned, ascends to the remotest antiquity) could have been built, unless the culture of the ground had been practised at that time. Nations who live by hunting or pasturage only, lead a wandering life, and seldom fix their residence in cities. Commerce naturally follows agriculture: and though we cannot trace the steps by which it was introduced among the ancient nations, we may, from detached passages in sacred writ, ascertain the progress which had been made in it during the patriarchal times. We know from the history of civil society, that the commercial intercourse between men must be pretty considerable, before the metals come to be considered as the medium of trade; and yet this was the case even in the days of Abraham. It appears, however, from the relations which establish this fact, that the use of money had not been of ancient date; it had no mark to ascertain its weight or fineness; and in a contract for a burying-place, in exchange for which Abraham gave silver, the metal was weighed in presence of all the people. But as commerce improved, and bargains of this sort became more common, this practice was laid aside, and the quantity of silver was ascertained by a particular mark, which saved the trouble of weighing it. But this does not appear to have taken place till the time of Jacob, the second from Abraham. The *reslak*, of which we read in his time, was a piece of money, stamped with the figure of a lamb, and of a precise and stated value. It appears from the history of Joseph, that the commerce between different nations was by this time regularly carried on. The Ishmaelites and Midianites, who bought him of his brethren, were travelling merchants, resembling the modern caravans, who carried spices, perfumes, and other rich commodities, from their own country into Egypt. The same observation may be made from the book of Job, who, according to the best writers, was a native of Arabia Felix, and also a contemporary with Jacob. He speaks of the roads of Thina and Saba, i. e. of the caravans which set out from those cities of Arabia. If we reflect that the commodities of that country were rather the luxuries than the conveniences of life, we shall have reason to conclude that the countries into which they were sent for sale, and particularly Egypt, were considerably improved in arts and refinement.

In speaking of commerce, we ought carefully to distinguish between the species of it which is carried on by land, or inland commerce, and that which is carried on by sea; which last kind of traffic is both later in its origin, and slower in its progress. Had the descendants of Noah been left to their own ingenuity, and received no tincture of the antediluvian knowledge from their wise ancestors, it is improbable that they should have ventured on navigating the open seas so soon as we find they did. That branch of his posterity who settled on the coasts of Palestine, were the first people of the world among whom navigation was made subservient to commerce: they were distinguished by a word, which in the Hebrew tongue signifies *merchants*, and are the same nation afterwards known to the Greeks by the name of Phœnicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful soil, they set themselves to better their situation by cultivating the arts. Commerce was their capital object: and with all the writers of pagan antiquity, they pass for the inventors of

whatever is subservient to it. At the time of Abraham they were regarded as a powerful nation; their maritime commerce is mentioned by Jacob in his last words to his children; and, if we may believe Herodotus in a matter of such remote antiquity, the Phœnicians had by this time navigated the coasts of Greece, and carried off the daughter of Inachus.

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

We might naturally expect, that, from the death of Jacob, and as we advance forward in time, the history of the great empires of Egypt and Assyria would emerge from their obscurity. This, however, is far from being the case; we only get a glimpse of them, and they disappear entirely for many ages. After the reign of Ninias, who succeeded Sennacherib, B. C. 705, Sennacherib and Ninus in the Assyrian throne, we find an astonishing blank in the history of that empire, for no less than eight hundred years. The silence of ancient history on this subject is commonly attributed to the softness and effeminacy of the successors of Ninus, whose lives afforded no events worthy of narration. Wars and commotions are the great themes of the historian, while the gentle and happy reigns of wise princes pass unobserved and unrecorded. Sesostris, a prince of wonderful abilities, is supposed to have mounted the throne of Egypt after Amenophis, who was swallowed up in the Red Sea about the year before Christ 1492. By his assiduity and attention, the civil and military establishments of the Egyptians received very considerable improvements. Egypt, in the time

of Sesostris and his immediate successors, was, in all probability, the most powerful kingdom upon earth, and, according to the best calculation, is supposed to have contained twenty-seven millions of inhabitants: But ancient history often excites, without gratifying, our curiosity; for, from the reign of Sesostris to that of Bocchoris, in the year before Christ 1781, we have little knowledge of even the names of the intermediate princes. If we judge, however, from collateral circumstances, the country must still have continued in a very flourishing condition; for Egypt continued to pour forth her colonies into distant nations. Athens, that seat of learning and politeness, that school for all who aspired after wisdom, owes its foundation to Cecrops, who landed in Greece with an Egyptian colony, and endeavoured to civilise the rough manners of the original inhabitants. From the institutions which Cecrops established among the Athenians, it is easy to infer in what a condition they must have lived before his arrival. The laws of marriage, which few nations are so barbarous as to be altogether unacquainted with, were not known in Greece. Mankind, like the beasts of the field, were propagated by accidental connections, and with little knowledge of those to whom they owed their generation. Cranaüs, who succeeded Cecrops in the kingdom of Attica, pursued the same beneficial plan, and endeavoured, by wise institutions, to bridle the keen passions of a rude people.

Whilst those princes used their endeavours for civilising this corner of Greece, the other kingdoms, into which this country, by the natural boundaries of rocks, mountains, and rivers, was divided, and which had been already peopled by colonies from Egypt and the East, began to assume some appearance of form and regularity. This engaged Amphictyon, one of those uncommon geniuses who appear in the world for the benefit of the age in which they live, and the admiration of posterity, to think of some expedient by which he might unite in one confederacy the several independent kingdoms of Greece, and thereby deliver them from those intestine divisions which must render them a prey to one another, or to the first enemy who might think proper to invade them. These reflections he communicated to the kings or leaders of the different territories, and by his eloquence and address engaged twelve cities to unite together for their common preservation. Two deputies from each of those cities assembled twice a year at Thermopylae, and formed what, after the name of its founder, was called the Amphictyonic Council. In this assembly, whatever related to the general interest of the confederacy, was discussed and finally determined. Amphictyon likewise, sensible that those political connections are the most lasting which are strengthened by religion, committed to the Amphictyons the care of the temple at Delphi, and of the riches which, from the dedications of those who consulted the oracle, had been amassed in it. This assembly, constituted on such solid foundations, was the great spring of faction in Greece, while that country preserved its independence; and, by the union which it inspired among the Greeks, enabled them to defend their liberties against all the force of the Persian empire. Considering the circumstances of the age in which it was instituted, the Amphictyonic council is perhaps the most remarkable political establishment which ever took place among mankind. In the year before Christ 1322, the Isthmian games were instituted at Corinth; and in 1303 the famous Olympic games by Pelops; which games, together with the Pythian and Nemean, have been rendered immortal by the genius of Pindar. The Greek states, who formerly had no connection with one another except by mutual inroads and hostilities, soon began to act with concert, and to undertake distant expeditions for the ge-

neral interest of the confederacy. The first of these was the famous expedition of the Argonauts, in which all Greece appears to have been concerned. The object of the Argonauts was to open the commerce of the Euxine sea, and to establish colonies in the adjacent country of B. C. Colchis. The ship Argo, which was the admiral of the fleet, is the only one particularly taken notice of; though we learn from Homer and other ancient writers, that several vessels were employed in that expedition. The fleet was, from the ignorance of those who conducted it, long tossed about on different coasts. The rocks, at some distance from the mouth of the Euxine sea, occasioned great difficulty to the Argonauts: they sent forward a light vessel, which passed through, but returned with the loss of her rudder. This is expressed, in the fabulous language of antiquity, by their sending out a bird, which returned with the loss of its tail, and may give us an idea of the allegorical obscurity in which the other events of that expedition are involved. The fleet, however, at length arrived at *Æa*, the capital of Colchis, after performing a voyage, which, considering the mean condition of the naval art during that age, was not less important than the circumnavigation of the earth by our modern discoverers. From this expedition to that against Troy, which was undertaken to recover the fair Helena, a queen of Sparta, who had been carried off by Paris, son of the Trojan king, the Greeks must have made a wonderful progress in arts, in power, and opulence: no less than twelve hundred vessels were employed in this voyage, each of which, at a medium, contained upwards of a hundred men. These vessels, however, were but half-decked; and it does not appear that iron entered at all into their construction. If we add to these circumstances, that the Greeks had not the use of the saw, an instrument so necessary to the carpenter, a modern must form but a mean notion of the strength or elegance of this fleet.

Having thus considered the state of Greece as a whole, let us examine the circumstances of the particular countries into which it was divided. This is of great importance to our present undertaking, because it is in this country only that we can trace the origin and progress of government, arts, and manners, which compose so great a part of our present work. There appears originally to have been a remarkable resemblance, as to their political situation, between the different kingdoms of Greece. They were governed each by a king, or rather by a chieftain, who was their leader in time of war, their judge in time of peace, and who presided in the administration of their religious ceremonies. This prince, however, was far from being absolute. In each society there were a number of other leaders, whose influence over their particular clans, or tribes, was not less considerable than that of the king over his immediate followers. These captains were often at war with each other, and sometimes with their sovereign; and each particular state was, in miniature, what the whole country had been before the time of Amphictyön. They required the hand of another delicate painter to blend the opposite colours, and to enable them to produce one powerful effect. The history of Athens affords us an example of the manner in which these states, which, for want of union, were weak and insignificant, became, by being cemented together, important and powerful. Theseus, king of Attica, about the year B. C. 1234, had, by his exploits, acquired great reputation for valour and ability. He saw the inconveniences to which his country, from being divided into twelve districts, was exposed; and he conceived, that, by means of the influence which his personal character, united to the royal authority with which he was invested, had universally procured him, he might be able to remove them. For this purpose he endeavoured to maintain and even to increase his

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

This is a rude sketch of the origin of the first monarchy of which we have a distinct account, and may, without much variation, be applied to the other states of Greece. This country, however, was not destined to continue long under the government of kings. A new influence arose, which in a short time proved too powerful both for the king and the nobles. Theseus had divided the Athenians into three distinct classes, — the nobles, the artificers, and the husbandmen. In order to abridge the exorbitant power of the nobles, he had bestowed many privileges on the two other ranks of citizens. This plan of politics was followed by his successors; and the lower ranks of the Athenians, partly from the countenance of their sovereign, and partly from the progress of arts and manufactures, which gave them an opportunity of acquiring property, became considerable and independent. These circumstances were attended with a remarkable effect. Upon the death of Codrus, a prince of great merit, in the year before Christ 1070, the Athenians, become weary of the regal authority, under pretence of finding no one worthy of filling the throne of that monarch, who had devoted himself to death for the safety of his people, abolished the regal power, and proclaimed that none but Jupiter should be king of Athens. This revolution in favour of liberty was so much the more remarkable, as it happened about the same time that the Jews became unwilling to remain under the government of the true God; and desired a mortal sovereign, that they might be like other nations.

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

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strate, who, under the name of Archon, was invested with almost the same powers which their kings had enjoyed. The Athenians in time became sensible that the archontic office was too lively an image of royalty for a free state. After it had continued, therefore, three hundred and thirty-one years in the family of Codrus, they endeavoured to lessen its dignity, not by abridging its power, but by shortening its duration. The first period assigned for the continuance of the archonship in the same person, was three years. But the desire of the Athenians for a more perfect system of freedom than had hitherto been established, increased in proportion to the liberty they enjoyed. They again demanded a reformation of the power of their archons; and it was at length determined that nine annual magistrates should be appointed for this office. These magistrates were not only chosen by the people, but accountable to them for their conduct at the expiration of their office. These alterations were too violent not to be attended with some dangerous consequences. The Athenians, intoxicated with their freedom, broke out into the most unruly licentiousness. No written laws had been as yet enacted in Athens; and it was hardly possible that the ancient customs of the realm, which were naturally supposed to be in part abolished by the successive changes in the government, should sufficiently restrain the tumultuary spirits of the Athenians in the first flutter of their independence. The wiser part of the state, therefore, who began to prefer any system of government to their present anarchy and confusion, were induced to cast their eyes on Draco, a man of an austere but virtuous disposition, as the fittest person for composing a system of law, to bridle the furious and unruly multitude. Draco undertook the office about the year 628, but executed it with so much rigour, that, in the words of an ancient historian, "His laws were written with blood, and not with ink." Death was the indiscriminate punishment of every offence; and the code of Draco proved to be a remedy worse than the disease. Affairs again fell into confusion, which continued till those laws were reformed in the time of Solon, about the year before Christ 594. The gentle manners, disinterested virtue, and wisdom more than human, by which this sage was distinguished, pointed him out as the only character adapted to the most important of all offices, the giving laws to a free people. Solon, though this employment was assigned him by the unanimous voice of his country, long deliberated whether he should undertake it. At length, however, the motives of public utility overcame all considerations of private ease, safety, and reputation, and determined him to enter an ocean pregnant with a thousand dangers. The first step of his legislation was to abolish all the laws of Draco, excepting those relative to murder. The punishment of this crime could not be too great; but to consider other offences as equally criminal, was confounding all notions of right and wrong, and rendering the law ineffectual by means of its severity. Solon next proceeded to remodel the political law: his establishments on this head remained among the Athenians, while they preserved their liberties. He seems to have set out with this principle, that a perfect republic, in which each citizen should have an equal political importance, was a system of government, beautiful indeed in theory, but not reducible to practice. He divided the citizens therefore into four classes, according to the wealth which they possessed; and the poorest class he rendered altogether incapable of any public office. They had a voice, however, in the general council of the nation, in which all matters of principal concern were determined in the last resort. But lest this assembly, which was composed of all the citizens,

should, in the words of Plutarch, like a ship with too many sails, be exposed to the gusts of folly, tumult, and disorder, he provided for its safety by the two anchors of the Senate and Areopagus. The first of these courts consisted of four hundred persons, a hundred from each tribe of the Athenians, who prepared all important bills that came before the assembly of the people: the second, though but a court of justice, gained a prodigious ascendancy in the republic, by the wisdom and gravity of its members, who were not chosen, but after the strictest scrutiny and the most serious deliberation.

Such was the system of government established by Solon, which, the nearer we examine it, will excite the more our admiration. Upon the same plan most of the other ancient republics were established. To insist on all of them, therefore, would neither be entertaining nor instructive. But the government of Sparta, or Lacedæmon, had something in it so peculiar, that the great outlines of it at least ought not to be here omitted. The country, of which Sparta afterwards became the capital, was, like the other states of Greece, originally divided into several petty principalities, of which each was under the jurisdiction of its own immediate chieftain. Lelex is said to have been the first king, about the year before

B. C. Christ 1516. At length, the two brothers, Eurysthene and Procles, obtaining possession of this country, became conjunct in the 1102. royalty; and, what is extremely singular, their posterity, in a direct line, continued to rule conjunctly for nine hundred years, ending with Cleomenes, anno 220 before the Christian æra. The Spartan

B. C. government, however, did not take that singular form which 884. renders it so remarkable, until the time of Lycurgus, the celebrated legislator. The plan of policy devised by Lycurgus, agreed with that already described, in comprehending a senate and assembly of the people, and, in general, all those establishments which are deemed most requisite for the security of political independence. It differed from that of Athens, and indeed from all other governments, in having two kings, whose office was hereditary, though their power was sufficiently circumscribed by proper checks and restraints. But the great characteristic of the Spartan constitution arose from this, that, in all laws, Lycurgus had at least as much respect to war as to political liberty. With this view, all sorts of luxury, all arts of elegance or entertainment, every thing, in short, which had the smallest tendency to soften the minds of the Spartans, was absolutely proscribed. They were forbidden the use of money; they lived at public tables on the coarsest fare; the younger were taught to pay the utmost reverence to the more advanced in years; and all ranks capable of bearing arms were daily accustomed to the most painful exercises. To the Spartans alone, war was a relaxation rather than a hardship; and they behaved in it with a spirit of which hardly any but a Spartan could even form a conception.

In order to see the effect of these principles, and to connect under one point of view the history of the different quarters of the globe, we must now cast our eyes on Asia, and observe the events which happened in those great empires of which we have so long lost sight. We have

B. C. already mentioned in what obscurity the history of Egypt is involved, until the reign of Bocchoris. From this period to the 781. solution of their government by Cambyfes of Persia, in the year before Christ 524, the Egyptians are more celebrated for the wisdom of their laws and political institutions, than for the power of their arms. Several of these seem to have been dictated by the true spirit of civil wisdom, and were admirably calculated for preserving order and good government in an extensive kingdom. The great empire of Assyria

likewise, which had so long disappeared, becomes again an object of attention, and affords the first instance we meet with in history, of a kingdom which fell asunder by its own weight, and the effeminate weakness of its sovereigns. Sardanapalus, the last emperor of Assyria, neglecting the administration of affairs, and shutting himself up in his palace with his women and eunuchs, fell into contempt with his subjects. The governors of his provinces, to whom, like a weak and indolent prince, he had entirely committed the command of his armies, did not fail to seize this opportunity of raising their own fortune on the ruins of their master's power. Arbaces, governor of Media, and Belesis, governor of Babylon, conspired against their sovereign, and having set fire to his capital (in which Sardanapalus perished, before Christ 820), divided between them his extensive dominions. These two kingdoms, sometimes united under one prince, and sometimes governed each by a particular sovereign, maintained the chief sway in Asia for many years. Phul revived the kingdom of Assyria, anno, before Christ, 777; and Shalmaneser, one of his successors, put an end to the kingdom of Israel, and carried the ten tribes captive into Assyria and Media, before Christ 721. Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, also, in the year before Christ 587, overturned the kingdom of Judah, which had continued in the family of David from the year 1055, and mastered all the countries around him. But in the year 538, Cyrus the Great took Babylon, and reduced this quarter of the world under the Persian yoke. B. C. The manners of this people, brave, hardy, and independent, as 538—well as the government of Cyrus, in all its various departments, are elegantly described by Xenophon, a Grecian philosopher and historian. It is not necessary, however, that we should enter into the same detail upon this subject, as with regard to the affairs of the Greeks. We have, in modern times, sufficient examples of monarchical governments; but how few are our republics! The æra of Cyrus is in one respect extremely remarkable, besides that in it the Jews were delivered from their captivity, because, with it the history of the great nations of antiquity, which has hitherto engaged our attention, may be said to finish. Let us consider then the genius of the Assyrians, Babylonians, and Egyptians, in arts and sciences,—and, if possible, discover what progress they had made in those acquirements which are most subservient to the interests of society.

The taste for the great and magnificent seems to have been the prevailing character of those nations; and they principally displayed it in their works of architecture. There are no vestiges, however, now remaining, which confirm the testimony of ancient writers with regard to the great works that adorned Babylon and Nineveh: neither is it clearly determined in what year they were begun or finished. There are three pyramids, stupendous fabrics, still remaining in Egypt, at some leagues distance from Cairo, and about nine miles from the Nile, which are supposed to have been the burying places of the ancient Egyptian kings. The largest is five hundred feet in height, and each side of the base six hundred and ninety three feet in length. The apex is thirteen feet square. The second covers as much ground as the first, but is forty feet lower. It was a superstition among the Egyptians, derived from the earliest times, that even after death the soul continued in the body as long as it remained uncorrupted. Hence proceeded the custom of embalming, or of throwing into the dead body such substances as experience had discovered to be the greatest preservatives against putrefaction. The pyramids were erected with the same view. In them the bodies of the Egyptian kings, it has been supposed, were deposited. From what we read of the walls of Babylon, the temple of Belus, and other works

of the East, and from what travellers have recorded of the pyramids, it appears that they were really superb and magnificent structures, but totally void of elegance. The orders of architecture were not yet known, nor even the construction of vaults. The arts in which those nations, next to architecture, principally excelled, were sculpture and embroidery. As to the sciences, they had all along continued to bestow their principal attention on astronomy. It does not appear, however, that they had made great progress in explaining the causes of the phenomena of the universe, or indeed in any species of rational and sound philosophy. To demonstrate this to an intelligent reader, it is sufficient to observe, that, according to the testimony of sacred and profane writers, the absurd reveries of magic and astrology, which always decayed in proportion to the advancement of true science, were in high esteem among them during the latest period of their government. The countries which they occupied were extremely fruitful, and, without much labour, afforded all the necessaries and even luxuries of life. They had long been accustomed to a civilized and polished life in great cities. These circumstances had tainted their manners with effeminacy and corruption, and rendered them an easy prey to the Persians, a nation just emerging from barbarism, and of consequence brave and warlike. This was still more easy in the infancy of the military art, when strength and courage alone gave advantage to one nation over another,—when, properly speaking, there were no fortified places, which in modern times have been discovered to be so useful in stopping the progress of a victorious enemy,—and when the event of a battle commonly decided the fate of an empire. But we must now turn our attention to other objects.

The history of Persia, after the reign of Cyrus, who died in the year before Christ 529, offers little, considered in itself, that merits our regard; but when combined with that of Greece, it becomes particularly interesting. The monarchs who succeeded Cyrus, gave an opportunity to the Greeks to exercise those virtues which the freedom of their government had created and confirmed. Sparta remained under the influence of Lycurgus's institutions; Athens had just recovered from the tyranny of the Pisistratidæ, a family who had trampled on the laws of

D. C. Solon, and usurped the supreme power. Such was their situation, when the lust of universal empire, which seldom fails to torment the breast of tyrants, led Darius (at the instigation of Hippias, who had been expelled from Athens, and on account of the Athenians' burning the city of Sardis) to send forth his numerous armies against Greece. But the Persians were no longer those invincible soldiers, who, under Cyrus, had conquered Asia. Their minds were enervated by luxury and servitude. Athens, on the contrary, teemed with great

B. C. men, animated by the late recovery of their freedom. Miltiades, in the plains of Marathon, with ten thousand Athenians, overcame the Persian army of a hundred thousand foot, and ten thousand cavalry. His countrymen, Themistocles and Aristides, the first celebrated for his abilities, the second for his virtue, gained the next honours to the general. It does not fall within our plan to mention the events of this war, which, as the noblest monument of virtue over force, of courage over numbers, of liberty over servitude, deserve to be read at length in ancient writers.

Xerxes, the son of Darius, came in person into Greece, with an immense army, which, according to Herodotus, amounted to two millions and one hundred thousand men. This account has been justly considered by some ingenious modern writers, as incredible. The truth cannot now be ascertained; but that the army of Xerxes was ex-

trremely numerous, is the more probable, from the great extent of his empire, and from the absurd practice of the Eastern nations, of encumbering their camp with a superfluous multitude. Whatever the numbers of his army were, he was every where defeated, by sea and land, and escaped to Asia in a fishing-boat. Such was the spirit of the Greeks, and so well did they know that "wanting virtue, life is pain" and woe; "wanting liberty, even virtue mourns, and looks around for happiness in vain." But though the Persian war concluded gloriously for the Greeks, it is, in a great measure, to this war, that the subsequent misfortunes of that nation are to be attributed. It was not the battles in which they suffered the loss of so many brave men, but those in which they acquired the spoils of Persia, — it was not their enduring so many hardships in the course of the war, but their connections with the Persians after the conclusion of it, — which subverted the Grecian establishments, and ruined the most virtuous confederacy that ever existed upon earth. The Greeks became haughty after their victories. Delivered from the common enemy, they began to quarrel with one another; and their quarrels were fomented by Persian gold, of which they had acquired enough to make them desirous of more. Hence proceeded the famous Peloponnesian war, in which the Athenians and Lacedæmonians acted as principals, and drew after them the other states of Greece. They continued to weaken themselves by these intestine divisions, till Philip, king of Macedon (a country till this time little known, but which, by the active and crafty genius of that prince, became important and powerful), rendered himself the absolute master of Greece, by the battle of Chæronea. But this conquest is one of the first we meet with in history, which did not depend on the event of a battle. Philip laid his scheme so deeply, and by bribery, promises, and intrigues, gained over such a number of considerable persons in the several states of Greece to his interest, that another day would have put in his possession what Chæronea had denied him. The Greeks had lost that virtue which was the basis of their confederacy. Their popular governments served only to give a sanction to their licentiousness and corruption. The principal orators in most of their states were bribed in the service of Philip; and all the eloquence of a Demosthenes, assisted by truth and virtue, was unequal to the mean but more seductive arts of his opponents, who, by flattering the people, used the surest method of winning their affections.

Philip had proposed to extend the boundaries of his empire beyond the narrow limits of Greece. But he did not long survive the battle of Chæronea. Upon his decease, his son Alexander was chosen general against the Persians, by all the Grecian states, except the Athenians and Thebans. These made a feeble effort for expiring liberty; but they were obliged to yield to superior force. Secure on the side of Greece, Alexander set out on his Persian expedition, at the head of thirty thousand foot, and five thousand horse. The success of this army in conquering the whole force of Darius in three pitched battles, in over-running and subduing, not only the countries then known to the Greeks, but many parts of India, whose very names had never before reached an European ear, has been described by many authors, both ancient and modern, and constitutes a singular part of the history of the world. Soon after this rapid career of victory and success, Alexander died at Babylon. His captains, after sacrificing all his family to their ambition, divided among them his dominions. This gives rise to a number of wars and events too compli-

B. C.

431.

B. C.

338.

B. C.

334.

B. C.

323.

eated for our present purpose, and even too uninteresting. After considering therefore the state of arts and sciences in Greece, we shall pass over to the Roman affairs, where the historical deduction is more simple, and also more important.

The bare names of illustrious men who flourished in Greece from the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander, would fill a large volume. During this period, all the arts were carried to the highest pitch of perfection; and the improvements we have hitherto mentioned, were but the dawning of that glorious day. Though the eastern nations had raised magnificent and stupendous structures, the Greeks were the first people in the world, who, in their works of architecture, added beauty to magnificence, and elegance to grandeur. The temples of Jupiter Olympius and of the Ephesian Diana were the first monuments of good taste. They were erected by the Grecian colonies who settled in Asia Minor before the reign of Cyrus. Phidias, the Athenian, who died in the year B. C. 432, is the first sculptor whose works have been immortal. Zeuxis, Parrhasius, and Timanthes, during the same age, first discovered the power of the pencil, and all the magic of painting. Composition, in all its various branches, reached a degree of perfection in the Greek language, of which a modern reader can hardly form an idea. After Hesiod and Homer, who flourished 1000 years before the Christian æra, the tragic poets, Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, were the first considerable improvers of poetry. Herodotus gave simplicity and elegance to profane writing; Isocrates gave it cadence and harmony; but it was left to Thucydides and Demosthenes to discover the full force of the Greek tongue. It was not, however, in the finer arts alone that the Greeks excelled. Every species of philosophy was cultivated among them with the utmost success. Not to mention the divine Socrates, the virtues of whose life, and the excellence of whose philosophy, justly entitled him to a very high degree of veneration, — his three disciples, Plato, Aristotle, and Xenophon, may, for strength of reasoning, justness of sentiment, and propriety of expression, be considered as the equals of the best writers of any age or country. Experience, indeed, in a long course of years, has taught us many secrets in nature, with which those philosophers were unacquainted, and which no strength of genius could divine. But whatever some vain empirics in learning may pretend, the most learned and ingenious men, both in France and England, have acknowledged the superiority of the Greek philosophers, and have reckoned themselves happy in catching their turn of thinking, and manner of expression. The Greeks were not less distinguished for their active than for their speculative talents. It would be endless to recount the names of their famous statesmen and warriors; and it is impossible to mention a few without doing injustice to a greater number. War was first reduced into a science by the Greeks. Their soldiers fought from an affection to their country, and an ardour for glory, and not from a dread of their superiors. We have seen the effects of this military virtue in their wars against the Persians; the cause of it was the wise laws which Amphictyon, Solon, and Lycurgus, had established in Greece. But we must now leave this nation, whose history, both civil and philosophical, is as important as their territory was inconsiderable, and turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are still more interesting, both on their own account, and from the relation in which they stand to those of modern Europe.

The character of Romulus, the founder of the Roman state, when we view him as the leader of a few lawless and wandering banditti, is an object of extreme insignificance. But when we consider him as the founder of an empire as extensive as the world, and whose progress

and decline have occasioned the two greatest revolutions that ever happened in Europe, we cannot but be interested in his conduct. His disposition was extremely martial; and the political state of Italy, divided into a number of small but independent districts, afforded a noble field for the display of military talents. Romulus was continually embroiled with one or other of his neighbours; and war was the only employment by which he and his companions expected not only to aggrandise themselves, but even to subsist. In the conduct of his wars with the neighbouring people, we may observe the same maxims by which the Romans afterwards became masters of the world. Instead of destroying the nations he had subjected; he united them to the Roman state; whereby Rome acquired a new accession of strength from every war she undertook, and became powerful and populous from that very circumstance which ruins and depopulates other kingdoms. If the enemies, with whom he contended, had, by means of the art or arms they employed, any considerable advantage, Romulus immediately adopted that practice, or the use of that weapon, and improved the military system of the Romans by the united experience of all their enemies. Of both these maxims, by means of which the Roman state arrived at such a pitch of greatness, we have an example in the war with the Sabines. Romulus having conquered that nation, not only united them to the Romans, but finding their buckler preferable to the Roman, instantly threw aside the latter, and made use of the Sabine buckler in fighting against other states. Romulus, though principally attached to war, did not altogether neglect the civil policy of his infant kingdom. He instituted what was called the Senate, a court originally composed of a hundred persons distinguished for their wisdom and experience. He enacted laws for the administration of justice, and for bridling the fierce and unruly passions of his followers; and, after a long reign spent in promoting the civil and military interests of his country, was, according to the most probable conjecture, privately assassinated by some of the members of that senate which he himself had instituted. B. C. 717.

The successors of Romulus were all very extraordinary personages. Numa, who came next after him, established the religious ceremonies of the Romans, and inspired them with that veneration for an oath, which was ever after the soul of their military discipline. Tullus Hostilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priscus, and Servius Tullius, laboured, each during his reign, for the greatness of Rome. But Tarquinius Superbus, the seventh and last king, having obtained the crown by the execrable murder of his father-in-law Servius, continued to support it by the most cruel and infamous tyranny. This, together with the insolence of his son Sextus Tarquinius, who, by dishonouring Lucretia, a Roman lady, affronted the whole nation, occasioned the expulsion of the Tarquin family, and with it the dissolution of the regal government. As the Romans, however, were continually engaged in war, they found it necessary to have some officer invested with supreme authority, who might conduct them to the field, and regulate their military enterprises. In the room of the kings, therefore, they appointed two annual magistrates, called consuls, who, without creating the same jealousy, succeeded to all the powers of their former sovereigns. This resolution was very favourable to the Roman greatness. The consuls, who enjoyed but a temporary power, were desirous of signalling their reign by some great action: each vied with those who had gone before him, and the Romans were daily led out against some new enemy. When we add to this, that the people, naturally warlike, were inspired to deeds of valour by every consideration which could

excite them, — that the citizens of Rome were all soldiers, and fought for their lands, their children, and their liberties, — we shall not be surpris'd that they should, in the course of some centuries, extend their power over all Italy:

The Romans, now secure at home, and finding no enemy to contend with, turned their eyes abroad, and met with a powerful rival in the Carthaginians. This state had been founded or enlarged on the coast of the Mediterranean in Africa, some time before Rome, by a colony of Phœnicians, anno B. C. 869; and, according to the practice of their mother-country, they had cultivated commerce and naval greatness.

Carthage, in this design, had proved wonderfully successful. She now commanded both sides of the Mediterranean: Besides that of Africa, which she almost entirely possessed, she had extended herself on the Spanish side through the Straits. Thus mistress of the sea, and of commerce, she had seized on the islands of Corsica and Sardinia. Sicily had

B. C.
264. difficulty to defend itself; and the Romans were too nearly threatened, not to take up arms. Hence a succession of hostilities between these rival states; known in history by the name of Punic wars, in which the Carthaginians, with all their wealth and power, were an unequal match for the Romans. Carthage was a powerful republic when Rome was an inconsiderable state; but she was now become corrupt and effeminate; while Rome was in the vigour of her political constitution. Carthage employed mercenaries to carry on her wars; Rome, as we have already mentioned, was composed of soldiers. The first war with Carthage lasted twenty-three years, and taught the Romans the art of fighting on the sea, with which they had hitherto been unacquainted.

B. C.
260. A Carthaginian vessel was wrecked on their coast; they used it for a model; in three months fitted out a fleet; and the consul Duilius, who fought their first naval battle, was victorious. It is not to our purpose to mention all the transactions of these wars. The behaviour of Regulus, the Roman general, may give us an idea of the spirit which

B. C.
256. then animated this people. Being taken prisoner in Africa, he is sent back on his parole to negotiate a change of prisoners. He maintains in the senate the propriety of that law which cut off from those who suffered themselves to be taken, all hopes of being saved, and returns to certain death.

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

B. C.
218. threatens the fall of Rome. Sicily sides with the conqueror. Hieronymus, king of Syracuse, declares against the Romans, and al-

most all Italy abandons them. In this extremity, Rome owed its prefer-
 vation to three great men. Fabius Maximus, despising popular clamour,
 and the military ardour of his countrymen, declines coming to an en-
 gagement. The strength of Rome has time to recover. Marcellus raises
 the siege of Nola, takes Syracuse, and revives the drooping spirits of his
 troops. The Romans admired the character of these great men, but saw
 something more divine in the young Scipio. The success of this young
 hero confirmed the popular opinion, that he was of divine extraction,
 and held converse with the gods. At the age of four and twenty, B. C.
 he flies into Spain, where both his father and uncle had lost their
 lives, attacks New Carthage, and carries it at the first assault. Up- 210.
 on his arrival in Africa, kings submit to him, Carthage trembles in her
 turn, and sees her armies defeated. Hannibal, sixteen years victorious,
 is in vain called home to defend his country. Carthage is ren- B. C.
 dered tributary, gives hostages, and engages never to enter on a 201.
 war, but with the consent of the Roman people.

After the conquest of Carthage, Rome had inconsiderable wars, but
 great victories; before, its wars were great, and its victories inconsider-
 able. At this time the world was divided, as it were, into two parts; in
 the one fought the Romans and Carthaginians; the other was agitated
 by those quarrels which had lasted since the death of Alexander the
 Great. Their scene of action was Greece, Egypt, and the East. The
 states of Greece had once more disengaged themselves from a foreign yoke.
 They were divided into three confederacies, the Ætolians, Achæans, and
 Bœotians; each of these was an association of free cities, which had assem-
 blies and magistrates in common. The Ætolians were the most consider-
 able of them all. The kings of Macedon maintained that superiority,
 which, in ancient times when the balance of power was little attended to,
 a great prince naturally possessed over his less powerful neighbours.
 Philip, the monarch who then reigned in Macedon, had rendered him-
 self odious to the Greeks, by some unpopular and tyrannical steps; the
 Ætolians were most irritated; and hearing the fame of the Roman arms,
 called them into Greece, and overcame Philip by their assistance. The
 victory, however, chiefly redounded to the advantage of the Romans.
 The Macedonian garrisons were obliged to evacuate Greece; the cities
 were all declared free; but Philip became a tributary to the Romans, and
 the states of Greece became their dependents. The Ætolians, discovering
 their first error, endeavoured to remedy it by another still more dangerous
 to themselves, and more advantageous to the Romans. As they had called
 the Romans into Greece to defend them against king Philip, they now
 called in Antiochus, king of Syria, to defend them against the Romans.
 The famous Hannibal too had recourse to the same prince, who was at
 this time the most powerful monarch in the East, and the successor to the
 dominions of Alexander in Asia. But Antiochus did not follow his advice
 so much as that of the Ætolians; for, instead of renewing the war in Italy,
 where Hannibal, from experience, judged the Romans to be most vulne-
 rable, he landed in Greece with a small body of troops, and being over-
 come without difficulty, fled over into Asia. In this war the Romans
 made use of Philip for conquering Antiochus, as they had before done of
 the Ætolians for conquering Philip. They now pursue Antiochus, B. C.
 the last object of their resentment, into Asia, and having vanquished 190.
 him by sea and land, compel him to submit to a disgraceful treaty.

In these conquests the Romans still allowed the ancient inhabitants to
 possess their territory; they did not even change the form of government;
 the conquered nations became the allies of the Roman people; which

denomination, however, under a specious name, concealed a condition very servile, and inferred that they should submit to whatever was required of them. When we reflect on those easy conquests, we have reason to be astonished at the resistance which the Romans met with from Mithridates, king of Pontus, for the space of twenty-six years. But this monarch had great resources. His kingdom, bordering on the inaccessible mountains of Caucasus, abounded in a race of men whose minds were not enervated by pleasure; and whose bodies were firm and vigorous; and he gave the Romans more trouble than even Hannibal.

The different states of Greece and Asia, who now began to feel the weight of their yoke, but had not the spirit to shake it off, were transported at finding a prince who dared to show himself an enemy to the Romans, and cheerfully submitted to his protection. Mithridates, however, was at last compelled to yield to the superior fortune of the Romans. Vanquished successively by Sylla and Lucullus, he was at length subdued by Pompey, and stripped of his dominions and his life, in the year before Christ 63. In Africa, the Roman arms met with equal success. Marius,

B. C. in conquering Jugurtha, made all secure in that quarter. Even the barbarous nations beyond the Alps began to feel the weight of the Roman arms. Gallia Narbonensis had been reduced into a province. The Cimbri, Teutones, and the other northern nations of Europe, broke into this part of the empire. The same Marius, whose

B. C. name was so terrible in Africa, then made the north of Europe to tremble. The barbarians retired to their wilds and deserts, less formidable than the Roman legions. But while Rome conquered the world, there subsisted an incessant war within her walls. This

war had continued from the first period of the government. Rome, after the expulsion of her kings, enjoyed but a partial liberty. The descendants of the senators, who were distinguished by the name of Patricians, were invested with so many odious privileges, that the people felt their dependence, and became determined to shake it off. A thousand disputes on the subject arose betwixt them and the patricians, which always terminated in favour of liberty.

These disputes, while the Romans preserved their virtue, were not attended with any sanguinary consequences. The patricians, who loved their country, cheerfully parted with some of their privileges to satisfy the people; and the people, on the other hand, though they obtained laws by which they might be admitted to enjoy the first offices of the state, and though they had the power of nomination, always named patricians. But when the Romans, by the conquest of foreign nations, became acquainted with all their luxuries and refinements, — when they became tainted with the effeminacy and corruption of the eastern courts, and sported with every thing just and honourable in order to obtain them, — the state, torn by the factions between its members, and without virtue on either side to keep it together, became a prey to its own children. Hence the bloody seditions of the Gracchi, which paved the way for an inextinguishable hatred between the nobles and commons, and made it easy for any turbulent demagogue to put them in action against each other. The love of their country was now no more than a specious name: the better sort were too wealthy and effeminate to submit to the rigours of military discipline; and the soldiers, composed of the dregs of the republic, were no longer citizens. They had little respect for any but their commander; under his banner they fought, and conquered, and plundered; and for him they were ready to die. He might command them to embroil their hands in the blood of their country. They, who knew no

country but the camp, and no authority but that of their general, were ever ready to obey him. The multiplicity of the Roman conquests, however, which required their keeping on foot several armies at the same time, retarded the subversion of the republic. These armies were so many checks upon each other. Had it not been for the soldiers of Sylla, Rome would have surrendered its liberty to the army of Marius.

Julius Cæsar at length appears. By subduing the Gauls, he gained his country the most useful conquest it ever made. Pompey, his only rival, is overcome in the plains of Pharfalia. Cæsar appears victorious almost at the same time all over the world: in Egypt, in Asia, in Mauritania, in Spain, in Gaul, and in Britain; conqueror on all sides, he is acknowledged master at Rome, and in the whole empire. Brutus and Cassius attempt to give Rome her liberty by stabbing him in the senate-house. But though they thereby deliver the Romans from the tyranny of Julius, the republic does not obtain its freedom. It falls under the dominion of Mark Antony; young Cæsar Octavianus, nephew to Julius Cæsar, wrests it from him by the sea-fight at Actium; and there is no Brutus or Cassius to put an end to his life. Those friends of liberty had killed themselves in despair; and Octavius, under the name of Augustus, and title of emperor, remains the undisturbed master of the empire. During these civil commotions, the Romans still preserved the glory of their arms among distant nations; and, while it was unknown who should be master of Rome, the Romans were, without dispute, the masters of the world. Their military discipline and valour abolished all the remains of the Carthaginian, the Persian, the Greek, the Assyrian, and Macedonian glory; they were now only a name. No sooner, therefore, was Octavius established on the throne than ambassadors from all quarters of the known world crowd to make their submissions. Æthiopia sues for peace; the Parthians, who had been a most formidable enemy, court his friendship; India seeks his alliance; Pannonia acknowledges him; Germany dreads him; and the Weser receives his laws. Victorious by sea and land, he shuts the temple of Janus. The whole earth lives in peace under his power; and Jesus Christ comes into the world four years before the common æra.

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

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

We now return to our history, and are arrived at an æra which presents us with a set of monsters, under the name of emperors, whose acts, a few excepted, disgrace human nature. They did not indeed abolish the forms of the Roman republic, though they extinguished its liberties; and while they were practising the most unwarrantable cruelties upon their subjects, they themselves were the slaves of their soldiers. They made the world tremble, while they in their turn trembled at the army. Rome, from the time of Augustus, became the most despotic empire that ever subsisted in Europe; and the court of its emperors exhibited the most odious scenes of that caprice, cruelty, and corruption, which universally prevail under a despotic government. When it is said that the Roman republic conquered the world, it is only meant of the civilised part of it, chiefly Greece, Carthage, and Asia. A more difficult task still remained for the emperors, to subdue the barbarous nations of Europe,—the Germans, the Gauls, the Britons, and even the remote people of Scotland; for though these countries had been discovered, they were not effectually subdued by the Roman generals. These nations, though rude and ignorant, were brave and independent. It was rather from the superiority of their discipline than of their courage that the Romans gained any advantage over them. The Roman wars with the Germans are described by Tacitus; and from his accounts, though a Roman, it is easy to discover with what bravery they fought, and with what reluctance they submitted to a foreign yoke. From the obstinate resistance of the Germans, we may judge of the difficulties the Romans met with in subduing the other nations of Europe. The contests were bloody; the countries of Europe were successively laid waste; numbers of the inhabitants perished in the field; many were carried into slavery, and but a feeble remnant submitted to the Roman power. This situation of affairs was extremely unfavourable to the happiness of mankind. The barbarous nations, indeed, from their intercourse with the Romans, acquired some taste for the arts, sciences, language, and manners of their new masters. These, however, were but miserable consolations for the loss of liberty, for being deprived of the use of arms, for being overawed by mercenary soldiers kept in pay to restrain them, and for being delivered over to rapacious governors, who plundered them without mercy.

The Roman empire, now stretched out to such an extent, had lost its spring and force. It contained within itself the seeds of dissolution; and the violent irruptions of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, hastened its destruction. These fierce tribes, who came to take vengeance on the empire, either inhabited the various parts of Germany which had never been subdued by the Romans, or were scattered over the vast countries of the north of Europe, and the north-west of Asia, which are

now inhabited by the Danes, the Swedes, the Poles, the subjects of the Russian empire, and the Tartars. They were drawn from their native country by that restlessness which actuates the minds of barbarians, and makes them rove from home in quest of plunder or new settlements. The first invaders met with a powerful resistance from the superior discipline of the Roman legions; but this, instead of daunting men of a strong and impetuous temper, only roused them to vengeance. They returned to their companions, acquainted them with the unknown conveniences and luxuries that abounded in countries better cultivated, or blessed with a milder climate, than their own,—they acquainted them with the battles they had fought, or the friends they had lost, and warmed them with resentment against their opponents. Great bodies of armed men (says an elegant historian, in describing this scene of desolation), with their wives and children, and slaves and flocks, issued forth, like regular colonies, in quest of new settlements. New adventurers followed them. The lands which they deserted were occupied by more remote tribes of barbarians. These in their turn pushed forward into more fertile countries, and, like a torrent continually increasing, rolled on, and swept every thing before them. Wherever the barbarians marched, their route was marked with blood. They ravaged or destroyed all around them. They made no distinction between what was sacred and what was profane. They respected no age, or sex, or rank. If a man was called to fix upon the period in the history of the world, during which the condition of the human race was the most calamitous and afflicted, he would, without hesitation, name that which elapsed from the death of Theodosius the Great, A. D. 395, to the establishment of the Lombards in Italy, A. D. 571. The contemporary authors; who beheld that scene of desolation, labour and are at a loss for expressions to describe the horrors of it. *The scourge of God, the destroyer of nations*, are the dreadful epithets by which they distinguish the most noted of the barbarous leaders.

Constantine, who was emperor at the beginning of the fourth century; and who had embraced christianity, transferred the seat of empire from Rome to Constantinople. The western and eastern provinces were in consequence separated from each other, and governed by different sovereigns. The withdrawing the Roman legions from the Rhine and the Danube to the east, threw down the western barriers of the empire, and laid it open to the invaders.

Rome (now known by the name of the *Western Empire*, in contradistinction to Constantinople, which, from its situation, was called the *Eastern Empire*), weakened by this division, became a prey to the barbarous nations. Its ancient glory, vainly deemed immortal, was effaced; and Odoacer, a barbarian chieftain, was seated on the throne of the Cæsars. These irruptions into the empire were gradual and successive. The immense fabric of the Roman empire was the work of many ages; and several centuries were employed in demolishing it. The ancient military discipline of the Romans was so efficacious, that the remains of it, which descended to their successors, must have rendered them superior to their enemies, had it not been for the vices of their emperors, and the universal corruption of manners among the people. Satiated with the luxuries of the known world, the emperors were at a loss to find new provocatives. The most distant regions were explored, the ingenuity of mankind was exercised, and the tribute of provinces expended upon one favourite dish. The tyranny and the universal deprivation of manners that prevailed under

the emperors, or, as they are called, Cæsars, could only be equalled by the barbarity of those nations of which the empire at length became the prey.

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

From this period, till the 15th century, Europe exhibited a picture of most melancholy Gothic barbarity. Literature, science, taste, were words scarcely in use during these ages. Persons of the highest rank, and in the most eminent stations, could not read or write. Many of the clergy did not understand the Breviary which they were obliged daily to recite; some of them could scarcely read it. The human mind, neglected, uncultivated, and depressed, sunk into the most profound ignorance. The superior genius of Charlemagne, who, in the beginning of the ninth century, governed France and Germany, with part of Italy, — and Alfred the Great in England, during the latter part of the same century, — endeavoured to dispel this darkness, and give their subjects a short glimpse of light. But the ignorance of the age was too powerful for their efforts and institutions. The darkness returned, and even increased; so that a still greater degree of ignorance and barbarism prevailed throughout Europe.

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

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

The monarchs of Europe perceived the encroachments of their nobles with impatience. In order to create some power that might counterbalance those potent vassals, who, while they enslaved the people, controlled or gave laws to the crown, a plan was adopted of conferring new privi-

* This Gothic system still prevails in Poland: a remnant of it continued in the Highlands of Scotland so late as the year 1743. And even in England, a country renowned for civil and religious liberty, some relics of these Gothic institutions are perceivable at this day.

leges on towns. These privileges abolished all marks of servitude; and the inhabitants of towns were formed into corporations, or bodies politic, to be governed by a council and magistrates of their own nomination.

The acquisition of liberty soon produced a happy change in the condition of mankind. A spirit of industry revived; commerce became an object of attention, and began to flourish.

Various causes contributed to revive this spirit of commerce, and to renew the intercourse between different nations. Constantinople, the capital of the Eastern or Greek empire, had escaped the ravages of the Goths and Vandals, who overthrew that of the West. In this city, some remains of literature and science were preserved: this, too, for many ages, was the great emporium of trade; and the crusades, which were begun by the Christian powers of Europe with a view to drive the Saracens from Jerusalem, having opened a communication between Europe and the East, Constantinople was the general place of rendezvous for the Christian armies, in their way to Palestine, or on their return from thence. Though the object of these expeditions was conquest and not commerce, and though the issue of them proved unfortunate, their commercial effects were both beneficial and permanent.

Soon after the close of the holy war, the mariner's compass was invented, which facilitated the communication between remote nations. The Italian states, particularly those of Venice and Genoa, began to establish a regular commerce with the ports of Egypt, and drew from thence all the rich productions of India. These commodities they disposed of to great advantage among the other nations of Europe, who began to acquire some taste of elegance, unknown to their predecessors, or despised by them. During the 12th and 13th centuries, the commerce of Europe was almost entirely in the hands of the Italians, more commonly known in those ages by the name of Lombards. Companies or societies of Lombard merchants settled in every different kingdom; they became the carriers, the manufacturers, and the bankers of Europe. One of the companies settled in London; and thence the name of Lombard-street was derived.

While the Italians in the south of Europe cultivated trade with such industry and success, the commercial spirit awakened in the north towards the middle of the thirteenth century. As the Danes, Swedes, and other nations around the Baltic, were at that time extremely barbarous, and infested that sea with their piracies, the cities of Lubec and Hamburg, soon after they had begun to open some trade with the Italians, entered into a league of mutual defence. They derived such advantages from this union, that other towns acceded to their confederacy; and, in a short time, eighty of the most considerable cities, scattered through those large countries of Germany and Flanders which stretch from the bottom of the Baltic to Cologne on the Rhine, joined in an alliance, called the *Hanseatic League*, which became so formidable, that its friendship was courted and its enmity dreaded by the greatest monarchs. The members of this powerful association formed the first systematic plan of commerce known in the middle ages, and conducted it by common laws enacted in their general assemblies. They supplied the rest of Europe with naval stores, and pitched on different towns, the most eminent of which was Bruges in Flanders, where they established staples, in which their commerce was regularly carried on. Thither the Lombards brought the productions of India, together with the manufac-
A. D. 1096.
A. D. 1302.

of Italy, and exchanged them for the more bulky but not less useful commodities of the North.

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

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

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

The Christian embassies were managed chiefly by monks, an active and enterprising set of men, who, impelled by zeal and undaunted by difficulties and danger, penetrated to the remote courts of those infidels. The English philosopher, Roger Bacon, was so industrious as to collect from their relations and traditions many particulars of the Tartars, which are to be found in Purchas's Pilgrim, and other books of travels. The first regular traveller of the monkish kind, who committed his discoveries to writing, was John du Plant Carpin, who, with some of his brethren, about the year 1246, carried a letter from pope Innocent to the great khan of Tartary, in favour of the Christian subjects in that prince's extensive dominions. Soon after this, a spirit of travelling into Tartary and India became general: and it would be no difficult matter to prove that many Europeans, about the end of the fourteenth century, served in the armies of Tamerlane, one of the greatest princes of Tartary, whose conquests reached to the remotest corners of India; and that they introduced into Europe the use of gunpowder and artillery; the discovery made by a German chemist being only partial and accidental.

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

The first adventurers contented themselves with short voyages, creeping along the coast of Africa, discovering cape after cape; but by making a gradual progress southward, they, in the year 1497, were so for-

fortunate as to sail beyond the Cape; which opened a passage by sea to the eastern ocean, and all those countries known by the names of India, China, and Japan.

While the Portuguese were intent upon a passage to India by the east, Columbus, a native of Genoa, conceived a project of sailing thither by the west. His proposal being condemned by his countrymen as chimerical and absurd, he laid his scheme successively before the courts of France, England, and Portugal, where he had no better success. Such repeated disappointments would have broken the spirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expense, and he had nothing to defray it. Spain was now his only resource; and there, after eight years' attendance, he at length succeeded, through the interest of queen Isabella. This princess was prevailed upon to patronise him, by the representation of Juan Perez, guardian of the monastery of Rabida. He was a man of considerable learning, and of some credit with queen Isabella; and being warmly attached to Columbus, from his personal acquaintance with him, and knowledge of his merit, he had entered into an accurate examination of that great man's project, in conjunction with a physician settled in his neighbourhood, who was eminent for his skill in mathematical knowledge. This investigation completely satisfied them of the solidity of the principles on which Columbus founded his opinion, and of the probability of success in executing the plan which he proposed; Perez, therefore, so strongly recommended it to queen Isabella, that she warmly entered into the scheme, and even generously offered, to the honour of her sex, to pledge her own jewels in order to raise as much money as might be required in making preparations for the voyage. But Santangel, another friend and patron of Columbus, immediately engaged to advance the sum that was requisite, that the queen might not be reduced to the necessity of having recourse to that expedient.

Columbus now set sail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ships, upon one of the most adventurous attempts ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were interested. In this voyage he had a thousand difficulties to contend with; and his failors, who were often discontented, at length began to insist upon his return, threatening, in case of refusal, to throw him overboard; but the firmness of the commander, and the discovery of land after a passage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. From the appearance of the natives, he found to his surprize that this could not be the Indies he was in quest of, and that he had accidentally discovered a new world,—of which the reader will find a more circumstantial account in that part of the following work which treats of America.

Europe now began to emerge out of that darkness in which she had been sunk since the subversion of the Roman empire. These discoveries, from which such wealth was destined to flow to the commercial nations of Europe, were accompanied and succeeded by others of A. D. unspeakable benefit to mankind. The invention of printing, the revival of learning, arts, and sciences, and, lastly, the happy reformation in religion, all distinguish the 15th and 16th centuries as the first æra of modern history. It was in these ages that the powers of Europe were formed into one great political system, in which each took a station, wherein it has since remained, with less variation than could have been expected after the shocks occasioned by so many internal revolutions, and so many foreign wars, of which we shall give some account in the history of each particular state, in the following work. The great events which happened then have not hitherto exhausted their force.

their force. The political principles and maxims then established, still continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance of power, then introduced or rendered general, still influence, in some degree, the councils of European nations.

Of all the kingdoms of Europe, Great Britain has for a long time enjoyed the greatest degree of prosperity and glory. She ought, therefore, to be the more attentive to preserve so brilliant a pre-eminence. A great empire cannot be continued in a happy situation, but by wisdom and moderation. Without entering into the labyrinth of political disputes, it will be acknowledged that the unhappy contest of Great Britain with the American colonies, and especially the unsuccessful war against the new republic of France, have plunged her into difficulties; her national debt has been profusely augmented, and her taxes enormously increased.

P A R T III.

OF THE ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF RELIGION.

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

Agreeably to this distinction, we find, that, in the first ages of the world, the religion of the eastern nations was pure and luminous. It arose from a divine source, and was not then disfigured by human fancies or caprice. In time, however, these began to have their influence; the ray of tradition was obscured; and among those tribes which separated at the greatest distance, and in the smallest numbers, from the more improved societies of men, it was altogether obliterated.

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

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

One thing, however, may be observed, that the polytheism of the ancients seems neither to have been the fruit of philosophical speculations, nor of disfigured traditions concerning the nature of the Divinity. It seems to have arisen during the rudest ages of society, while the rational powers were feeble, and while mankind were under the tyranny of imagination and passion. It was built, therefore, solely upon sentiment. As each tribe of men had their heroes, so likewise they had their gods. Those heroes who led them forth to combat, who presided in their councils, whose image was engraved on their fancy, whose exploits were imprinted on their memory, even after death enjoyed an existence in the imagination of their followers. The force of blood, of friendship, of affection, among rude nations, is what we cannot easily conceive: but the power of imagination over the senses is what all men have in some degree experienced. Combine these two causes, and it will not appear strange that the image of departed heroes should have been seen by their companions animating the battle, taking vengeance on their enemies, and performing, in a word, the same functions which they performed when alive. An appearance so unnatural would not excite terror among men unacquainted with evil spirits, and who had not learned to fear any thing but their enemies. On the contrary, it confirmed their courage, flattered their vanity; and the testimony of those who had seen it, supported by the extreme credulity and romantic cast of those who had not, gained an universal assent among all the members of their society. A small degree of reflection, however, would be sufficient to convince them, that, as their own heroes existed after death, the same might also be the case with those of their enemies. Two orders of gods, therefore, would be established,—the propitious and the hostile,—the gods who were to be loved, and those who were to be feared. But time, which wears off the impressions of tradition, and the frequent invasions by which the nations of antiquity were ravaged, desolated, or transplanted, made them lose the names and confound the characters of those two orders of divinities, and form various systems of religion, which, though warped by a thousand particular circumstances, gave no small indications of their first texture and original materials. For, in general, the gods of the ancients gave abundant proof of human infirmity. They were subject to all the passions of men; they partook even of their partial affections, and in many instances discovered their preference of one race or nation to all others. They did not eat and drink the same substances with men; but they lived on nectar and ambrosia; they had a particular pleasure in smelling the steam of the sacrifices, and they made love with an ardour unknown in northern climates. The rites by which they were worshipped, naturally resulted from their character. The most enlightened among the Greeks entertained nearly the same notions of gods and religion, as those that are to be met with in the poems of Hesiod and Homer; and Anaxagoras, who flourished before Christ 430 years, was the first, even in Greece, that publicly announced the existence of one Creator and Governor of the universe.

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

The introduction of christianity, by inculcating the unity of God, by announcing the purity of his character, and by explaining the service he requires of men, produced a total alteration in their religious sentiments and belief. But this is not the place for handling this sublime subject. It is sufficient to observe here, that a religion which was founded on the unity of the Deity, which admitted of no association with false gods, must either be altogether destroyed, or become the prevailing belief of mankind. The latter was the case. Christianity made its way among the civilised part of mankind, by the sublimity of its doctrine and precepts; it required not the aid of human power; it sustained itself by the truth and wisdom by which it was characterised. But in time it became corrupted by the introduction of worldly maxims, of maxims very inconsistent with the precepts of its divine author, and by the ambition of the clergy.

The management of whatever related to the church being naturally conferred on those who had established it, first occasioned the elevation and then the domination of the clergy, and the exorbitant claims of the bishop of Rome over all the members of the Christian world. It is impossible to describe, within our narrow limits, all the concomitant causes, some of which were extremely delicate, by which this species of universal monarchy was established. The bishops of Rome, by being removed from the control of the Roman emperors then residing in Constantinople,—by borrowing, with little variation, the religious ceremonies and rites established among the heathen world, and otherwise working on the credulous minds of the barbarians by whom that empire began to be dismembered,—and by availing themselves of every circumstance which fortune threw in their way,—slowly erected the fabric of their antichristian power, at first an object of veneration, and afterwards of terror, to all temporal princes. The causes of its happy dissolution are more palpable, and operated with greater activity. The most efficacious were the invention of printing, the rapid improvement of arts, government, and commerce, which, after many ages of barbarity, made their way into Europe. The scandalous lives of those who called themselves the “*ministers of Jesus Christ*,” their ignorance and tyranny, the desire natural to sovereigns of delivering themselves from a foreign yoke, the opportunity of applying to national objects the immense wealth which had been diverted to the service of the church in every kingdom of Europe, conspired with the ardour of the first reformers, and hastened the progress of the reformation. The unreasonableness of the claims of the church of Rome was demonstrated; many of her doctrines were proved to be equally unscriptural and irrational; and some of her absurd mummeries and superstitions were exposed both by argument and ridicule. The services of the reformers in this respect give them a just claim to our veneration; but, involved as they had themselves been in the darkness of superstition, it was not to be expected that they should be able wholly to free themselves from errors; they still retained an attachment to some absurd doctrines, and preserved too much of the intolerant spirit of the church from which they had separated themselves. With all their defects, they are entitled to our admiration and esteem; and the reformation, begun by Luther in Germany, in the year 1517, and which took place in England, A. D. 1534, was an event highly favourable to the civil as well as to the religious rights of mankind.

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

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EUROPE.

EUROPE, though the least extensive quarter of the globe (containing, according to Zimmermann *, 2,627,574 square miles, whereas the habitable parts of the world, in the other quarters, are estimated at 36,666,806 square miles), is, in many respects, that which most deserves our attention. Here the human mind has made the greatest progress towards improvement; and here the arts, whether of utility or ornament, the sciences both military and civil, have been carried to the greatest perfection. If we except the earliest ages of the world, it is in Europe that we find the greatest variety of character, government, and manners; and from its history we derive the greatest number of facts and memorials, either for our entertainment or instruction.

Geography discovers to us two circumstances with regard to Europe, which perhaps have had a considerable tendency in giving it the superiority over the rest of the world, — first, the happy temperature of its climate, no part of it lying within the torrid zone, — and secondly, the great variety of its surface. The effect of a moderate climate, both on plants and animals, is well known from experience. The immense number of mountains, rivers, seas, &c. which divide the different countries of Europe from each other, is likewise extremely commodious for its inhabitants. These natural boundaries check the progress of conquest or despotism, which has always been so rapid in the extensive plains of Africa and the East: the seas and rivers facilitate the intercourse and commerce between different nations; and even the barren rocks and mountains are more favourable for exciting human industry and invention, than the natural unsolicited luxuriance of more fertile soils. There is no part of Europe so diversified in its surface, so interrupted by natural boundaries or divisions, as Greece: and we have seen that it was there the human mind began to know and to avail itself of its strength, and that many of the arts, subservient to utility or pleasure, were invented, or at least greatly improved. What Greece therefore is with regard to Europe, Europe itself is with regard to the rest of the globe. The analogy may even be carried farther; and it is even worth while to attend to it. As ancient Greece (for we do not speak of Greece as it is at present, under the despotic government of the Turks) was distinguished above all the rest of Europe for the equity of its laws, and the freedom of its political constitutions, — so has Europe in general been remarkable for smaller deviations, at least from the laws of nature and equality, than have been admitted in the other quarters of the world. Though most of the European governments are monarchical, we may discover, on due examination, that there are a thousand little springs, which check the force and soften the rigour of monarchy. In proportion to the number and force of these checks, the monarchies of Europe, such as Russia, France, Spain, and Denmark, differ from one an-

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

other. Besides *monarchies*, in which one man bears the chief sway, there are in Europe *aristocracies* or governments of the nobles, and *democracies* or governments of the people. Venice is an example of the former; Holland, Switzerland, and some states of Italy, afford examples of the latter. There are likewise mixed governments, which cannot be assigned to any one class. Great Britain, which partakes of all the three, is the most singular instance of this kind we are acquainted with. The other mixed governments of Europe are composed only of two of the simple forms, such as Poland, and several states of Italy; all which shall be explained at length in their proper places.

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

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

GRAND DIVISIONS OF EUROPE.

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

Empire	{	England
		Scotland
		Ireland
Kingdom	{	Norway
		Denmark
		Sweden
		Russia
		Poland
		K. of Prussia
		Germany
		Eohemia
		Holland
		Flanders
Italy	{	France
		Spain
		Portugal
		Switzerland
Several small states, Ch-cities	{	Papedom
		Naples
		Hungary
		Danubian Provinces
		Little Tartary
Greece	{	Greece

This includes t

EUROPE.

Kingdoms.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief City.	Dist. & Bearing from London.	Difference of Time fr. London.	Religions.	
Miles. H. M.							
Empire. {	England	380	300	London	0	Calvinists, Luth. &c.	
	Scotland	300	150	Edinburgh	0 12 aft.	Calvinists, &c.	
	Ireland	285	160	Dublin	0 26 aft.	Calvinists & Papists.	
Norway	1000	300	Bergen	540 N.	0 24 bef.	Lutherans.	
Denmark	240	180	Copenhagen	500 N. E.	0 50 bef.	Lutherans.	
Sweden	800	500	Stockholm	750 N. E.	1 10 bef.	Lutherans.	
Russia	1500	1100	Peterburgh	1140 N. E.	2 4 bef.	Greek church.	
Poland	700	680	Warsaw	760 E.	1 24 bef.	Pap. Luth. & Calv.	
K. of Pr. Dom.	600	350	Berlin	540 E.	0 49 bef.	Lutherans & Calvin.	
Germany	600	500	Vienna	600 E.	1 5 bef.	Pap. Luth. & Calv.	
Bohemia	300	250	Prague	600 E.	1 4 bef.	Papists.	
lands. {	Holland	150	100	Amsterdam	180 E.	0 18 be.	Calvinists.
	Flanders	200	200	Brussels	180 S. E.	0 16 bef.	Papists.
	France	600	500	Paris	200 S. E.	0 9 bef.	Papists.
Spain	700	500	Madrid	800 S.	0 17 aft.	Papists.	
Portugal	300	100	Lisbon	850 S. W.	0 38 aft.	Papists.	
Switzerland	260	100	Bern, Coire, &c	420 S. E.	0 28 bef.	Calvinists & Papists.	
Several } small } states, } Ch. cities.	Piedmont, Monferrat, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Tuscany, &c.						
	Turin, Cafal, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Florence.						
Popedom	240	120	Rome	820 S. E.	0 52 bef.	Papists.	
Naples	280	120	Naples	870 S. E.	1 0 bef.	Papists.	
Hungary	300	200	Buda	780 S. E.	1 17 bef.	Pap. & Protestants.	
Danubian } Provinces } Little Tartary* } Greece	600	420	{ Constan- tinople }	1320 S. E.	1 58 bef.	{ Mahometans and Greek church.	
	380	240	Precop	1500 E.	2 24 bef.		
	400	240	Athens	1360 S. E.	1 37 bef.		

This includes the Crim Tartary, now ceded to Russia; for the particulars of which, see RUSSIA.

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

ISLANDS.		Chief Town	Subject to
In the Northern Ocean	Iceland	Skalholt . .	Denmark
	Zealand, Funen, Alsen, Falster, Langeland, Lolland, Femern, Mona, Bornholm	Denmark
Baltic Sea	Gothland, Aland, Rugen	Sweden
	Ofsel, Dagho	Russia
	Usedom, Wollin	Prussia
Mediterranean Sea	Ivica	Ivica	Spain
	Majorca	Majorca . . .	Ditto
	Minorca	Port Mahon .	Ditto ^o
	Corfica	Bastia	France
	Sardinia	Cagliari . . .	K. of Sard.
Adriatic, or Gulph of Venice	Sicily	Palermo . . .	K. of a Sic.
	Lusitana, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Leucadia	Venice
	Candia, Rhodes, Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Scyros, Mitylene, Scio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Cerigo, Santorin, &c. being part of ancient and modern Greece	Turkey

* Minorca was taken from Spain by General Stanhope, 1708, and confirmed to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht, 1713, but was besieged and taken by the Spaniards, February 15, 1782, and confirmed to them by the definitive treaty of peace, signed at Paris, September 3, 1783.

DENMARK.

I shall, according to my plan, begin this account of his Danish majesty's dominions with the most northerly situations, and divide them into four parts: 1st, East and West Greenland, Iceland, and the islands in the Atlantic Ocean; 2d, Norway; 3d, Denmark Proper; and, 4th, his German territories.—The dimensions of these countries may be seen in the following table:

DENMARK.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Denmark Proper	North Jutland . .	9,600	155	98	Wyburgh.
	South Jutland, } or Sleswick }	2,115	70	63	Sleswick.
Islands at the entrance of the Baltic Sea.	Zealand	1,935	60	60	COPEN- } N. Lat. 55. 47. HAGEN, } E. Lon. 12. 40.
	Funen	768	38	32	Odensee.
	Falsterland } Langland }	220	27	12	{ Nikoping. Naxkaw.
	Femern	50	13	8	Borge.
	Alsen	54	15	6	Sonderborge.
	Mona	39	14	5	Steege.
	Bornholm	160	20	12	Rosicomby.
In the North Seas,	Iceland Island . .	46,000	435	185	Skalholt.
	Norway	71,400	750	170	Bergen.
	Danish Lapland	28,400	285	172	Wardhuys.
Westphalia	Oldenburgh . . .	1260	62	32	Oldenburgh.
Lower Saxony	Stormar	1000	52	32	Gluckstadt.
	Danish Holstein				
		163,007			

The reader may perceive, that in the preceding table no calculation is made of the dimensions of East and West Greenland; because, in fact, they are not yet known, or known very imperfectly: we shall proceed to give the latest accounts of them, and from the best authorities that have come to our hands.

EAST AND WEST GREENLAND, ICELAND, AND THE ISLANDS IN THE ATLANTIC OCEAN.

EAST GREENLAND,

THE most northerly part of his Danish majesty's dominions, or, as others call it, New Greenland, and the country of Spitzbergen, lies between 71 and 25 deg. E. long. and 76 and 80 deg. N. lat. according to captain Phipps's observations in his voyage, 1773. Though it is now claimed by Denmark, it certainly was discovered by sir Hugh Willoughby in 1553; and is supposed to be a continuation of Old Greenland. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen (or craggy mountains) from the height and ruggedness of its rocks. Few animals or vegetables are to be found here, and the fish and fowl are said to forsake the coast in winter. The Russians of Archangel have, within the last thirty years, formed settlements for hunting in several places of the island of Spitzbergen. The Aurora Borealis, or northern lights, reflected from the snow, enable them to pursue the chase during the long winter's night that reigns in these gloomy regions; and they take a great number of sea-lions, which serve them for food. There is a whale fishery, chiefly prosecuted by the Dutch and British vessels, on its coasts. It likewise contains two harbours; one called South Haven, and the other Maurice Bay; but the inland parts are uninhabited.

WEST GREENLAND

LIES between the meridian of London, and 53 deg. W. long. and between 60 and 76 deg. N. lat.

INHABITANTS.] By the latest accounts from the missionaries employed for the conversion of the Greenlanders, their whole number does not amount to above 957 constant inhabitants. Mr. Crantz, however, thinks the roving southlanders of Greenland may amount to about 7000. There is a great resemblance, in aspect, manners, and dress, between those people and the Esquimaux Americans, from whom they naturally differ but little, even after all the endeavours of the Danish and German missionaries to convert and civilise them. They are low of stature, few exceeding five feet in height, and the generality are not so tall. The hair of their heads is long, straight, and of a black colour: but they have seldom any beards, because it is their constant practice to root them out. They have high breasts and broad shoulders, especially the women, who are obliged to carry great burthens from their younger years. They are very light and nimble of foot, and can also use their hands with much skill and dexterity. They are not very lively in their tempers; but they are good-humoured, friendly, and unconcerned about futurity. Their most agreeable food is the flesh of rein-deer; but that is now scarce among them; and their best provisions are fish, seals, and sea fowl. Their drink is clear water, which stands in the house in a large copper vessel, or in a wooden-tub, which is very neatly made by them, ornamented with fish-bones and rings, and provided with a pewter ladle or dipping dish. The

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men make their hunting and fishing implements, and prepare the wood-work of their boats: and the women cover them with skins. The men hunt and fish: but when they have towed their booty to land, they trouble themselves no farther about it; nay, it would be accounted beneath their dignity even to draw out the fish upon the shore. The women are the butchers and cooks, and also the carriers to dress the pelts, and make cloaths, shoes, and boots, out of them; so that they are likewise both shoemakers and taylors. The women also build and repair the houses and tents, so far as relates to the masonry, the men doing only the carpenters' work. They live in huts during the winter, which is incredibly severe; but Mr. Crantz, who has given us the latest and best accounts of this country, says that, in their longest summer days it is so hot, from the long continuance of the sun's rays, that the inhabitants are obliged to throw off their summer garments. They have no trade, though they have a most improvable fishery upon their coasts; but they employ all the year either in fishing or hunting; in which they are very dexterous, particularly in catching and killing seals.

CURIOSITIES.] The taking of whales in the seas of Greenland, among the fields of ice that have been increasing for ages, is perhaps one of the boldest enterprises of man. These fields or pieces of ice are frequently more than a mile in length, and upwards of 100 feet in thickness; and when they are put in motion by a storm, nothing can be more terrible; the Dutch had 13 ships crushed to pieces by them in one season.

There are several kinds of whales in Greenland; some white, and others black. The black sort, the grand bay whale, is in most esteem on account of his bulk, and the great quantity of fat or blubber he affords, which turns to oil. His tongue is about 18 feet long, inclosed in long pieces of what we call whalebone, which are covered with a kind of hair like horse-hair; and on each side of his tongue are 250 pieces of this whalebone. The bones of his body are as hard as an ox's bones, and of no use. There are no teeth in his mouth; and he is usually between 60 and 80 feet long, very thick about the head: but grows less from thence to the tail.

When the seamen see a whale-spout, the word is immediately given, *a fall, a fall*, when every one hastens from the ship to his boat; six or eight men being appointed to a boat, and four or five boats usually belong to one ship.

When they come near the whale, the harpooner strikes him with his harpoon (a barbed dart), and the monster, finding himself wounded, dives swiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him if they did not give him line fast enough; and to prevent the wood of the boat taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope on the side of it, one wets it constantly with a mop. After the whale has run some hundred fathoms deep, he is forced to come up for air, when he makes such a terrible noise with his spouting, that some have compared it to the firing of cannon. As soon as he appears on the surface of the water, some of the harpooners fix another harpoon in him, whereupon he plunges again into the deep; and when he comes up a second time, they pierce him with spears in the vital parts, till he spouts out streams of blood instead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins till the sea is all in a foam, the boats continuing to follow him some leagues, till he has lost his strength; and when he is dying he turns himself upon his back, and is drawn on shore, or to the ship, if they be at a distance from the land. There they cut him in pieces, and by boiling the blubber, extract the oil, if they have conveniences on shore; otherwise they barrel up the

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pieces, and bring them home: the smell of these ships is almost insufferable. Every fish is computed to yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of 3l. or 4l. a barrel. Though the Danes claim the country of East and West Greenland where these whales are taken, the Dutch have in a manner monopolised this fishery. Of late the English have also been very successful in it.

ICELAND.

THIS island, which receives its name from the great masses of ice that are seen near it, lies between 63 and 67 deg. N. lat. and between 11 and 27 deg. W. long. It extends four hundred miles in length, and a hundred and sixty in breadth, containing about 46,000 square miles. In April, 1783, the inhabitants of Iceland observed something rising and flaming in the sea, to the south of Grinbourg, at eight miles distance from the rocks des Oiseaux, which afterwards was found to be a new island. The dimensions and situation of this island are not well ascertained; but according to some late information it was still increasing, and great quantities of fire issued from two of its eminences.

[POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] It appears that a Norwegian colony, among which there were many Swedes, settled in Iceland in the ninth century. They found there inhabitants who were Christians, and whom they called *Pápas*. It is said that the Norwegians also found among them Irish books, bells, and crosses: and it is conjectured that the people who were there when the Norwegians arrived in the island, originally came from England and Ireland. The inhabitants long retained their freedom; but they were at last obliged to submit to the kings of Norway, and afterwards became subject, together with Norway, to the kings of Denmark: They were at first governed by an admiral, who was sent there every year to make the necessary regulations; but that mode has now been changed for many years, and a governor appointed, who is styled *Stiftsamtman*, and who constantly resides in the country.

The number of inhabitants in Iceland is computed at about 60,000, which is by no means adequate to the extent of the country. It has been much more populous in former times; but great numbers have been destroyed by contagious diseases: The plague carried off many thousands from 1402 to 1404. Many parts of Iceland have also been depopulated by famine; for though the Icelanders cannot in general be said to be in want of necessary food, yet the country has several times been visited by great famines. These have been chiefly occasioned by the Greenland floating ice, which, when it comes in great quantities, prevents the grass from growing, and puts an entire stop to their fishing. The small-pox has likewise been very fatal here; for in the years 1707 and 1708 that disease destroyed 16,000 persons.

The Icelanders in general are middle-sized, and well made, though not very strong: They are an honest, well-intentioned people, moderately industrious, and are very faithful and obliging. Theft is seldom heard of among them. They are much inclined to hospitality, and exercise it as far as their poverty will permit. Their chief employment is attending to fishing and the care of their cattle. On the coasts the men employ their time in fishing both winter and summer; and the women prepare the fish, and sew and spin. The men also prepare leather, work at several mechanic trades, and some sew work in gold and silver. They likewise

manufacture a coarse kind of cloth, which they call Wadmal. They have an uncommonly strong attachment to their native country, and think themselves no where else so happy. An Icelander, therefore, seldom settles in Copenhagen, though the most advantageous conditions should be offered him. Their dispositions are serious, and they are much inclined to religion. They never pass a river, or any other dangerous place, without previously taking off their hats, and imploring the divine protection; and they are always thankful for their preservation when they have passed the danger. When they meet together, their chief pastime consists in reading their history. The master of the house begins, and the rest continue in their turns when he is tired. They are famous for playing at chess; and one of their pastimes consists in reciting verses. Sometimes a man and woman take one another by the hand, and by turns sing stanzas, which are a kind of dialogue, and in which the company occasionally join in chorus. The dress of the Icelanders is not elegant or ornamental, but is neat, cleanly, and suited to the climate. On their fingers the women wear several gold, silver, or brass rings. The poorer women dress in the coarse cloth called Wadmal, and always wear black; those who are in better circumstances wear broad-cloth, with silver ornaments, gilt. The houses of the Icelanders are generally bad: in some places they are built of drift wood; and in others they are raised of lava, with moss stuffed between the lava. Their roofs are covered with sods laid over rafters, or sometimes over ribs of whales, which are both more durable and less expensive than wood. They have not even a chimney in their kitchens, but only lay their fuel on the hearth, between three stones, and the smoke issues from a square hole in the roof. Their food principally consists of dried fish, four butter, which they consider as a great dainty, milk mixed with water and whey, and a little meat. Bread is so scarce among them, that there is hardly any peasant who eats it above three or four months in the year.

RELIGION.] The only religion tolerated in Iceland is the Lutheran. The churches in the east, south, and west quarters of the island, are under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Skalholt (the capital of the island), and those of the north quarter are subject to the bishop of Hoolum. The island is divided into 189 parishes, of which 127 belong to the see of Skalholt, and 62 to that of Hoolum. All the ministers are natives of Iceland, and receive a yearly salary of four or five hundred rix-dollars from the king, exclusive of what they have from their congregations.

LANGUAGE.] The language in Iceland is the same as that formerly spoken in Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, and has been preserved so pure, that any Icelander understands their most ancient traditional histories.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] It is said that poetry formerly flourished very much in Iceland; and we are informed that Egil Skallagrímson, Korinack Ormundson, Glum Geirson, and Thorliof Jarlaa, were celebrated as great poets. But the art of writing was not much in use till after the year 1000; though the Runic characters were known in that country before that period, and most probably brought thither from Norway. After the reception of the Christian religion, the Latin characters were immediately adopted, as the Runic alphabet, which only consists of sixteen letters, was found insufficient. The first Icelandic bishop, Isleif, founded a school at Skalholt; and soon after they founded four other schools, in which the youth were instructed in the Latin tongue, divinity, and some parts of theoretic philosophy. And from the introduction of the Christian religion here till the year 1264, when Iceland became subject to

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Norway, it was one of the few countries in Europe, and the only one in the North, wherein the sciences were cultivated and held in esteem.

But this period of time seems to have produced more learned men in Iceland than any other period since. It appears from their ancient chronicles, that they had considerable knowledge in morality, philosophy, natural history, and astronomy. Most of their works were written in the 11th, 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries; and some of them have been printed. Mr. Banks, now sir Joseph Banks, presented one hundred and sixty-two Icelandic manuscripts to the British Museum. That gentleman visited Iceland in 1772, accompanied by Dr. Solander, Dr. Van Troil, and Dr. Lind. Dr. Van Troil, who published an account of their voyage, observes, that he found more knowledge among the lower class in Iceland, than is to be met with in most other places; that many of them could repeat the works of some of their poets by heart; and that a peasant was seldom to be found, who, besides being well instructed in the principles of religion, was not also acquainted with the history of his own country; which proceeds from the frequent reading of their traditional histories; that being one of their principal amusements.

John Areson, bishop of Hoolim, employed John Matthieson, a native of Sweden, in establishing a printing press in Iceland about the year 1536; and the first book printed by him there was the Breviarium Nidarosense. He also printed an ecclesiastical manual, Luther's catechism, and other books of that kind. The Icelandic code of laws appeared in 1578; and the Icelandic bible in 1584. A new privileged printing-office has lately been established at Hrappsey in this island, at which several valuable books have been printed.

MOUNTAINS, VOLCANOES, AND NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Though this island is situated so far to the north, earthquakes and volcanoes are more known than in many countries in much warmer climates. The former have several times laid the country almost desolate, particularly in the years 1734, 1752, and 1755, when fiery eruptions broke out on the earth and produced very fatal effects. Many of the snowy mountains have also gradually become volcanoes. Of these burning mountains, Heckla is most known to foreigners. This mountain is situated in the southern part of the island, about four miles from the sea-coast, and is divided into three points at the top, the highest of which is that in the middle, which is computed to be above 5000 feet higher than the sea. This mountain has frequently sent forth flames, and a torrent of burning matter. Its eruptions were particularly dreadful in 1693, when they occasioned terrible devastations, the ashes being thrown all round the island to the distance of 180 English miles. The last eruption of Mount Heckla happened in 1766. It began on the 5th of April, and continued to the 7th of September following. Flames proceeded from it in December 1771, and 1772; but no eruptions of lava.

Among the curiosities of Iceland, none are more worthy of attention than the hot-spouting water-springs with which this island abounds. The hot springs of Aix-la-chapelle, Carlsbad, Bath, and Switzerland, and several others found in Italy, are considered as very remarkable; but, excepting in the last-mentioned country, the water nowhere becomes so hot as to boil; nor is it any where known to be thrown so high as the hot spouting water-springs in Iceland. All those water-works that have been contrived with so much art, and at so enormous an expense, cannot by any means be compared with these. The water works at St. Cloud, which are thought the greatest among all the French water-works, cast up a thin column eighty feet in the air; while some springs in

Iceland spout columns of water, of several feet in thickness, to the height, as many affirm, of several hundred feet. These springs are of an unequal degree of heat. From some, the water flows gently as from other springs, and it is then called a bath: from others, boiling water spouts with great noise, and it is then called a kettle. Though the degree of heat is unequal, yet Dr. Van Troil says that he does not remember ever to have observed it under 188 of Fahrenheit's thermometer. At Geyser, Roeynum, and Laugarvatn, he found it at 212 (the boiling heat); and in the last place, in the ground, at a little hot current of water, 213 degrees. It is very common for some of the spouting-springs to cease, and others to rise up in their stead. Frequent earthquakes, and subterranean noises, heard at the time, cause great terror to the people who live in the neighbourhood. In several of these hot-springs, the inhabitants who live near them boil their victuals, only by hanging a pot, into which the flesh is put in cold water, in the water of the spring. They also bathe in the rivulets that run from them, which, by degrees, become lukewarm, or are cooled by their being mixed with rivulets of cold water. The cows that drink of these springs are said to yield an extraordinary quantity of milk; and they are likewise esteemed very wholesome when drank by the human species.

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

Basaltine pillars are likewise very common in Iceland, which are supposed to have been produced by subterraneous fires. The lower sort of people imagine these pillars to have been piled upon one another by giants, who made use of supernatural force to effect it. They have generally from three to seven sides, and are from four to seven feet in thickness, and from twelve to sixteen yards in length, without any horizontal divisions. In some places they are only seen here and there among the lava in the mountains: but in some other places, they extend two or three miles in length without interruption.

There are immense masses of ice, by which, every year, great damage is done to this country, and which affect the climate of it; they arrive commonly with a N. W. or N. N. W. wind from Greenland. The field ice is of two or three fathoms thickness, is separated by the winds, and less dreaded than the rock or mountain ice, which is often seen fifty and more feet above water, and is at least nine times the same depth below water. These prodigious masses of ice are frequently left in shoal water, fixed, as it were, to the ground, and in that state remain many months; nay, it is said, even years, undissolved, chilling all the ambient part of the atmosphere for many miles round. When many such lofty and bulky masses of ice are floating together, the wood that is often drifted along between them, is so much chafed, and pressed with such violence together, that it takes fire; which circumstance has occasioned fabulous accounts of the ice being in flames. The ice caused so violent a cold in 1753, and 1754, that many horses and sheep were killed by it; and through want of food, horses were observed to feed upon dead cattle, and the sheep to eat of each other's wool. A number of bears ar-

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five yearly with the ice, which commit great ravages, particularly among the sheep. The Icelanders attempt to destroy these intruders as soon as they get sight of them: and sometimes they assemble together, and drive them back to the ice, with which they often float off again. For want of fire-arms, they are obliged to make use of spears on these occasions. The government encourages the natives to destroy these animals, by paying a premium of ten dollars for every bear that is killed. Their skins are also purchased for the king, and are not allowed to be sold to any other person.

It is extraordinary that trees do not thrive in Iceland; nay, there are very few to be found on the whole island, though there are certain proofs that wood formerly grew there in great abundance. Nor can corn be cultivated here to any advantage; though cabbages, parley, turnips, and peas, may be met with in five or six gardens, which are said to be all that are in the whole island.

TRADE.] The commerce of this island is monopolised by a Danish company. The soil upon the sea-coast is tolerably good for pasture: and though there is not any considerable town in the whole island, the Icelanders have several frequented ports. Their exports consist of dried fish, salted mutton and lamb, beef, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarse woollen cloths, stockings, gloves, raw wool, sheep-skins, lamb-skins, fox furs of various colours, eider-down, and feathers. Their imports consist of timber, fishing-lines and hooks, tobacco, bread, horse-shoes, brandy, wine, salt, linen, and a little silk, exclusive of some necessaries and superfluities for the more wealthy.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] As Iceland affords no incitement for avarice or ambition, the inhabitants depend entirely upon his Danish majesty's protection; and the revenue he draws from the country amounts to about 30,000 crowns a year.

THE FARO OR FERRO ISLANDS,

SO called from their lying in a cluster, and the inhabitants ferrying from one island to another. They are about 24 in number, and lie between 61 and 63 deg. N. lat. and 6° and 7° W. long. from London. The space of this cluster extends about 60 miles in length and 40 in breadth, 300 miles to the westward of Norway; having Shetland and the Orkneys on the south-east, and Greenland and Iceland upon the north and north-west. The trade and income of the inhabitants, who may be about 4000 or 5000, add little or nothing to the revenues of Denmark.

NORWAY,

Containing 158,400 square miles, with less than 4 inhabitants to each.

NAME, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT. } THE natural signification of Norway is, the *Northern-way*. It is bounded on the South by the entrance into the Baltic, called the Scaggerac, or Categate; on the West and North by the northern ocean; and on the East is divided from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains, called at different parts by different names; as Lillefield, Dofrefield, Rynfield, and Ourfield. The reader may consult the table of dimensions in Denmark for its extent, which is not, however, well ascertained.

CLIMATE.] The climate of Norway varies according to its latitude, and its position toward the sea. At Bergen the winter is moderate, and the sea is practicable. The eastern parts of Norway are commonly covered with snow; and the cold generally sets in about the middle of October, and continues, with intense severity, to the middle of April; the waters being

all that time frozen to a considerable thickness. In 1719, 7000 Swedes, who were on their march to attack Drontheim, perished in the snow, on the mountain which separates Sweden from Norway; and their bodies were found in different postures. But even frost and snow have their conveniences, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land. As to the more northern parts of this country, called Finmark, the cold is so intense, that they are but little known. At Bergen the longest day consists of about 19 hours, and the shortest of about five. In summer, the inhabitants can read and write at midnight by the light of the sky; and in the most northerly parts, about midsummer, the sun is continually in view. In those parts, however, in the middle of winter, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon for about an hour and a half, owing to the reflection of the sun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithstanding, has been so kind to the Norwegians, that, in the midst of their darkness, the sky is so serene, and the moon and the aurora borealis so bright, that they carry on their fishery, and work at their several trades in the open air.

The air is so pure in some of the inland parts, that it has been said the inhabitants live so long as to be tired of life, and cause themselves to be transported to a less salubrious air. Sudden thaws, and snow-falls, have however, sometimes dreadful effects, and destroy whole villages.

MOUNTAINS.] Norway is reckoned one of the most mountainous countries in the world; for it contains a chain of unequal mountains running from south to north: to pass one of which, called the Ardanger, a man must travel about seventy English miles; and to pass others, upwards of fifty. Dofresfield is counted the highest mountain perhaps in Europe. The rivers and cataracts which intersect those dreadful precipices, and that are passable only by slight tottering wooden bridges, render travelling in this country very terrible and dangerous; though the government is at the expence of providing, at different stages, houses accommodated with fire, light, and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vast chain, other immense mountains present themselves all over Norway; some of them with reservoirs of water on the top, and the whole forming a most surprising landscape. The activity of the natives in recovering their sheep and goats, when penned up, through a false step, in one of those rocks, is wonderful. The owner directs himself to be lowered down from the top of the mountain, sitting on a cross stick, tied to the end of a long rope; and when he arrives at the place where the creature stands, he fastens it to the same cord, and it is drawn up with himself. The caverns that are to be met with in these mountains, are more wonderful than those, perhaps, in any other part of the world, though less liable to observation. One of them, called Dofsteen, was, in 1750, visited by two clergymen, who reported that they proceeded in it till they heard the sea dashing over their heads; that the passage was as wide and as high as an ordinary church, the sides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted; that they descended a flight of natural stairs; but when they arrived at another, they durst not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they consumed two candles going and returning.

FORESTS.] The chief wealth of Norway lies in its forests, which furnish foreigners with masts, beams, planks, and boards, and serve beside for all domestic uses, particularly the construction of houses, bridges, ships, and for charcoal to the founderies. The timber growing here are fir, and pine, elm, ash, yew, benreed (a very curious wood), birch, beech, oak, eel, or alder, juniper, the aspin-tree, the comol or floe-tree, hazel, elder, and even ebony (under the mountains of Kolen), lime or linden-tree, and willows. The sums which Norway receives for timber are very

considerable; but the industry of the inhabitants is greatly assisted by the course of their rivers, and the situation of their lakes, which afford them not only the conveniency of floating down their timber, but that of erecting saw-mills, for dividing their large beams into planks and deals. A tenth of all sawed timber belongs to his Danish majesty, and forms no inconsiderable part of his revenue.

STONES, METALS, AND MINERALS.] Norway contains quarries of excellent marble, as well as many other kinds of stones; and the magnet is found in the iron mines. The amianthus, or asbestos, of an incombustible nature, the thin fibres of which may be woven into cloth, and cleaned by burning, is likewise found here; as are crystals, granites, amethysts, agate, thunder-stones, and eagle stones. Gold found in Norway has been coined into ducats. His Danish majesty is now working, to great advantage, a silver mine at Koningsburgh; other silver mines have been found in different parts of the country; and one of the many silver masses that have been discovered, weighing 560 pounds, is to be seen at the Royal Museum at Copenhagen. Lead, copper, and iron mines, are common in this country: one of the copper mines at Roraas is thought to be the richest in Europe. Norway likewise produces quicksilver, sulphur, salt, and coal mines, vitriol, alum, and various kinds of loam; the different manufactures of which bring in a large revenue to the crown.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers and fresh water lakes in this country are well stocked with fish, and navigable for ships of considerable burden. The most extraordinary circumstance attending the lakes is, that some of them contain floating islands, formed by the cohesion of roots of trees and shrubs; and, though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees. In the year 1702, the noble family seat of Borge, near Fredericstادت, suddenly sunk, with all its towers and battlements, into an abyss a hundred fathoms in depth; and its scite was instantly filled with water, which formed a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. This melancholy accident, by which 14 people and 209 head of cattle perished, was occasioned by the foundation being undermined by the waters of a river.

UNCOMMON ANIMALS, } All the animals that are natives of Den-
FOWLS, AND FISHES. } mark are to be found in Norway, with an
 addition of many more. The wild beasts peculiar to Norway are the elk, the rein-deer, the hare, the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the fox, the glutton, the leming, the ermine, the marten, and the beaver. The elk is a tall, ash-coloured animal, its shape partaking at once of the horse and the stag; it is harmless, and in the winter social; and the flesh of it tastes like venison. The rein-deer is a species of stag; but we shall have occasion to mention it more particularly hereafter. The hares are small, and are said to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are strong and sagacious: they are remarkable for not hurting children; but their other qualities are common with the rest of their species in northern countries; nor can we much credit the very extraordinary specimens of their sagacity, recorded by the natives: they are hunted by little dogs; and some prefer bear hams to those of Westphalia. The Norwegian wolves, though fierce, are shy even of a cow or goat, unless impelled by hunger: the natives are dexterous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx, by some called the goupes, is smaller than a wolf, but as dangerous; they are of the cat kind, and have claws like tigers; they dig under ground, and often undermine sheep-folds,

where they make dreadful havoc. The skin of the lynx is beautiful and valuable, as is that of the black fox. White and red foxes are likewise found in Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other countries; they have a particular way of drawing crabs ashore, by dipping their tails in the water, which the crab lays hold of.

The glutton, otherwise called the ervan, or viclfrag, resembles a turn-spit dog, with a long body, thick legs, sharp claws and teeth; his fur, which is variegated, is so valuable, that he is shot with blunt arrows, to preserve the skin unhurt: he is so bold and ravenous, that it is said he will devour a carcase larger than himself, and unburdens his stomach by squeezing himself between two close-standing trees; and that, when taken, he has been even known to eat stone and mortar. The ermine is a little creature, remarkable for its shyness and cleanliness; and its fur forms a principal part even of royal magnificence. There is little difference between the marten and a large brown forest cat, only its head and snout are sharper; it is very fierce; and its bite dangerous. We shall have occasion to mention the beaver in treating of North America.

No country produces a greater variety of birds than Norway. The elks build upon rocks; their numbers often darken the air, and the noise of their wings resembles a storm; their size is that of a large duck; they are an aquatic fowl, and their flesh is much esteemed. No fewer than 30 different kinds of thrushes are found in Norway; with various kinds of pigeons, and several sorts of beautiful wild ducks. The Norwegian cock-of-the-wood is of a black or dark grey colour; his eye resembles that of a pheasant; and he is said to be the largest of all eatable birds. Norway produces two kinds of eagles, the land and the sea; the former is so strong, that he has been known to carry off a child of two years old. The sea or fish-eagle is larger than the other; he subsists on aquatic food, and sometimes darts on large fishes with such force, that, being unable to free his talons from their bodies, he is dragged into the water and drowned.

Nature seems to have adapted these aerial inhabitants for the coast of Norway; and industry has produced a species of mankind peculiarly fitted for rendering them serviceable to the human race. These are the birdmen, or climbers, who are amazingly dexterous in mounting the steepest rocks, and bring away the birds and their eggs: the latter are nutritive food, and are parboiled in vinegar; the flesh is sometimes eaten by the peasants, who generally relish it; while the feathers and down form a profitable commodity. Even the dogs of the farmers, in the northern districts, are trained up to be assistants to these birdmen in taking their prey.

The Scandinavian lakes and seas are astonishingly fruitful in most kinds of fish that are found on the sea-coasts of Europe. Stock-fish innumerable are dried upon the rocks without salting. The haac-moren is a species of shark, ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three casks of train oil. The tuella flynder is an excessively large turbot, which has been known to cover a man who has fallen overboard, to keep him from rising. The season for herring-fishing is announced to the fishermen by the spouting of water from the whales while following the herring shoals. Of the whale seven species have been remarked: the large whale resembles a cod; has small eyes, a dark marbled skin, and white belly; they spout out the water, which they take in by inspiration, through two holes or openings in the head. They copulate like land animals, standing upright in the sea. A young whale, when first produced, is about nine or ten feet long; and the female sometimes brings

forth two at a birth. The whale devours such an incredible number of small fish, that his belly is often ready to burst; in which case he makes a most tremendous noise, from pain. The smaller fish have their revenge; some of them fasten on his back, and incessantly beat him; others, with sharp horns, or rather bones, on their beak, swim under his belly, and sometimes rip it up; some are provided with long sharp teeth, and tear his flesh. Even the aquatic birds of prey declare war against him when he comes near the surface of the water; and he has been known to be so tortured, that he has beat himself to death on the rocks. The coast of Norway may be said to be the native country of herrings. Innumerable shoals come from under the ice near the north pole, and, about the latitude of Iceland, divide themselves into three bodies. One of these supplies the western isles and coasts of Scotland; another directs its course round the eastern part of Great Britain, down the Channel, and the third enters the Baltic through the Sound. They form great part of the food of the common people; and the cod, ling, kabeliau, and torse fishes follow them, to feed upon their spawn, and are taken in prodigious numbers, in 50 or 60 fathoms water: these, especially their roes, and the oil extracted from their livers, are exported and sold to great advantage; and above 150,000 people are maintained by the herring and other fishing on the coast of Norway. The sea-devil is about six feet in length, and is so called from its monstrous appearance and voracity. The sea-scorpion is likewise of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length; and its bite is said to be poisonous.

The fabulous sea-monsters of antiquity are all equalled if not exceeded by the wonderful animals, which, according to some modern accounts, inhabit the Norwegian seas. Among these, the sea-snake, or serpent of the ocean, is one of the most remarkable, and perhaps the best attested. In 1756, one of them, it is said, was shot by a master of a ship; its head resembled that of a horse; the mouth was large and black, as were the eyes; a white mane hung from its neck; it floated on the surface of the water, and held its head at least two feet out of the sea. Between the head and neck were seven or eight folds, which were very thick; and the length of this snake was more than a hundred yards, some say, fathoms. They are said to have a remarkable aversion to the smell of castor; for which reason, ship, boat, and bark masters provide themselves with quantities of that drug, to prevent being overfet; the serpent's olfactory nerves being remarkably exquisite. The particulars related of this animal, however incredible, have been attested upon oath. Egede (a very reputable author) says, that on the 6th day of July, 1734, a large and frightful sea-monster raised itself so high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top-mast of the ship; that it had a long sharp snout, broad paws, and spouted water like a whale; and that the body seemed to be covered with scales; the skin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a snake. The body of this monster is said to be as thick as a hog's head; his skin variegated like a tortoise-shell; and his excrement, which floats on the surface of the water, to be corrosive, and blister the hands of the seamen if they handle it.

The existence of the kraken, or korken, is likewise strongly asserted; it is said to be a mile and a half in circumference; and that when part of it appears above the water, it resembles a number of small islands and sand-banks, on which fishes sport, and sea-weeds grow; upon his farther emerging, a number of pellucid antennæ, each about the height,

form, and size of a moderate mast, appear; by the action and re-action of which he gathers his food, consisting of small fishes. When he sinks, which he does gradually, a dangerous swell of the sea succeeds, and a kind of whirlpool is naturally formed in the water. In 1680, we are told, a young kraken perished among the rocks and cliffs of the parish of Alfahong; and his death was attended with such a stench, that the channel where he died was impassable.

The mer-men and mer-women are likewise said to have their residence in the Norwegian seas; but it is not easy to give credit to all that is related concerning them by the natives. The mer-man is about eight spans long, and is described as bearing nearly the same resemblance as an ape does to the human species. It has a high forehead, little eyes, a flat nose, and large mouth, without chin or ears; its arms are short, but without joints or elbows, and they terminate in members resembling a human hand, but of the paw kind, and the fingers connected by a membrane. The parts of generation indicate their sexes; though their under parts, which remain in the water, terminate like those of fishes. The females have breasts, at which they suckle their young ones.

CURIOSITIES.] Those of Norway are only natural. On the coast, latitude 67, is that dreadful vortex or whirlpool, called by navigators the *navel of the sea*, and by some *Maelstrom*, or *Moskoestrom*. The island *Moskoe*, from whence this stream derives its name, lies between the mountain *Hesleggen* in *Lofoden*, and the island *Ver*, which are about one league distant; and between the island and coast on each side, the stream makes its way. Between *Moskoe* and *Lofoden* it is near 400-fathoms deep; but between *Moskoe* and *Ver*, it is so shallow as not to afford passage for a small ship. When it is flood, the stream runs up the country between *Lofoden* and *Moskoe* with a boisterous rapidity; and at ebb, returns to the sea with a violence and noise unequalled by the loudest cataracts. It is heard at the distance of many leagues, and forms a vortex or whirlpool of great depth or extent, so violent, that if a ship comes near it, it is immediately drawn irresistibly into the whirl, and there disappears, being absorbed and carried down to the bottom in a moment, where it is dashed to pieces against the rocks; and just at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes still for about a quarter of an hour, it rises again in scattered fragments, scarcely to be known for the parts of a ship. When it is agitated by a storm, it has reached vessels at the distance of more than a Norway mile, where the crews have thought themselves in perfect security. Perhaps it is hardly in the power of fancy to conceive a situation of more horror than that of being thus driven forward by the sudden violence of an impetuous torrent to the vortex of the whirlpool, of which the noise and turbulence, still increasing as it is approached, are an earnest of quick and inevitable destruction; while the wretched victims, in an agony of despair and terror, cry out for that help which they know to be impossible, and see before them the dreadful abyss into which they are to be plunged, and dashed among the rocks at the bottom.

Even animals, which have come too near the vortex, have expressed the utmost terror when they found the stream irresistible. Whales are frequently carried away; and the moment they feel the force of the water, they struggle against it with all their might, howling and bellowing in a frightful manner. The like happens frequently to bears, who attempt to swim to the island to prey upon the sheep.

It was the opinion of *Kircher*, that the *Maelstrom* is a sea vortex, which attracts the flood under the shore of Norway, and discharges it

again in the gulph of Bothnia; but this opinion is now known to be erroneous, by the return of the shattered fragments of whatever happens to be sucked down by it. The large stems of firs and pines rise again so shivered and splintered that the pieces look as if covered with bristles. The whole phænomena are the effects of the violence of the daily ebb and flow, occasioned by the contraction of the stream in its course between the rocks.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION, } The Norwegians are a people
AND CUSTOMS OF NORWAY. } of an intermediate character between the simplicity of the Greenlanders and Icelanders, and the more polished manners of the Danes. Their religion is Lutheran; and they have bishops, as those of Denmark, without temporal jurisdiction. Their viceroy, like his master, is absolute: but the farmers and common people in Norway are much less oppressed than those in Denmark.

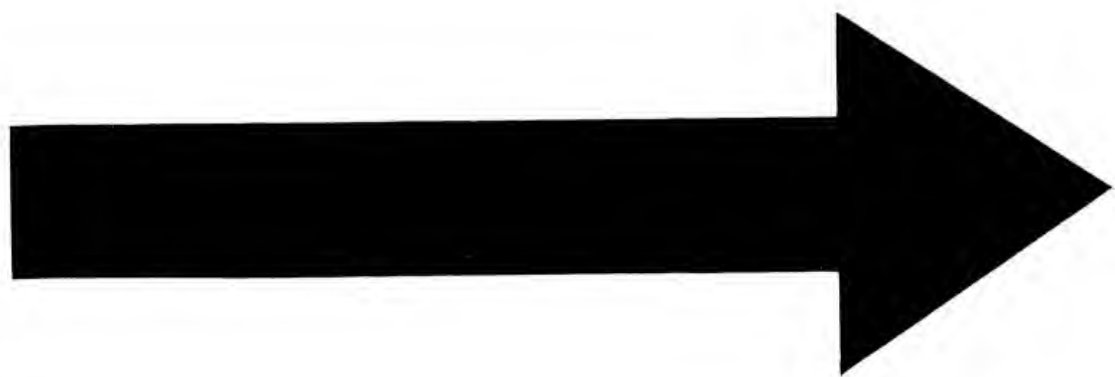
The Norwegians in general are strong, robust, and brave; but quick in resenting real or supposed injuries. The women are handsome and courteous; and the Norwegian modes of living greatly resemble those of the Saxon ancestors of the present English. Every inhabitant is an artisan, and supplies his family in all its necessaries with his own manufactures; so that in Norway there are few by profession who are hat-makers, shoe-makers, tailors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, smiths, or joiners. The lowest Norwegian peasant is an artist and a gentleman, and even a poet. They often mix with oat-meal the bark of the fir, made into a kind of flour; and they are reduced to very extraordinary shifts for supplying the place of bread or farinaceous food. The middling Norwegians lead that kind of life which we may say is furnished with plenty; but they are neither fond of luxury, nor do they dread penury; and this middle state prolongs their lives surprisngly. Though their dress is in many respects accommodated to their climate, yet, by custom, instead of guarding against the inclemency of the weather, they out-brave it; for they expose themselves to cold, without any covering upon their breasts or necks. A Norwegian of a hundred years of age is not accounted past his labour; and, in 1733, four couples were married; and danced before his Danish majesty at Frederichshall, whose ages, when joined, exceeded 800 years.

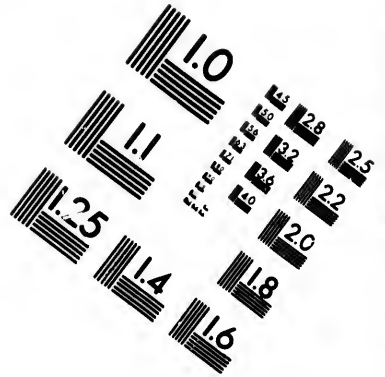
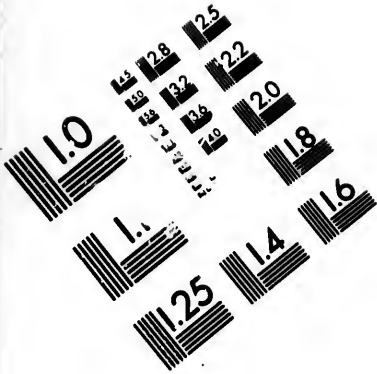
The funeral ceremonies of the Norwegians contain vestiges of their former paganism: they play on the violin at the head of the coffin, and while the corpse is carried to the church, which is often done in a boat. In some places the mourners ask the dead person why he died; whether his wife and neighbours were kind to him, and other such questions; frequently kneeling down and asking forgiveness, if ever they had offended him.

COMMERCE.] We have little to add to this head, different from what will be observed in our account of Denmark. The duties on their exports, most of which have been already recounted, amount to about 100,000 rix-dollars a year.

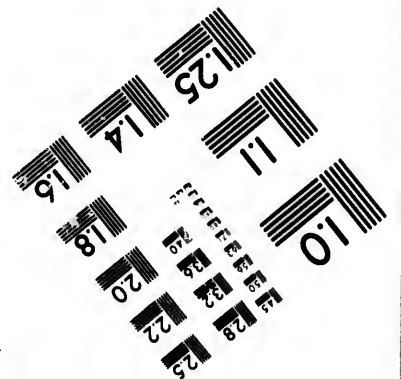
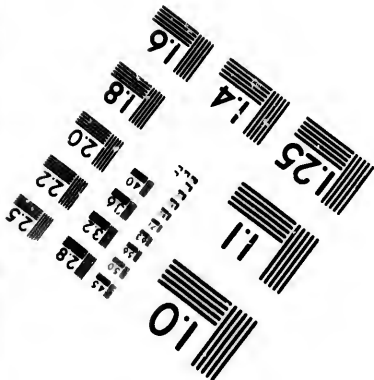
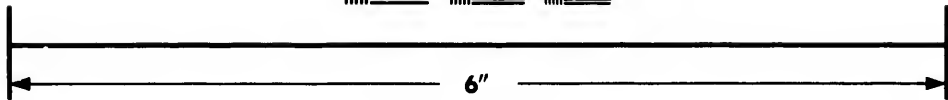
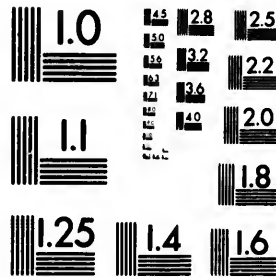
STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] By the best calculations, Norway can furnish out 14,000 excellent seamen, and above 30,000 brave soldiers, for the service of their king. The royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to near 200,000*l.* and, till his present majesty's accession, the army, instead of being expensive, added considerably to his income, by the subsidies it drew from foreign princes.

HISTORY.] We must refer to Denmark likewise for this head. The ancient Norwegians certainly were a very brave and powerful people, and the hardiest seamen in the world. If we may believe their histories,





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they were no strangers to America long before it was discovered by Columbus. Many customs of their ancestors are yet discernible in Ireland and the north of Scotland, where they made frequent descents, and some settlements, which are generally confounded with those of the Danes. From their being the most turbulent, they are become now the most loyal subjects in Europe: their former character is no doubt to be ascribed to the barbarity and tyranny of their kings, when a separate people. Since the union of Calmar, which united Norway to Denmark, their history, as well as interests, are the same with those of Denmark.

DENMARK * PROPER, or JUTLAND, exclusive of the ISLANDS in the BALTIC.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

MILES.

DEGREES.

Length - - - - 240 $\frac{1}{2}$ } between { 54 and 38 North latitude.
Breadth - - - - 114 } { 8 and 11 East longitude.

Containing 15,744 Square Miles, with 139 Inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS. } IT is divided on the North from Norway by the Scaggerac sea, and from Sweden on the East by the Sound; it is bounded on the South by Germany and the Baltic; and the German sea divides it from Great Britain on the West.

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

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, STATE OF AGRICULTURE, &c.] One of the largest and most fertile of all the provinces of this kingdom is Jutland, which produces abundance of all sorts of grain and pasturage, and is a kind of magazine for Norway on all occasions. A great number of small cattle are bred in this province, and afterwards transported into Holstein, to be fed for the use of Hamburg, Lubec, and Amsterdam. Jutland is every where interspersed with hills, and on the east side has fine woods of oak, fir, beech, birch, and other trees; but the west side being less woody, the inhabitants are obliged to use turf and heath for fuel. Zealand is for the most part a sandy soil, but rather fertile in grain and pasturage, and agreeably variegated with woods and lakes of water. The climate is more temperate here on account of the vapours from the surrounding sea, than it is in many more southerly parts of Europe. Spring and autumn are seasons scarcely known in Denmark, on account of the sudden transitions from cold to heat, and from heat to cold, which distinguish the climate of this kingdom. In all the northern provinces of Denmark, the winters are very severe, so that the inhabitants often pass arms of the sea in sledges upon the ice; and during the winter all the harbours are frozen up.

* See Mallet's Denmark, p. 1, to 18, vol. v.

† Meaning, where longest and broadest, — a method which the author has every where observed; and it seems to be the practice of other writers on the subject. Great allowances must therefore be made in most countries, as the readers will perceive: by looking on the maps. Jutland, for instance, is 114 miles where broadest; though in sundry other parts it is not so.

The greatest part of the lands in Denmark and Holstein are fiefs; and the ancient nobility, by grants which they extorted at different times from the crown, gained such power over the farmers, and those who resided upon their estates, that at length they reduced them to a state of extreme slavery, so that they were bought and sold with their lands, and were esteemed the property of their lords. Many of the noble landholders of Sleswick and Holstein have the power of life and death. The situation of the farmers has, indeed, been made somewhat more agreeable by some modern edicts; but they are still, if such an expression may be allowed; chained to their farms, and are disposed of at the will of their lords. When a farmer in Denmark or Holstein happens to be an industrious man, and is situated upon a poor farm, which by great diligence he has laboured to cultivate advantageously, as soon as he has performed the toilsome task, and expects to reap the profits, of what he has sown, his landlord, under pretence of taking it into his own hands, removes him from that farm to another of his poor farms, and expects that he should perform the same laborious task there, without any other emolument than what he may think proper to give him. This has been so long the practice in this country, that it necessarily throws the greatest damp upon the efforts of industry, and prevents those improvements in agriculture which would otherwise be introduced; the consequence of which is, that nine parts in ten of the inhabitants are in a state of great poverty. But if the farmers had a security for their property, the lands of Denmark might have been cultivated to much greater advantage than they are at present, and a much greater number of people supported by the produce of agriculture.

ANIMALS.] Denmark produces an excellent breed of horses, both for the saddle and carriage; about 5000 are sold annually out of the country, and of the horned cattle, 30,000. Besides numbers of black cattle, they have sheep, hogs, and game; and the sea coasts are generally well supplied with fish.

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] By an actual enumeration made in 1759, of his Danish majesty's subjects in his dominions of Denmark, Norway, Holstein, the islands in the Baltic, and the counties of Oldenburgh and Delmenhorst in Westphalia, they were said to amount to 2,444,000 souls, exclusive of the Icelanders and Greenlanders. The most accurate account of the population is that made under the direction of the famous Struensee; by which,

Jutland numbered	358,136	Iceland	46,201
Zealand	283,466	Duchy of Sleswick	243,603
Fuenen	143,988	Duchy of Holstein	134,663
Norway	723,141	Oldenburgh	62,854
Islands of Fesro	47,541	Delmenhorst	16,217

Sum total 2,017,027

Several of the smaller islands included in the district of Fionia, which may contain a few thousands, are omitted in this computation.

However disproportioned this number may seem to the extent of his Danish majesty's dominions, yet, every thing considered, it is far greater than could have been expected from the uncultivated state of his possessions. But the trade of Denmark has been so shackled by the corruption and arbitrary proceedings of its ministers, and the merchants are so terrified by the despotism of the government, that this kingdom, which might be rendered rich and flourishing, is at present one of the most in

igent and distressed states in Europe; and these circumstances prevent Denmark from being so populous, as it otherwise would be, were the administration of government more mild and equitable, and proper encouragement given to foreigners, and to those who engage in agricultural and other arts.

The ancient inhabitants of Denmark possessed a degree of courage which approached even to ferocity; but, by a continual series of tyranny and oppression, their national character is much changed, and from a brave, enterprising, and warlike people, they are become indolent, timid, and dull of apprehension. They value themselves extremely upon those titles and privileges which they derive from the crown, and are exceedingly fond of pomp and show. They endeavour to imitate the French in their manners, dress, and even in their gallantry; though they are naturally the very contrast of that nation. The Danes, like other northern nations, are given to intemperance in drinking, and convivial entertainments; but their nobility, who begin now to visit the other courts of Europe, are refining from their provincial habits and vices.

RELIGION.] The religion of Denmark is Lutheran, and the kingdom is divided into six dioceses: one in Zealand, one in Funen, and four in Jutland; besides four in Norway, and two in Iceland. These dioceses are governed by bishops, whose profession is entirely to superintend the other clergy; nor have they any other mark of pre-eminency than a distinction in their ecclesiastical dress; for they have neither cathedrals nor ecclesiastical courts, nor the smallest concern with civil affairs: their morals, however, are so good, that they are revered by the people. They are paid by the state, as all the church-lands were wisely appropriated to the government at the reformation.

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

The university of Copenhagen has funds for the gratuitous support of 328 students; these funds are said to amount to 300,000 rix-dollars; but the Danes in general make no great figure in literature; though astronomy and medicine are highly indebted to their Tycho Brahe, Borrichius, and the Bartholines: and the Round Tower and Christian's Haven display the mechanical genius of a Longomontanus. They begin now likewise to make some promising attempts in history, poetry, and the drama. It appears, however, that, in general, literature receives very little countenance or encouragement in Denmark; which may be considered as the principal cause of its being so little cultivated by the Danes.

CITIES AND CHIEF BUILDINGS.] Copenhagen, which is situated on the fine island of Zealand, was originally a settlement of sailors, and first founded by some wandering fishermen in the twelfth century, but is now the metropolis, and makes a magnificent appearance at a distance. It is very strong, and defended by four royal castles or forts. It contains ten parish churches, besides nine others belonging to the Calvinists and other persuasions, and some hospitals. Copenhagen is adorned by some public and private palaces, as they are called. Its streets are 186 in number; and its inhabitants amount to 100,000. The houses in the principal streets are built of brick, and those in the lanes chiefly of timber. Its

university has been already mentioned. But the chief glory of Copenhagen is its harbour, formed by a large canal flowing through the city, which admits only one ship to enter at a time, but is capable of containing 500. Several of the streets have canals, and quays for ships to lie close to the houses; and its naval arsenal is said to exceed that of Venice. The road for shipping begins about two miles from the town, and is defended by 90 pieces of cannon, as well as the difficulty of the navigation. Yet, notwithstanding all these advantages, there is little appearance of industry or trade in this city; and Copenhagen, though one of the finest ports in the world, cannot boast of its commerce. The public places are filled with officers either in the land or sea service; and the number of forces kept up is much too large for this little kingdom. The police of Copenhagen is extremely regular, and people may walk through the whole city at midnight with great safety. Indeed, it is usually almost as quiet here at eleven o'clock at night as in a country village, and, at that time, there is scarcely a coach heard to rattle through the streets.

The royal palace of Christiansburg, one of the most commodious and most sumptuously furnished in Europe, was built in the reign of Christian VI. and is said to have cost, in building only, considerably above a million sterling; but this palace was reduced to a heap of ashes by a dreadful fire which happened on the 26th of February, 1794. The royal library, which stood detached from the principal pile, and contained between two and three hundred thousand volumes, was, however, fortunately preserved. The finest palace belonging to his Danish majesty lies about twenty English miles from Copenhagen, and is called Fredericshburgh. It is a very large building, inclosed round with a triple ditch, and calculated, like most of the ancient residences of princes, for defence against an enemy. It was built by Christian IV. and, according to the architecture of the times, partakes of the Greek and Gothic styles. In the front of the grand quadrangle, appear Tuscan and Doric pillars; and on the summit of the building are spires and turrets. Some of the rooms are very splendid, though furnished in the antique taste. The knights' hall is of great length. The tapestry represents the wars of Denmark, and the ceiling is a most minute and laboured performance in sculpture. The chimney-piece was once entirely covered with plates of silver, richly ornamented; but the Swedes, who have often landed here, and even besieged the capital, tore them all away, and risted the palace, notwithstanding its triple moat and formidable appearance. About two miles from Elsinore is another small royal palace, flat roofed with twelve windows in front, said to be built on the place formerly occupied by the palace of Hamlet's father. In an adjoining garden is shown the very spot where, according to tradition, that prince was poisoned.

Jagersburgh is a park which contains a royal country seat, called the Hermitage, remarkable for the disposition of its apartments, and the quaintness of its furniture, particularly a machine which conveys the dishes to and from the king's table in the second story. The chief ecclesiastical building in Denmark is the cathedral of Roschild, where the kings and queens of Denmark were formerly buried, and their monuments still remain. Joining to this cathedral, by a covered passage, is a royal palace, built in 1733. Elsinore is well built, contains 5000 inhabitants, and, with respect to commerce, is only exceeded by Copenhagen. It is strongly fortified on the land side, and towards the sea is

defended by a strong fort, containing several batteries of long cannon. Here all vessels pay a toll, and, in passing, lower their top-sails.

COMMERCE.] Denmark is extremely well situated for commerce; her harbours are well calculated for the reception of ships of all burdens, and her mariners are very expert in the navigation of the different parts of the ocean. The dominions of his Danish majesty also supply a great variety of timber and other materials for ship-building; and some of his provinces afford many natural productions for exportation. Among these, beside fir and other timber, are black cattle, horses, butter, stock-fish, tallow, hides, train-oil, tar, pitch, and iron, which being the natural product of the Danish dominions, are consequently ranked under the head of exports. To these we may add furs; but the exportation of oats is forbidden. The imports are, salt, wine, brandy, and silk, from France, Portugal, and Italy. Of late the Danes have had great intercourse with England; and from thence they import broad-cloths, clocks, cabinet, lockwork, and all other manufactures carried on in the great trading towns of England; but nothing shows the commercial spirit of the Danes in a more favourable light than their establishments in the East and West Indies.

In 1613, Christian IV. of Denmark, established an East India company at Copenhagen: and soon after four ships sailed from thence to the East Indies. The hint of this trade was given to his Danish majesty by James I. of England, who married a princess of Denmark; and, in 1617, they built and fortified a castle and town at Tranquebar, on the coast of Coromandel. The security which many of the Indians found under the cannon of this fort invited numbers of them to settle here; so that the Danish East India company were soon rich enough to pay their king a yearly tribute of 10,000 rix-dollars. The company, however, willing to become rich all of a sudden, in 1650 endeavoured to possess themselves of the spice-trade at Ceylon, but were defeated by the Portuguese. The truth is, they soon embroiled themselves with the native Indians on all hands; and had it not been for the generous assistance given them by Mr. Pitt, an English East India governor, the settlement at Tranquebar must have been taken by the Rajah of Tanjour. Upon the close of the wars in Europe, after the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, the Danish East India company found themselves so much in debt, that they published proposals for a new subscription for enlarging their ancient capital stock, and for fitting out ships to Tranquebar, Bengal, and China. Two years after, his Danish majesty granted a new charter to his East India company, with vast privileges; and for some time its commerce was carried on with great vigour. The Danes likewise possess the islands of St. Thomas and St. Croix, and the small island of St. John, in the West Indies, which are free ports, and notorious for smuggling; also the fort of Christianburg on the coast of Guinea. They also carry on a considerable commerce with the Mediterranean.

CURIOUSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Denmark Proper affords fewer of these than the other parts of his Danish majesty's dominions, if we except the contents of the Royal Museum at Copenhagen, which consists of a numerous collection of both. It contains several good paintings, and a fine collection of coins, particularly those of the consuls in the time of the Roman republic, and of the emperors after the seat of empire was divided into the East and West. Besides artificial skeletons, ivory carvings, models, clock-work, and a beautiful cabinet

of ivory and Ebony, made by a Danish artist who was blind, here are to be seen two famous antique drinking vessels; the one of gold, the other of silver, and both of the form of a hunting horn; that of gold seems to be of pagan manufacture; and from the raised hieroglyphical figures on its outside, it probably was made use of in religious ceremonies; it is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 102 ounces, contains two English pints and a half, and was found in the diocese of Ripen, in the year 1639. The other, of silver, weighs about four pounds, and is termed *Cornu Oldenburgicum*; they say it was presented to Otho 1. duke of Oldenburg, by a ghost. Some, however, are of opinion that this vessel was made by order of Christian I. king of Denmark, the first of the Oldenburg race, who reigned in 1448. Several vessels of different metals, and the same form, have been found in the North of England, and are probably of Danish original. This museum is likewise furnished with a prodigious number of astronomical, optical, and mathematical instruments, some Indian curiosities, and a set of medals, ancient and modern. Many curious astronomical instruments are likewise placed in the round tower at Copenhagen, which is so contrived that a coach may drive to its top. The village of Anglen, lying between Flensburgh and Sleswick, is also esteemed a curiosity, as giving its name to the Angles, or Anglo-Saxon inhabitants of Great-Britain, the ancestors of the greater part of the modern English.

Perhaps, however, the greatest rarities in his Danish majesty's dominions are those ancient inscriptions upon rocks, that are mentioned by antiquaries and historians, and are generally thought to exhibit the old and original manner of writing, before the use of paper of any kind, or waxen tablets, were known. These characters are Runic, and so imperfectly understood by the learned themselves, that their meaning is very uncertain; but they are imagined to be historical. Stephanus, in his notes upon Saxo Grammaticus, has given specimens of several of these inscriptions.

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

ing in an imprudent manner to stem the torrent of their oppression, lost his crown and his liberty; but Christian the Third, by uniting himself with the nobles and the senate, destroyed the power of the clergy, though the oppression of the common people by the nobility still remained. At length, in the reign of Frederic the Third, the people, instead of exerting themselves to remedy the defects of the constitution, and to maintain their common liberties, were so infatuated as to make the king despotic, in hopes to render themselves less subject to the tyranny of the nobility. A series of unsuccessful wars had brought the nation in general into so wretched a condition, that the public had not money for paying off the army. The dispute came to a short question, which was, that the nobles should submit to taxes, from which they pleaded an exemption. The inferior people upon this threw their eyes towards the king, for relief and protection from the oppressions of the intermediate order of nobility; and in this they were encouraged by the clergy. In a meeting of the states, it was proposed that the nobles should bear their share in the common burden. Upon this, Otto Craeg reminded the people that the commons were no more than *slaves* to the lords.

This was the watch-word which had been concerted between the leaders of the commons, the clergy, and even the court itself. Nanson, the speaker of the commons, exclaimed at the term *slavery*; the assembly broke up in a ferment; and the commons, with the clergy, withdrew to a house of their own, where they resolved to make the king a solemn tender of their liberties and services, and formally to establish in his family the hereditary succession to their crown. This resolution was executed the next day. The bishop of Copenhagen officiated as speaker for the clergy and commons. The king accepted of their tender, promising them relief and protection. The gates of Copenhagen were shut; and the nobility, thus surpris'd, were compelled reluctantly to submit.

On the 10th of January, 1661, the three orders of nobility, clergy, and people, signed each a separate act, by which they consented that the crown should be hereditary in the royal family, as well in the female as in the male line, and invested the king with absolute power, giving him the right to regulate the succession, and the regency, in case of a minority. This renunciation of their right, subscribed by the first nobility, is still preserved as a precious relic among the archives of the royal family.

After this extraordinary revolution in the government, the king of Denmark divested the nobility of many of the privileges which they had before enjoyed; but he took no method to relieve those poor people who had been the instruments of investing him with the sovereign power, but left them in the same state of slavery in which they were before, and in which they have remained to the present age. The king united in his person all the rights of sovereign power; but as he could not exercise all by himself, he was obliged to intrust some part of the executive power to his subjects. The supreme court of judicature for the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway is holden in the royal palace of Copenhagen, of which the king is the nominal president. What they call the German provinces, have likewise their supreme tribunal; which, for the duchy of Holstein, is holden at Gluckstadt; and for the duchy of Sleswick, in the town of that name.

In affairs of importance, the king for the most part decides in his council, the members of which are named and displaced at his will. In this council the laws are proposed, discussed, and receive the sanction of the royal authority, and all great changes or establishments are proposed,

and approved or rejected by the king. Here likewise, or in the cabinet, he grants privileges, and decides upon the explication of laws, their extension, or restriction, and upon all the most important affairs of state.

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

There are many excellent regulations for the administration of justice in Denmark; but, notwithstanding this, it is so far from being distributed in an equal and impartial manner, that a poor man can scarcely ever have justice in this country against one of the nobility, or against one who is favoured by the court. If the laws are so clearly in favour of the former, that the judges are ashamed to decide against them, the latter, through the favour of the minister, obtains an order from the king to stop all the law proceedings, or a dispensation from observing particular laws; and there the matter ends. The code of laws at present established in Denmark was published by Christian V. founded upon the code of Valdemar, and all the other codes which have since been published, and is nearly the same with that published in Norway. These laws are very just and clear; and, if they were impartially carried into execution, would be productive of many beneficial consequences to the people. But as the king can alter and dispense with the laws as he pleases, and support his ministers and favourites in any acts of violence and injustice, the people of Denmark are subject to great tyranny and oppression, and have abundant reason to regret the tameness and servility with which their liberties were, in 1660, surrendered into the hands of their monarchs.

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

PUNISHMENTS.] The common methods of execution in Denmark are beheading and hanging; in some cases, as an aggravation of the punishment, the hand is chopped off before the other part of the sentence is executed. For the most atrocious crimes, such as the murder of a father or mother, husband or wife, and robbery upon the high way, the malefactor is broken upon the wheel. But capital punishments are not common in Denmark; and the other principal modes of punishment are branding in the face, whipping, condemnation to the rasp-

house, to houses of correction, and to public labour and imprisonment; all which are varied in duration and rigour, according to the nature of the crime.

POLITICAL AND NATURAL HISTORY OF DENMARK. } After the accession of his present majesty, his court seemed for some time to have altered its maxims. His father, it is true, observed a most respectable neutrality during the late war, but never could get rid of French influence, notwithstanding his connections with Great-Britain. The subsidies he received maintained his army; but his family disputes with Russia concerning Holstein, and the ascendancy which the French had obtained over the Swedes (not to mention many other matters, did not suffer him to act that decisive part in the affairs of Europe, which he was invited by his situation, especially about the time when the treaty of Closter-Seven was concluded. His present Danish majesty's plan seemed, soon after his accession, to be that of forming his dominions into a state of independency, by availing himself of his natural advantages. But sundry events which have since happened, and the general feebleness of his administration, have prevented any farther expectations being formed, that the real welfare of Denmark will be promoted, at least in any great degree, during the present reign.

With regard to the external interests of Denmark, they are certainly best secured by cultivating a friendship with the maritime powers. The exports of Denmark enabled her to carry on a very profitable trade with France, Spain, and the Mediterranean; and she has been particularly courted by the Mahometan states, on account of her naval stores.

The present imperial family of Russia has many claims upon Denmark, on account of Holstein; but there is at present small appearance of her being engaged in a war on that account. Were the Swedes to regain their military character, and to be commanded by so enterprising a prince as Charles XII. they probably would endeavour to repossess themselves, by arms, of the fine provinces torn from them by Denmark. But the greatest danger that can arise to Denmark from a foreign power, is when the Baltic sea (as has happened more than once) is so frozen over as to bear not only men but heavy artillery; in which case the Swedes have been known to march over great armies, and to threaten the conquest of the kingdom.

REVENUES.] His Danish majesty's revenues have three sources: the impositions he lays upon his own subjects; the duties paid by foreigners; and his own demefne lands, including confiscations. Wine, salt, tobacco, and provisions of all kinds, are taxed. Marriages, paper, corporations, land, houses, and poll-money, also raise a considerable sum. The expenses of fortifications are borne by the people: and when the king's daughter is married, they pay about 100,000 rix-dollars towards her portion. The internal taxes of Denmark are very uncertain, because they may be abated or raised at the king's will. Customs and tolls, upon exports and imports, are more certain. The tolls paid by strangers arise chiefly from foreign ships that pass through the Sound into the Baltic, through the narrow strait of half a mile between Schonen and the island of Zealand. These tolls are in proportion to the size of the ship, and value of the cargo exhibited in the bills of lading. This tax, which forms a capital part of his Danish majesty's revenue, has more than once thrown the northern parts of Europe into a flame. It was often disputed by the English and Dutch, being nothing more originally than a voluntary contribution of the merchants towards the expenses of the light-houses on the coast; and the Swedes, who command

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the opposite side of the pass, for some time refused to pay it; but in the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, under the guarantee of his Britannic majesty George I. the Swedes agreed to pay the same rates as are paid by the subjects of Great-Britain and the Netherlands. The first treaty relative to it, was by the emperor Charles V. on behalf of his subjects in the Low Countries. The toll is paid at Elfsineur, a town situated on the Sound, at the entrance of the Baltic Sea, and about 18 miles distant from Copenhagen. The whole revenue of Denmark, including what is received at Elfsineur, amounts at present to above 5,000,000 of rix-dollars, or 1,002,000*l.* sterling yearly.

The following is a list of the king's revenues, exclusive of his private estates:

	Rix-dollars at 4 <i>s.</i> each.
Tribute of hard corn, or land-tax	1,000,000
Small taxes, including poll-tax, pound rents, excise, marriages, &c.	950,000
Custom-house duties	154,000
Duties of the Sound	200,000
Duties of Jutland, from salt-pits	27,000
Tithes and poll-tax of Norway	770,000
Tolls of Bergen, Drontheim, Christianland, and Christiana	160,000
Other tolls	552,000
Revenue from mines	300,000
Revenue from Sleswick, Holstein, Oldenburgh, and Delmenhorst	690,000
Taxes on acorns and mast from beech	20,000
Tolls on the Weser	7,500
Post-office	70,000
Farms of Iceland and Ferro	35,000
Farms of Bornholm	14,800
Oyster Fishery	22,000
Stamp-paper	40,000
Sum total,	1,012,300

In English money, *£*. 1,002,460

By a list of the revenue taken in 1730, it then only amounted to English money *£*. 454,700.

ARMY AND NAVY.] The three last kings of Denmark, notwithstanding the degeneracy of the people in martial affairs, were very respectable princes, by the number and discipline of their troops, which they kept up with a vast care. The present military force of Denmark consists of 70,000 men, cavalry and infantry, the greatest part of which is a militia who receive no pay, but are registered on the army-list, and every Sunday exercised. The regular troops are about 20,000, and mostly foreigners, or officered by foreigners; for Frederic III. was too refined a politician to trust his security in the hands of those he had tricked out of their liberty. Though this army is extremely burdensome to the nation, yet it costs little to the crown; great part of the infantry lie in Norway, where they live upon the boors at free quarter, and in Denmark the peasantry are obliged to maintain the cavalry in victuals and lodging, and even to furnish them with money. The present fleet of Denmark is composed of 36 ships of the line, and 18 frigates;

bat many of the ships being old, and wanting great repairs, it is supposed they cannot fit out more than 25 ships on the greatest emergency. This fleet is generally stationed at Copenhagen, where are the dock-yards, store-houses, and all the materials necessary for the use of the marine. They have 26,000 registered seamen, who cannot quit the kingdom without leave, nor serve on board a merchantman without permission from the admiralty; 4000 of these are kept in constant pay, and employed in the dock-yards; their pay, however, scarcely amounts to nine shillings per month; but then they have a sort of uniform, with some provisions and lodging allowed for themselves and families.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD IN DENMARK.] These are two; that of the *Elephant*, and that of *Daneburg*. The former was instituted by Christian I. in the year 1478, and is deemed the most honourable; its badge is an elephant surmounted with a castle, set in diamonds, and suspended to a sky-blue watered ribbon; worn like the George in England over the right shoulder; the number of its members, besides the sovereign, are thirty, and the knights of it are addressed by the title of excellency. The badges of the Daneburg order, which is said to have been instituted in the year 1219, and, after being long obsolete, revived in 1671, by Christian V. consist of a white ribbon with red edges, worn scarf-wise over the right shoulder; from which depends a small cross of diamonds, and an embroidered star on the breast of the coat, surrounded with the motto, *Pietate et justitia*. The badge is a cross pattée enamelled white, on the centre the letter C and S crowned with a regal crown; and this motto, *Restitutor*. The number of knights is not limited; and they are very numerous.

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

Even the name of the first Christian Danish king is uncertain; and those of the people of these countries are so blended together, that it is impossible for the reader to conceive a precise idea of the old Scandinavian history. This undoubtedly was owing to the remains of their Scythian customs, particularly that of removing from one country to another; and of several nations or sects joining together in expeditions by sea or land, and the adventurers being denominated after their chief leaders. Thus the terms Danes, Saxons, Jutes, or Goths, Germans, and

* By Scythia may be understood all those northern countries of Europe and Asia (now inhabited by the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, Russians, and Tartars; see the Introduction), whose inhabitants overturned and peopled the Roman empire, and continued, in late as the 13th century, to issue forth in large bodies, and naval expeditions, ravaging the more southern and fertile kingdoms of Europe. Hence, by sir William Temple and other historians, they are termed the *Northern Hive, the Mother of Nations, the Storehouse of Europe*.

Normans, were promiscuously used long after the time of Charlemagne. Even the short revival of literature under that prince throws very little light upon the Danish history. All we know is, that the inhabitants of Scandinavia, in their maritime expeditions, went generally under the name of Saxons with foreigners; that they were bold adventurers, rude, fierce, and martial; that, so far back as the year of Christ 500, they insulted all the sea-coasts of Europe; that they settled in Ireland, where they built stone houses; and that they became masters of England, and some part of Scotland; both which kingdoms still retain proofs of their barbarity. When we read the history of Denmark and that of England, under the Danish princes who reigned over both countries, we meet with but a faint resemblance of events; but the Danes, as conquerors, always give themselves the superiority over the English.

In the eleventh century, under Canute the Great, Denmark may be said to have been in its zenith of glory, as far as extent of dominion can give sanction to the expression. Few very interesting events in Denmark preceded the year 1387, when Margaret mounted the throne; and, partly by her address, and partly by hereditary right, formed the union of Calmar, anno 1397, by which she was acknowledged sovereign of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. She held her dignity with such firmness and courage, that she was justly styled the Semiramis of the North. Her successors being destitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar, by which the three kingdoms were in future to be under one sovereign, lost its effect; but Norway still continued annexed to Denmark. In the year 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Christian, count of Oldenburgh, from whom the present royal family of Denmark is descended.

In 1513, Christian II. one of the greatest tyrants that modern times have produced, mounted the throne of Denmark; and having married the sister of the emperor Charles V. gave a full loose to his innate cruelty. Being driven out of Sweden for the bloody massacres he committed there, the Danes rebelled against him likewise; and he fled, with his wife and children, into the Netherlands. Frederic, duke of Holstein, was unanimously called to the throne, on the deposition of his cruel nephew. He embraced the opinions of Luther; and about the year 1536, the protestant religion was established in Denmark by that wise and politic prince, Christian III.

Christian IV. of Denmark, in 1629, was chosen for the head of the protestant league formed against the house of Austria; but, though brave in his own person, he was in danger of losing his dominions; when he was succeeded in that command by Gustavus Adolphus king of Sweden. The Dutch having obliged Christian, who died in 1648, to lower the duties of the Sound, his son Frederic III. consented to accept of an annuity of 150,000 florins for the whole. The Dutch, after this, persuaded him to declare war against Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden; which had almost cost him his crown in 1657. Charles stormed the fortress of Fredericstadt; and in the succeeding winter he marched his army over the ice to the island of Funen, where he surprised the Danish troops, took Odensee and Nyburgh, and marched over the Great Belt to besiege Copenhagen itself. Cromwell, who then governed England under the title of Protector, interposed; and Frederic defended his capital with great magnanimity till the peace of Roschild, by which Frederic ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Schonen, the island of Bornholm, and Bahus and Drontheim in Norway, to the Swedes. Frederic sought to elude these severe terms: but Charles took Cronenburgh, and once more besieged Copenhagen by sea and land.

The steady intrepid conduct of Frederic under these misfortunes endeared him to his subjects; and the citizens of Copenhagen made an admirable defence till a Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and beat the Swedish fleet. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederic, who showed on every occasion great abilities, both civil and military; and, having forced Charles to raise the siege of Copenhagen, might have carried the war into Sweden, had not the English fleet under Montague appeared in the Baltic. This enabled Charles to besiege Copenhagen a third time; but France and England offering their mediation, a peace was concluded in that capital, by which the island of Bornholm was restored to the Danes; but the island of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, remained with the Swedes.

Though this peace did not restore to Denmark all she had lost, yet the magnanimous behaviour of Frederic under the most imminent dangers, and his attention to the safety of his subjects, even preferably to his own; greatly endeared him in their eyes; and he at length became absolute, in the manner already related. Frederic was succeeded, in 1670, by his son Christian V. who obliged the duke of Holstein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roschild. He then recovered a number of places in Schonen: but his army was defeated in the bloody battle of Lunden, by Charles XI. of Sweden. This defeat did not put an end to the war, which Christian obstinately continued, till he was defeated entirely at the battle of Landskron: and having almost exhausted his dominions in military operations, and being in a manner abandoned by all his allies, he was forced to sign a treaty, on the terms prescribed by France, in 1679. Christian afterwards became the ally and subsidiary of Lewis XIV. who was then threatening Europe with chains, and, after a vast variety of treating and fighting with the Holsteiners, Hamburgers, and other northern powers, died in 1690. He was succeeded by Frederic IV. who, like his predecessors, maintained his pretensions upon Holstein, and probably must have become master of that duchy, had not the English and Dutch fleets raised the siege of Tonningen, while the young king of Sweden, Charles XII. who was then no more than sixteen years of age, landed within eight miles of Copenhagen, to assist his brother-in-law the duke of Holstein. Charles probably would have made himself master of Copenhagen, had not his Danish majesty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was entirely in the duke's favour. By another treaty concluded with the States General, Charles obliged himself to furnish a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates, and afterwards took a very active part against the French in the wars of queen Anne.

Notwithstanding this peace, Frederic was perpetually engaged in wars with the Swedes; and while Charles XII. was an exile at Bender, he made a descent upon Swedish Pomerania, and another, in the year 1712, upon Bremen, and took the city of Stade. His troops, however, were totally defeated by the Swedes at Gadesbuck, and his favourite city of Altona was laid in ashes. Frederic revenged himself by seizing great part of Ducal Holstein, and forcing the Swedish general, count Steinbock, to surrender himself prisoner, with all his troops. In the year 1716, the successes of Frederic were so great, by taking Tonningen and Stralsund, by driving the Swedes out of Norway, and reducing Wismar in Pomerania, that his allies began to suspect he was aiming at the sovereignty of all Scandinavia. Upon the return of Charles of Sweden from his exile, he renewed the war against Denmark with the most implacable violence; but, on the death of that prince, who was

killed at the siege of Fredericshal, Frederic durst not refuse the offer of his Britannic majesty's mediation between him and the crown of Sweden: in consequence of which, a peace was concluded at Stockholm, which left him in possession of the duchy of Sleswick. Frederic died in the year 1730, after having, two years before, seen his capital reduced to ashes by an accidental fire. His son and successor, Christian Frederic, or Christian VI. made the best use of his power, and the advantages with which he mounted the throne, by cultivating peace with all his neighbours, and promoting the happiness of his subjects, whom he eased of many oppressive taxes.

In 1734, after guarantying the Pragmatic Sanction *, Christian sent 6000 men to the assistance of the emperor, during the dispute of the succession to the crown of Poland. Though he was pacific, yet he was jealous of his rights, especially over Hamburg. He obliged the Hamburgers to call in the mediation of Prussia, to abolish their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of silver marks. In 1738, he had a dispute with his Britannic majesty about the little lordship of Steinhort, which had been mortgaged to the latter by a duke of Holstein Lawenburgh, and which Christian said belonged to him. Some blood was spilt during the contest, in which Christian, it is thought, never was in earnest. It brought on, however, a treaty, in which he availed himself of his Britannic majesty's predilection for his German dominions; for the latter agreed to pay Christian a subsidy of 70,000l. sterling a year, on condition of keeping in readiness 7000 troops for the protection of Hanover. This was a gainful bargain for Denmark. Two years after, he seized some Dutch ships, for trading without his leave to Iceland; but the difference was made up by the mediation of Sweden. Christian had so great a party in that kingdom, that it was generally thought he would revive the union of Calmar, by procuring his son to be declared successor to the crown of Sweden. Some steps for that purpose were certainly taken; but whatever Christian's views might have been, the design was frustrated by the jealousy of other powers, who could not bear the thoughts of seeing all Scandinavia subject to one family. Christian died in 1746, with the character of being the father of his people.

His son and successor, Frederic V. had, in 1743, married the princess Louisa, daughter to his Britannic majesty George II. He improved upon his father's plan for the happiness of his people, and took no concern, except that of a mediator, in the German war. It was by his intervention that the treaty of Closter-Seven was concluded between his royal highness the late duke of Cumberland and the French general Richelieu. Upon the death of his first queen, who was mother to his present Danish majesty, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttele; and died in 1766.

His son, Christian VII. was born the 29th of January, 1749; and married his present Britannic majesty's youngest sister, the princess Carolina-Matilda. This alliance, though it wore at first a very promising appearance, had a very unfortunate termination. This is partly attributed to the intrigues of the queen-dowager, mother-in-law to the present king, who has a son named Frederic, and whom she is represented as desirous of raising to the throne. When the princess Carolina-Ma-

* An agreement by which the princes of Europe engaged to support the house of Austria in favour of the queen of Hungary, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. who had no male issue.

Matilda came to Copenhagen, she received her with all the appearance of friendship and affection, acquainting her with all the king's faults, and at the same time telling her that she would take every opportunity, as a mother, to assist her in reclaiming him. By this conduct she became the depositary of all the young queen's secrets, whilst at the same time it is said she placed people about the king, to keep him constantly engaged in all kinds of riot and debauchery, to which she knew he was naturally too much inclined; and at length it was so ordered, that a mistress was thrown in the king's way, whom he was persuaded to keep in his palace. When the king was upon his travels, the queen-dowager used frequently to visit the young queen Matilda, and, under the mask of friendship and affection, told her often of the debaucheries and excesses which the king had fallen into in Holland, England, and France, and often persuaded her not to live with him. But as soon as the king returned, the queen reproaching him with his conduct, though in a gentle manner, his mother-in-law immediately endeavoured to persuade the king to give no ear to her counsels, as it was presumption in a queen of Denmark to direct the king. Queen Matilda now began to discover the designs of the queen-dowager, and afterwards lived upon very good terms with the king, who for a time was much reclaimed. The young queen also now assumed to herself the part which the queen-dowager had been complimented with in the management of public affairs. This irritated the old queen; and her thoughts were now entirely occupied with schemes of revenge, which she at length found means to gratify in a very ample manner. About the end of the year 1770, it was observed that Brandt and Struensee were particularly regarded by the king; the former as a favourite, and the latter as a minister; and that they paid great court to queen Matilda, and were supported by her. This opened a new scene of intrigue at Copenhagen; all the discarded placemen paid their court to the queen-dowager, and she became the head and patroness of the party. Old count Molke, an artful displaced statesman, and others who were well versed in intrigues of this nature, perceiving that they had inexperienced young persons to contend with, who, though they might mean well, had not sufficient knowledge and capacity to conduct the public affairs, very soon predicted their ruin. Struensee and Brandt wanted to make a reform in the administration of public affairs at once, which should have been the work of time; and thereby made a great number of enemies, among those whose interest it was that things should continue upon the former footing. After this, queen Matilda was delivered of a daughter: but as soon as the queen-dowager saw her, she immediately turned back, and, with a malicious smile, declared that the child had all the features of Struensee: on which her friends published it among the people, that the queen must have had an intrigue with Struensee; which was corroborated by the queen's often speaking with this minister in public. A great variety of evil reports were now propagated against the reigning queen; and another report was also industriously spread, that the governing party had formed a design to supersede the king, as being incapable of governing; that the queen was to be declared regent during the minority of her son; and that Struensee was to be her prime minister. Whatever Struensee did to reform the abuses of the late ministry, was represented to the people as so many attacks upon, and attempts to destroy, the government of the kingdom. By such means the people began to be greatly incensed against this minister: and as he also attempted to make a reform in the military, he gave great offence to the troops, at the head of which were some of the crea-

tures of the queen-dowager, who took every opportunity to make their inferior officers believe that it was the design of Struensee to change the whole system of government. It must be admitted that this minister seems in many respects to have acted very imprudently, and to have been too much under the guidance of his passions; his principles also appear to have been of the libertine kind.

Many councils were held between the queen-dowager and her friends, upon the measures proper to be taken for effectuating their designs: and it was at length resolved to surprize the king in the middle of the night, and force him immediately to sign an order, which was to be prepared in readiness, for committing the persons before mentioned to separate prisons, to accuse them of high treason in general, and in particular of a design to poison or dethrone the king: and if that could not be properly supported, by torture or otherwise, to procure witnesses to confirm the report of a criminal commerce between the queen and Struensee. This was an undertaking of so hazardous a nature, that the wary count Molke, and most of the queen-dowager's friends, who had any thing to lose, drew back, endeavouring to animate others, but excusing themselves from taking any open and active part in this affair. However, the queen-dowager at last procured a sufficient number of active instruments for the execution of her designs. On the 16th of January, 1772, a masked ball was given at the court of Denmark. The king had danced at this ball, and afterwards played at quadrille with general Gabler, his lady, and counsellor Struensee, brother to the count. The queen, after dancing as usual one country-dance with the king, gave her hand to count Struensee during the remainder of the evening. She retired about two in the morning, and was followed by him and count Brandt. About four the same morning, prince Frederic, who had also been at the ball, went with the queen-dowager to the king's bed-chamber, accompanied by general Eichstedt, and count Rantzau. They ordered his majesty's valet-de-chambre to awake him, and, in the midst of the surprize and alarm that this unexpected intrusion excited, informed him that queen Matilda and the two Struensees were at that instant busy in drawing up an act of renunciation of the crown, which they would immediately after compel him to sign; and that the only means he could use to prevent so imminent a danger, was to sign those orders without loss of time, which they had brought with them, for arresting the queen and her accomplices. It is said that the king was not easily prevailed upon to sign these orders; but at length complied, though with reluctance and hesitation: Count Rantzau, and three officers, were dispatched at that untimely hour to the queen's apartments, and immediately arrested her. She was put into one of the king's coaches, in which she was conveyed to the castle of Cronenburgh, together with the infant princess, attended by lady Moltyn, and escorted by a party of dragoons. In the mean time, Struensee and Brandt were also seized in their beds, and imprisoned in the citadel: Struensee's brother, some of his adherents, and most of the members of the late administration, were seized the same night, to the number of about eighteen, and thrown into confinement. The government after this seemed to be entirely lodged in the hands of the queen-dowager and her son, supported and assisted by those who had the principal share in the revolution; while the king appeared to be little more than a pageant, whose person and name it was necessary occasionally to make use of. All the officers concerned in the revolution were immediately promoted, and an almost total change took place in all the departments of administration. A new council was appointed, in which

prince Frederic presided, and a commission of eight members, to examine the papers of the prisoners, and to commence a process against them. The son of queen Matilda, the prince royal, who was entered into the fifth year of his age, was put under the care of a lady of quality, who was appointed governess, under the superintendency of the queen-dowager. Struensee and Brandt were put in irons, and very rigorously treated in prison; they both underwent long and frequent examinations, and at length received sentence of death. They were beheaded on the 28th of April, having their right hands previously cut off: but many of their friends and adherents were afterwards set at liberty. Struensee at first absolutely denied having any criminal intercourse with the queen; but this he afterwards confessed: and though he is said by some to have been induced to do this only by the fear of torture, the proofs of his guilt in this respect were extremely notorious, and his confessions full and explicit. In May, his Britannic majesty sent a small Squadron of ships to convey that princess to Germany, and appointed the city of Zell, in his electoral dominions, for the place of her future residence. She died there of a malignant fever, on the 10th of May, 1775; aged 23 years and 10 months.

In 1780, his Danish majesty acceded to the armed neutrality proposed by the empress of Russia. He appears at present to have such a debility of understanding, as to disqualify him for the proper management of public affairs. On the 16th of April, 1784, another court revolution took place. The queen-dowager's friends were removed, a new council formed under the auspices of the prince-royal, some of the former old members restored to the cabinet, and no regard is to be paid for the future to any instrument, unless signed by the king, and countersigned by the prince-royal.

The conduct of this prince is stamped with that consistency of behaviour, which enables him to pursue, with unremitting zeal, the prudent and benevolent measures which he has planned for the benefit of his grateful country. The restoration of the peasantry to their long-lost liberty, and the abolition of many grievances under which they laboured, have already been mentioned. To these may be added the exertions he makes for the general diffusion of knowledge; the patronage he affords to societies of learning, arts, and science; the excellent measures he has adopted for the suppression of beggars, with whom the country was over-run, and the encouragement of industry, by the most extensive inquiries into the state of the poor throughout the kingdom; the wise regulations he has introduced into the corn trade, equally beneficial to the landed interest and to the poor; and the judicious laws, which under his influence have been made to encourage foreigners to settle in Iceland. The prince of Hesse Cassel, his consort, is said to possess the most amiable dispositions and goodness of heart.

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

A scheme for defraying the national debt has been suggested and followed. One million has already been discharged.

Denmark, to its honour, formally refused to join in the alliance of potentates against France.

Christian VII. reigning king of Denmark and Norway, LL. D. and F. R. S. was born in 1749; in 1756 he was married to the princess Carolina-Matilda of England; and has issue, 1. Frederic, prince-royal of Denmark, born January 28, 1768, and married in 1790, to the princess Mary-Anne-Frederica, of Hesse. 2. Louisa-Augusta, princess-royal, born July 7, 1771, and married May 27, 1786, to Frederic, prince of Schleswick-Holstein, by whom she has issue.

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

HIS DANISH MAJESTY'S GERMAN DOMINIONS.

HOLSTEIN, a duchy of Lower Saxony, about 100 miles long and 50 broad, and a fruitful country, was formerly divided between the empress of Russia (termed Ducal Holstein), the king of Denmark, and the imperial cities of Hamburg and Lubec; but on the 16th of November, 1773, Ducal Holstein, with all the rights, prerogatives, and territorial sovereignty, was formally transferred to the king of Denmark, by virtue of a treaty between both courts. The duke of Holstein-Gottorp is joint sovereign of great part of it, with the Danish monarch. Kiel is the capital of Ducal Holstein, and is well built, has a harbour, and neat public edifices. The capital of Danish Holstein is Gluckstadt, a well-built town and fortress, but in a marshy situation, on the right of the Elbe, and has some foreign commerce.

Altena, a large, populous, and handsome town, of great traffic, is commodiously situated on the Elbe, in the neighbourhood of Hamburg. It was built in that situation, that it might share in the commerce of the former. Being declared a free port, and the staple of the Danish East-India company, the merchants also enjoying liberty of conscience, great numbers flocked to Altena from all parts of the North, and even from Hamburg itself.

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

Lubec, an imperial city, with a good harbour, once the capital of the Hanse towns, and still a rich and populous place, is also in this duchy.

It is governed by its own magistrates. It has 20 parish-churches, besides a large cathedral. Lutheranism is the established religion of the whole duchy.

In WESTPHALIA, the king of Denmark has the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst, containing about two thousand square miles; they lie on the south side of the Weser; their capitals have the same name; the first has the remains of a fortification, and the last is an open place. Oldenburg gave a title to the first royal ancestor of his present Danish majesty. The country abounds with marshes and heaths; its horses are the best in Germany.

L A P L A N D.

THE northern situation of Lapland, and the division of its property, require, before I proceed farther, that it should be treated of under a distinct head, and in the same method observed with respect to other countries.

SITUATION, EXTENT, DIVISION, } AND NAME. } The whole country of Lapland extends, so far as it is known, from the North Cape in $71^{\circ} 30'$ N. lat. to the White Sea, under the arctic circle. Part of Lapland belongs to the Danes, and is included in the government of Wardhuys; part to the Swedes, which is by far the most valuable; and some parts in the east, to the Russians. The dimensions of each of these parts are by no means accurately ascertained. An estimate of that belonging to the Swedes may be seen in the table of dimensions given in the account of Sweden: but other accounts say that it is about 100 German miles in length, and 90 in breadth; it comprehends all the country from the Baltic to the mountains that separate Norway from Sweden. The Russian part lies towards the east, between the lake Enarak and the White Sea. Those parts, notwithstanding the rudeness of the country, are divided into smaller districts, generally taking their names from rivers; but, unless in the Swedish part, which is subject to a prefect, the Laplanders can be said to be under no regular government. The Swedish Lapland, therefore, is the object chiefly considered by authors in describing this country. It has been generally thought that the Laplanders are the descendants of Finlanders driven out of their own country, and that they take their name from *Lappes*, which signifies exiles. The reader, from what has been said in the Introduction, may easily conceive, that in Lapland, for some months in the summer, the sun never sets; and during winter, it never rises; but the inhabitants are so well assisted by the twilight and the aurora borealis, that they never discontinue their work through darkness.

CLIMATE.} In winter it is no unusual thing for their lips to be frozen to the cup in attempting to drink; and in some thermometers, spirits of wine are congealed into ice: the limbs of the inhabitants very often mortify with cold: drifts of snow threaten to bury the traveller, and cover the ground four or five feet deep. A thaw sometimes takes place; and then the frost that succeeds presents the Laplander with a smooth level of ice, over which he travels with a rein-deer in a sledge with inconceivable swiftness. The heats of summer are excessive for a short time; and the cataracts which dash from the mountains, often present to the eye the most picturesque appearances.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, LAKES, } AND FORESTS. } Lapland is a vast mass of mountains, irregularly crowded together; they are, however, in some interstices, separated by rivers and lakes,

which contain an incredible number of islands, some of which form delightful habitations, and are believed by the natives to have been the terrestrial Paradise: even roses and other flowers grow wild on their borders in the summer; though this is but a short gleam of temperature, for the climate in general is excessively severe. Dusky forests, and noisome, unhealthy morasses, and barren plains, cover great part of the flat country, so that nothing can be more uncomfortable than the state of the inhabitants.

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

**QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, } We must refer to our accounts
AND INSECTS. } of Denmark and Norway for great**

part of this article, as the animals are common to all the three countries. The *xibelin*, a creature resembling the marten, is a native of Lapland; and its skin, whether black or white, is highly esteemed. The Lapland hares grow white in the winter; and the country produces a large black cat, which attends the natives in hunting. By far the most remarkable, however, of the Lapland animals, is the *rein-deer*, which nature seems to have provided to recompense the Laplanders for the privation of the other comforts of life. This animal, the most useful perhaps of any in the creation, resembles the stag, only it somewhat droops the head, and the horns project forward. All who have described this animal have taken notice of the crackling noise that they make when they move their legs, which is attributed to their separating and afterwards bringing together the divisions of the hoof. The under part is entirely covered with hair, in the same manner that the claw of the *Ptarmigan* is with feathery bristles, which is almost the only bird that can endure the rigour of the climate. The hoof however is not only thus protected; the same necessity which obliges the Laplanders to use snow shoes, makes the extraordinary width of the rein's hoof to be equally convenient in passing over snow, as it prevents their sinking too deep, which they continually would, did the weight of their body rest only on a small point. This quadruped hath therefore an instinct to use a hoof of such a form in a still more advantageous manner, by separating it when the foot is to touch the ground so as to cover a larger surface of snow. The instant however the leg of the animal is raised, the hoof is immediately contracted, and the collision of the parts occasions the *clapping* which is heard on every motion of the rein. And probably the crackling which they perpetually make, may serve to keep them together when the weather is remarkably dark. In summer, the rein-deer provide themselves with leaves and grass, and in the winter they live upon moss: they have a wonderful sagacity at finding it out, and when found, they scrape away the snow that covers it with their feet. The scantiness of their fare is inconceivable, as is the length of the journeys which they can perform without any other support. They fix the rein-deer to a kind of sledge, shaped like a small boat, in which the traveller, well secured from cold, is laced down; with the reins, which are fastened to the horns of the animal, in one hand, and a kind of bludgeon in the other, to keep the carriage clear of ice and snow. The deer, whose harnessing is very simple, lets out, and continues the journey with prodigious speed; and is so safe and tractable, that the driver

is at little or no trouble in directing him. At night they look out for their own provender; and their milk often helps to support their master. Their instinct in choosing their road, and directing their course, can only be accounted for by their being well acquainted with the country during the summer months, when they live in the woods. Their flesh is a well-tasted food; whether fresh or dried; their skin forms excellent cloathing both for the bed and the body; their milk and cheese are nutritive and pleasant; and their intestines and tendons supply their masters with thread and cordage. When they run about wild in the fields, they may be shot at as other game. But it is said, that if one is killed in a flock, the survivors will gore and trample him to pieces; therefore single stragglers are generally chosen. With all their excellent qualities, however, the rein-deer have their inconveniences.

It is difficult in summer to keep them from straggling; they are sometimes buried in the snow; and they frequently grow restive, to the great danger of the driver and his carriage. Their surprising speed (for they are said to run at the rate of 200 miles a day) seems to be owing to their impatience to get rid of their incumbrance. None but a Laplander could bear the uneasy posture in which he is placed, when he is confined in one of these carriages or pulkbas; or would believe, that, by whispering the rein-deer in the ear, they know the place of their destination.

PEOPLE, CUSTOMS, AND MANNERS.] The language of the Laplanders is of Finnish origin, and comprehends so many dialects, that it is with difficulty they understand each other. They have neither writing nor letters among them, but a number of hieroglyphics, which they make use of in their Rounes, a sort of sticks that they call Pistave, and which serve them for an almanack. These hieroglyphics are also the marks they use instead of signatures, even in matters of law. Missionaries from the christianised parts of Scandinavia introduced among them the Christian religion; but they cannot be said even yet to be Christians, though they have among them some religious seminaries, instituted by the king of Denmark. Upon the whole, the majority of the Laplanders practise as gross superstitions and idolatries as are to be found among the most uninstructed pagans; and so absurd, that they scarcely deserve to be mentioned, were it not that the number and oddities of their superstitions have induced the northern traders to believe that they are skilful in magic and divination. For this purpose their magicians make use of what they call a drum, made of the hollowed trunk of a fir, pine, or birch tree, one end of which is covered with a skin; on this they draw, with a kind of red colour, the figures of their own gods, as well as of Jesus Christ, the apostles, the sun, moon, stars, birds, and rivers; on these they place one or two brass rings, which, when the drum is beaten with a little hammer, dance over the figures; and, according to their progress, the sorcerer prognosticates. These frantic operations are generally performed for gain; and the northern ship-masters are such dupes to the arts of these impostors, that they often buy from them a magic cord, which contains a number of knots, by opening of which according to the magician's directions, they are told they may obtain what wind they want. This is also a very common traffic on the banks of the Red Sea, and is managed with great address on the part of the sorcerer, who keeps up the price of his knotted talisman. The Laplanders still retain the worship of several of the Teutonic gods, and have among them many remains of the Druidical

Institutions. They believe the transmigration of the soul; and have festivals set apart for the worship of certain genii, called Jeuhles, who they think inhabit the air, and have great power over human actions; but being without form or substance, they assign to them neither images nor statues.

Agriculture is not much attended to among the Laplanders. They are chiefly divided into Lapland fishers, and Lapland mountaineers. The former always make their habitations on the brink or in the neighbourhood of some lake, from which they draw their subsistence. The others seek their support upon the mountains, and their environs, possessing herds of rein-deer more or less numerous, which they use according to the season, but go generally on foot. They are excellent and very industrious herdsmen, and are rich in comparison of the Lapland fishers. Some of them possess six hundred or a thousand rein-deer, and have often money and plate besides. They mark every rein-deer on the ears, and divide them into classes; so that they instantly perceive whether any one has strayed, though they cannot count to so great a number as that to which their stock often amounts. Those who possess but a small stock, give to every individual a proper name. The Lapland fishers, who are also called Laplanders of the Woods, because in summer they dwell upon the borders of the lakes, and in winter in the forests; live by fishing and hunting, and choose their situation by its convenience for either. The greatest part of them; however, have some rein-deer. They are active and expert in the chase; and the introduction of fire-arms among them has almost entirely abolished the use of the bow and arrow. Besides looking after the rein-deer, the fishery, and the chase, the men employ themselves in the construction of their canoes, which are small, light, and compact. They also make sledges; to which they give the form of a canoe, harness for the rein-deer, cups, bowls; and various other utensils, which are sometimes neatly carved, and sometimes ornamented with bones, brass, or horn. The employment of the women consists in making nets for the fishery, in drying fish and meat, in milking the rein-deer, in making cheese, and tanning hides; but it is understood to be the business of the men to look after the kitchen, in which it is said the women never interfere.

The Laplanders live in huts in the form of tents. A hut is from about twenty-five to thirty feet in diameter, and not much above six in height. They cover them, according to the season, and the means of the possessor, some with briers, bark of birch or of linden,—others with turf, coarse cloth, or felt, or the old skins of rein-deer. The door is of felt, made like two curtains which open asunder. A little place surrounded with stones is made in the middle of the hut for the fire, over which a chain is suspended to hang the kettle upon. They are scarcely able to stand upright in their huts, but constantly sit upon their heels round the fire. At night they lie down quite naked; and, to separate the apartments, place upright sticks at small distances. They cover themselves with their clothes, or lie upon them. In winter they put their naked feet into a fur bag. Their household furniture consists of iron or copper kettles, wooden cups, bowls, spoons, and sometimes tin or even silver basons: to which may be added the implements of fishing and hunting. That they may not be obliged to carry such a number of things with them in their excursions, they build in the forests, at certain distances, little huts, made like pigeon-houses, and placed upon the trunk of a tree, cut off at the height of about six feet from the root. In these elevated huts they keep their goods and provi-

sions; and though they are never shut, yet they are never plundered. The rein-deer supply the Laplanders with the greatest part of their provisions: the chase and the fishery supply the rest. Their principal dishes are the flesh of the rein-deer, and puddings which they make of their blood, by putting it, either alone or mixed with wild berries, into the stomach of the animal from whence it was taken, in which they cook it for food. But the flesh of the bear is considered by them as their most delicate meat. They eat every kind of fish, even the sea-dog; as well as all kinds of wild animals, not excepting birds of prey and carnivorous animals. Their winter provisions consist chiefly of flesh and fish-dried in the open air, both of which they eat raw, without any sort of dressing. Their common drink is water, sometimes mixed with milk; they make also broths and fish soups. Brandy is very scarce with them, but they are extremely fond of it. Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family spreads a carpet on the ground; and the men and women squat round this mat, which is covered with dishes. Every Laplander always carries about him a knife, a spoon, and a little cup for drinking. Each has his portion separately given him, that no person may be injured; for they are great eaters. Before and after the meal, they make a short prayer: and as soon as they have done eating, each gives the other his hand.

In their dress, the Laplanders use no kind of linen. The men wear close breeches, reaching down to their shoes, which are made of untanned skin, pointed and turned up before; and in winter they put a little hay in them. Their doublet is made to fit their shape, and open at the breast. Over this, they wear a close coat with narrow sleeves, the skirts of which reach down to the knees, and which is fastened round them by a leathern girdle, ornamented with plates of tin or brass. To this girdle they tie their knives, their instruments for making fire, their pipes, and the rest of their smoaking apparatus. Their clothes are made of fur, of leather, or of cloth; the close coat of cloth or leather always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colours. Their caps are edged with fur, pointed at top, and the four seams adorned with lists of a different colour from that of the cap. The women wear breeches, shoes, doublets, and close coats, in the same manner as the men; but their girdle, at which they carry likewise the implements for smoaking tobacco, is commonly embroidered with brass wire. Their close coat has a collar, which comes up somewhat higher than that of the men. Besides these, they wear handkerchiefs, and little aprons, made of painted cloth, rings on their fingers, and ear-rings, to which they sometimes hang chains of silver, which pass two or three times round the neck. They are often dressed in caps folded after the manner of turbans. They wear also caps fitted to the shape of the head: and as they are much addicted to finery, they are all ornamented with the embroidery of brass wire, or at least with list of different colours.

Lapland is but poorly peopled, owing to the general barrenness of its soil. The whole number of its inhabitants may amount to about 60,000. Both men and women are in general considerably shorter than more southern Europeans. Maupertuis measured a woman who was suckling her child, whose height did not exceed four feet two inches and about a half; they make however a much more agreeable appearance than the men, who are often ill-shaped and ugly, and their heads too large for their bodies. Their women are complaisant, chaste, often well made, and extremely nervous; which is also observable among the men, although more rarely. It frequently happens that a Lapland woman will faint away,

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or even fall into a fit of frenzy, on a spark of fire flying towards her, an unexpected noise, or the sudden sight of an unexpected object, though in its own nature not in the least alarming; in short, at the most trifling things imaginable. During these paroxysms of terror, they deal about blows with the first thing that presents itself; and, on coming to themselves, are utterly ignorant of all that has passed.

When a Laplander intends to marry, he, or his friends, court the father of the fair one with brandy; and when, with some difficulty, he gains admittance to his fair one, he offers her a beaver's tongue, or some other eatable, which she rejects before company, but accepts in private. Cohabitation often precedes marriage; but every admittance to the fair one is purchased from her father, by her lover, with a bottle of brandy; and this prolongs the courtship sometimes for three years. The priest of the parish at last celebrates the nuptials; but the bridegroom is obliged to serve his father-in-law for four years after. He then carries his wife and her fortune home.

COMMERCE:] Little can be said of the commerce of the Laplanders. Their exports consist of fish, rein-deer, furs, baskets, and toys; with some dried pikes, and cheeses made of rein-deer milk. They receive for these six-dollars, woollen cloths, linen, copper, tin, flour, oil, hides, needles, knives, spirituous liquors, tobacco, and other necessaries. Their mines are generally worked by foreigners, and produce no inconsiderable profit. The Laplanders travel in a kind of caravan, with their families, to the Finland and Norway fairs. The reader may make some estimate of the medium of commerce among them, when he is told, that fifty squirrel skins, or one fox skin, and a pair of Lapland shoes, produce one six-dollar; but no computation can be made of the public revenue, the greatest part of which is allotted for the maintenance of the clergy. With regard to the security of their property, few disputes happen; and their judges have no military to enforce their decrees, the people having a remarkable aversion to war; and, so far as we know, are never employed in any army.

S W E D E N.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	800	} between	56 and 60 North latitude.
Breadth	500		10 and 30 East longitude.

Containing 220,000 square miles, with 14 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.

THIS country is bounded by the Baltic sea, the Sound, and the Categate, or Scagerrac, on the south; by the impassable mountains of Norway, on the west; by Danish or Norwegian Lapland on the North; and by Muscovy on the east. It is divided into seven provinces: 1. Sweden Proper. 2. Gothland. 3. Livonia. 4. Ingria. (These two last provinces belong now, however, to the Russians, having been conquered by Peter the Great, and ceded by posterior treaties.) 5. Finland. 6. Swedish Lapland; and, 7. The Swedish islands. The lakes and unimproved parts of Sweden are so extensive, that the habitable part is confined to narrow bounds. The following are the dimensions given us of this kingdom:

Sweden.	Square Miles.	Sum total.	Length.	Breadth.	Capital Cities.
	76,835	228,715			
Sweden Proper - - -	47,960		342	194	Stockholm, N. Lat. 59—30. E. Lon. 19—15.
Gothland - - - - -	25,975		233	160	Calmar.
Schonen - - - - -	2,960		77	56	Lunden.
		76,835			
Lapland and } W. Bothnia } Swedish Finland and } East Bothnia. }	76,000		420	340	{ Torne: Uma: Abo, Cajenburgh.
Gothland I. - - - -	1,000		80	23	Wisby.
Oeland I. - - - - -	560		84	9	Barkholm.
		150,560			
Upper } { Pomerania, P. Saxony } { Rugen I.	960 360		47 14	24 21	Stralsund. Bergen.
		1,320			

Of Sweden Proper, the following are the subdivisions:

Uplandia, Helſingia,
Sudermania, Dalecarlia,
Westmania, Medelpedia,
Nericia, Angermania,
Gestricia, Jemtia.

Of Gothland, the following are the subdivisions:

East Gothland, Dalia,
West Gothland, Schonen,
Smaland, Bleking,
Wermeland, Halland.

Of Swedish Lapland, the following are the subdivisions:

Thorne Lapmark, Pithia Lapmark,
Kimi Lapmark, Uma Lapmark.
Lula Lapmark,

The principal places in West Bothnia are Umea, Pitea, and Tornea.

Of Finland, the following are the subdivisions:

East Bothnia, Nyland,
Cajania, Travastia,
Savoloxia, Finland Proper.

The Swedish isles are Gothland, Oeland, Aland, and Rugen.

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

CLIMATE AND SEASONS, SOIL } In Sweden, summer bursts sudden-
AND PRODUCTIONS. } ly from winter; and vegetation is
more speedy than in southern climates; for the sun is here so hot, as
sometimes to set forests on fire. Stoves and warm furs mitigate the cold
of winter, which is so intense, that the noses and extremities of the in-
habitants are sometimes mortified; and in such cases, the best remedy
that has been discovered, is rubbing the affected part with snow. The
Swedes, since the days of Charles XII. have been at incredible pains to
correct the native barrenness of their country, by erecting colleges of
agriculture, and in some places with great success. The soil is much

the same with that of Denmark, and some parts of Norway, generally very bad, but in some valleys surprisingly fertile. The Swedes, till of late years, had not industry sufficient to remedy the one, nor improve the other. The peasants now follow the agriculture of France and England; and some late accounts say that they raise almost as much grain as maintains the natives. Gothland produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, and beans; and in case of deficiency, the people are supplied from Livonia and the Baltic provinces. In summer, the fields are verdant, and covered with flowers, and produce strawberries, raspberries, currants, and other small fruits. The common people know, as yet, little of the cultivation of apricots, peaches, nectarines, pine-apples, and the like high-flavoured fruits; but melons are brought to great perfection in dry seasons.

MINERALS AND METALS.] Sweden produces crystals, amethysts, topazes, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, agate, cornelian, marble, and other fossils. The chief wealth of Sweden, however, arises from her mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron. The last-mentioned metal employs no fewer than 450 forges, hammering mills, and smelting-houses. A kind of a gold mine has likewise been discovered in Sweden, but so inconsiderable, that, from the year 1741 to 1747, it produced only 2,389 gold ducats, each valued at 9s. 4d. sterling. The first gallery of one silver mine is 100 fathoms below the surface of the earth; the roof is supported by prodigious oaken beams; and from thence the miners descend about 40 fathoms to the lowest vein. This mine is said to produce 20,000 crowns a year. The product of the copper mines is uncertain; but the whole is loaded with vast taxes and reductions to the government, which has no other resources for the exigencies of the state. These subterraneous mansions are astonishingly spacious, and at the same time commodious for their inhabitants, so that they seem to form a hidden world. The water-falls in Sweden afford excellent conveniency for turning mills for forges; and for some years, the exports of Sweden for iron brought in 300,000l. sterling. It is supposed that they constituted two-thirds of the national revenue. It must, however, be observed, that the exactions of the Swedish government, and the importation of American bar-iron into Europe, and some other causes, have greatly diminished this manufacture.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } A few leagues from Gotten-
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } burgh there is a hideous precipice, down which a dreadful cataract of water rushes with such impetuosity, from the height, into so deep a bed of water, that large masts, and other bodies of timber, precipitated down it, disappear for near an hour before they are recovered; the bottom of this bed has never been found, though sounded by lines of several hundred fathoms. A remarkable slimy lake, which sings things put into it, has been found in the southern parts of Gothland; and several parts of Sweden contain a stone, which being of a yellow colour, intermixed with several streaks of white, as if composed of gold and silver, affords sulphur, vitriol, alum, and minium. In the university of Upsal is preserved the famous *Codex Argenteus*, a manuscript, with silver letters, of a Gothic translation of the Gospels, by Ulphilas, a bishop of the Goths in Mœsia, who lived about 1300 years ago. It is very ancient and very imperfect, but equally curious and valuable, because it contains all that remains of the ancient Gothic language, the venerable parent of the Runic, the old Teutonic, and the Anglo-Saxon; and, consequently, of the modern English, German, Danish, Swedish, and Icelandic languages.

SEAS.] Their seas are the Baltic, and the gulphs of Bothnia and Fin-

land, which are arms of the Baltic; and on the west of Sweden are the Categate sea, and the Sound, a strait about four miles over, which divides Sweden from Denmark.

These seas have no tides, and are frozen up usually four months in the year; nor are they so salt as the ocean; never mixing with it, because a current sets always out of the Baltic sea into the ocean.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] These differ little from those already described in Norway and Denmark. The Swedish horses are more serviceable in war than the German. The Swedish hawks, when carried to France, have been known to revisit their native country, as appears from one that was killed in Finland, with an inscription on a small gold plate, signifying that he belonged to the French king. The fishes found in the rivers and lakes of Sweden, are the same with those in other northern countries, and taken in such quantities, that several sorts of them, pikes in particular, are salted and pickled for exportation. The train-oil of the seals taken in the gulf of Finland is a considerable article of exportation.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The character of the Swedes has differed greatly in different ages, nor is it very uniform. At present, their peasants seem to be a heavy plodding race of men, strong and hardy, but without any other ambition than that of subsisting themselves and their families as well as they can: the mercantile classes are much of the same cast; but great application and perseverance is discovered among them all. It seems difficult, however, to conceive that the modern Swedes are descendants of those, who, under Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII. carried terror in their names through distant countries, and shook the foundations of the greatest empires. The intrigues of their senators drew them to take part in the war, called the seven years' war, against Prussia; yet their behaviour was spiritless, and their courage contemptible. The principal nobility and gentry of Sweden are naturally brave, polite, and hospitable; they have high and warm notions of honour, and are jealous of their national interests. The dress, exercises, and diversions, of the common people, are almost the same with those of Denmark: the better sort are infatuated with French modes and fashions. The women go to the plough, thresh out the corn, row upon the water, serve the bricklayers, carry burdens, and do all the common drudgeries in husbandry.

RELIGION.] Christianity was introduced here in the 9th century. Their religion is Lutheran, which was propagated amongst them by Gustavus Vasa, about the year 1523. The Swedes are surprisingly uniform and unremitting in religious matters: and had such an aversion to popery, that castration was the fate of every Roman catholic priest discovered in their country. The archbishop of Upsal has a revenue of about 400l. a year, and has under him 13 suffragans, besides superintendents, with moderate stipends. No clergyman has the least direction in the affairs of state; but their morals and the sanctity of their lives endear them so much to the people, that the government would repent making them its enemies. Their churches are neat, and often ornamented. A body of ecclesiastical laws and canons direct their religious economy. A conversion to popery, or a long continuance under excommunication, which cannot pass without the king's permission, is punished by imprisonment and exile.

LANGUAGE, LEARNING, AND LEARNED MEN.] The Swedish language is a dialect of the Teutonic, and resembles that of Denmark. The Swedish nobility and gentry are, in general, more conversant in polite

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literature than those of many other more flourishing states. They have of late exhibited some noble specimens of their munificence for the improvement of literature; witness their sending, at the expense of private persons, that excellent and candid natural philosopher Hasselquist into the eastern countries for discoveries, where he died. This noble spirit is eminently encouraged by the royal family; and her Swedish majesty purchased, at no inconsiderable expense for that country, all Hasselquist's collection of curiosities. That able civilian, statesman, and historian, Puffendorff, was a native of Sweden; and so was the late celebrated Linnæus, who carried natural philosophy, in some branches at least, particularly botany, to the highest pitch. The passion of the famous queen Christina for literature is well known to the public; and she may be accounted a genius in many branches of knowledge. Even in the midst of the late distractions of Sweden, the fine arts, particularly drawing, sculpture, and architecture, were encouraged and protected. Agricultural learning, both in theory and practice, is now carried to a considerable height in that kingdom; and the character given by some writers, that the Swedes are a dull heavy people fitted only for bodily labour, is in a great measure owing to their having no opportunity of exerting their talents.

UNIVERSITIES.] The principal is that of Upsal, instituted near 400 years ago, and patronised by successive monarchs, particularly by the great Gustavus Adolphus, and his daughter queen Christina. There are near 1500 students in this university; but for the most part they are extremely indigent, and lodge, five or six together, in very poor hovels. The professors in different branches of literature are about twenty-two; of whom the principal are those of divinity, eloquence, botany, anatomy, chemistry, natural philosophy, astronomy, and agriculture. Their salaries are from 70l. to 100l. per annum. This university, justly called by Stillingsfleet, "that great and hitherto unrivalled school of natural history," is certainly the first seminary of the North for academical education, and has produced, from the time of its institution, persons eminent in every branch of science. The learned publications which have lately been given to the world by its members, sufficiently prove the flourishing state of literature in these parts; and the theses, composed by the students on their admission to their degrees, would form a very interesting collection. Many of these tracts upon various subjects of polite literature, antiquities, languages, &c. evince the erudition and taste of the respective authors: among the works of this sort which have widely diffused the fame of this learned society throughout Europe, are the *Amœnitates Academicæ*, or a Collection of Theses upon Natural History, held under the celebrated Linnæus, and chiefly selected by that master.

There is another university at Abo in Finland, but not so well endowed, nor so flourishing; and there was a third at Lunden, in Schonen, which is now fallen into decay. Every diocese is provided with a free-school, in which boys are qualified for the university*.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, COM- } The Swedish commonalty sub-
MERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS. } sist by agriculture, mining, graz-
ing, hunting, and fishing. Their materials for traffic are the bulky and
useful commodities of masts, beams, deal-boards, and other sorts of
timber for shipping; tar, pitch, bark of trees, pot-ash, wooden utensils,

* An academy of arts and sciences was some years since established at Stockholm, and is now in a flourishing condition. They have published several volumes of memoirs, which have been well received by the public.

hides, flax, hemp, peltry, furs, copper, lead, iron, cordage, and fish. Even the manufacturing of iron was introduced into Sweden so late as the 16th century; for till that time they sold their own crude ore to the Hanse towns, and bought it back again manufactured into utensils. About the middle of the 17th century, by the assistance of the Dutch and Flemings, they set up some manufactories of glass, starch, tin, woolen, silk, soap, leather-dressing, and saw-mills. Bookselling was at that time a trade unknown in Sweden. They have since had sugar-baking, tobacco-plantations, and manufactures of sail-cloth, cotton, fustian, and other stuffs; of linen, alum, and brimstone; paper-mills, and gunpowder-mills. Vast quantities of copper, brass, steel, and iron, are now wrought in Sweden. They have also founderies for cannon, forges for fire arms and anchors; armouries, wire and flating mills; mills also for fulling, and for boring and stamping; and of late they have built many ships for sale.

Certain towns in Sweden, 24 in number, are called staple-towns, where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities in their own ships. Those towns, which have no foreign commerce, though lying near the sea, are called land-towns. A third kind are termed mine-towns, as belonging to the mine districts. The Swedes, about the year 1752, had greatly increased their exports, and diminished their imports, most part of which arrive, or are sent off, in Swedish ships; the Swedes having now a kind of navigation ast, like that of the English. These promising appearances were, however, frustrated by the improper management and jealousies of the Swedish government.

Stockholm is a staple-town, and the capital of the kingdom: it stands about 760 miles North-east of London, upon seven small rocky islands, besides two peninsulas, and is built upon piles. It strongly impresses a stranger with its singular and romantic scenery. A variety of contrasted and enchanting views are formed by numberless rocks of granite, rising boldly from the surface of the water, partly bare and craggy, partly dotted with houses, or feathered with wood. The harbour, which is spacious and convenient, though difficult of access, is an inlet of the Baltic: the water is clear as crystal, and of such depth that ships of the largest burden can approach the quay, which is of considerable breadth, and lined with spacious buildings and warehouses. At the extremity of the harbour, several streets rise one above another in the form of an amphitheatre; and the palace, a magnificent building, crowns the summit. Towards the sea, about two or three miles from the town, the harbour is contracted into a narrow strait, and winding among high rocks, disappears from the sight; the prospect is terminated by distant hills, overspread with forest. It is far beyond the power of words, or of the pencil, to delineate these singular views. The central island, from which the city derives its name, and the Ritterholm, are the handsomest parts of the town.

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

The number of housekeepers who pay taxes are 60,000. This city is furnished with all the exterior marks of magnificence, and erections for manufactures and commerce, that are common to other great European

* Coxæ, vol. ii. p. 327, 328.

cities, particularly a national bank, the capital of which is 450,000l. sterling.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Sweden has undergone many changes. The Swedes, like the Danes, were originally free, and during the course of many centuries the crown was elective; but after various revolutions, Charles XII. who was killed in 1718, became despotic. He was succeeded by his sister Ulrica, who consented to the abolition of despotism, and restored the states to their former liberties; and they, in return, associated her husband, the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, with her in the government. A new model of the constitution was then drawn up, by which the royal power was brought, perhaps, too low; for the king of Sweden could scarcely be called by that name, being limited in every exercise of government, and even in the education of his own children. The diet of the states appointed the great officers of the kingdom; and all the employments of any value, ecclesiastical, civil, or military, were conferred by the king, only with the approbation of the senate. The estates were formed of deputies from the four orders, nobility, clergy, burghers, and peasants. The representatives of the nobility, which included the gentry, amounted to above 1000, those of the clergy to 200, the burghers to about 150, and the peasants to 250. Each order sat in its own house, and had its own speaker; and each chose a secret committee for the dispatch of business. The states were to be convoked once in three years, in the month of January; and their collective body had greater powers than the parliament of Great Britain, because the king's prerogative was more bounded.

When the states were not sitting, the affairs of the public were managed by the king and the senate, which were no other than a committee of the states, but chosen in a particular manner. The nobility, or upper house, appointed 24 deputies, the clergy 12, and the burghers 12; these chose three persons, who were to be presented to the king, that he might nominate one out of the three for each vacancy. The peasants had no vote in electing a senator. Almost all the executive power was lodged in the senate, which consisted of 14 members, besides the chief governors of the provinces, the president of the chancery, and the grand-marshal. Those senators, during the recess of the states, formed the king's privy-council; but he had no more than a casting vote in their deliberations. Appeals lay to them from different courts of judicature; but each senator was accountable to the states for his conduct in the senate. Thus, upon the whole, the government of Sweden might be called republican; for the king's power was not so great as that of a stadtholder. The senate had even a power of imposing upon the king a sub-committee of their number, who were to attend upon his person, and to be a check upon all his proceedings, down to the very management of his family. It would be endless to recount the numerous subordinate courts, boards, commissions, and tribunals, which the jealousy of the Swedes had introduced into the civil, military, commercial, and other departments. Their officers and ministers, under the notion of making them checks upon one another, were multiplied to an inconvenient degree; and the operations of government were greatly retarded, if not rendered ineffectual, by the tedious forms through which they must pass.

But in August, 1772, the whole system of the Swedish government was totally changed by the late king, in the most unexpected manner. The circumstances which attended this extraordinary revolution will be found in our history of Sweden. By that event the Swedes, instead of

having the particular defects of their constitution rectified, found their king invested with a degree of authority little inferior to that of the most despotic princes of Europe. By the new form of government, the king may assemble and separate the states whenever he pleases; he has the sole disposal of the army, the navy, finances, and all employments, civil and military; and though he cannot openly claim a power of imposing taxes on all occasions, yet such as already subsist are to be perpetual; and, in case of invasion or pressing necessity, he may impose some taxes till the states can be assembled; but of this necessity he is to be the judge, and the meeting of the states depends wholly upon his will and pleasure; and when they are assembled, they are to deliberate upon nothing but what the king thinks proper to lay before them. It is easy to perceive, that a government thus constituted can be little removed from one of the most despotic kind. Yet, in order to amuse the nation with some slight appearances of a legal and limited government, in the new system, which consists of fifty-seven articles, a senate is appointed, consisting of seventeen members, comprehending the great officers of the crown and the governor of Pomerania: and they are required to give their advice in all the affairs of the state, whenever the king shall demand it. In that case, if the questions agitated are of great importance, and the advice of the senators should be contrary to the opinion of the king, and they unanimous therein, the king, it is said, shall follow their advice. But this, it may be observed, is a circumstance that can hardly ever happen, that all the members of a senate, consisting chiefly of officers of the crown, should give their opinions against the king; and in every other case the king is to hear their opinions, and then to act as he thinks proper. There are some other apparent restraints of the regal power in the new system of government; but they are in reality very inconsiderable. It is said, indeed, that the king cannot establish any new law, nor abolish any old one, without the knowledge and consent of the states: but the king of Sweden, according to the present constitution, is invested with so much authority, power, and influence, that it is hardly to be expected that any person will venture to make an opposition to whatever he shall propose.

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

[POLITICAL INTERESTS OF SWEDEN.] In the reign of Gustavus Vasa, a treaty of alliance first took place between Sweden and France; and afterwards Sweden also entered into a subsidiary treaty with France, in the reign of Gustavus Adolphus. In consequence of these treaties, France

by degrees acquired an ascendancy in Sweden, which was very pernicious to the interests of that kingdom. This crown has generally received a subsidy from France for above 100 years past, and has suffered greatly by it. During the reigns of Charles the XIth and Charles the XIIth, Sweden was sacrificed to the interest of France; and during the last war with the king of Prussia, for the sake of a small subsidy from France, the crown of Sweden was forced to contract a debt of 3,500,000*l.* which has since been considerably augmented, so that this debt now amounts to near five millions. Some of their ablest statesmen have perceived the mischievous tendency of their connection with France, and have endeavoured to put an end to it. But the influence of the French court in Sweden, in consequence of their subsidies and intrigues, has occasioned considerable factions in that kingdom. In 1738, a most powerful party appeared in the diet, in favour of French measures. The persons who composed it, went under the denomination of the *Hats*. The object held out to the nation was the recovery of some of the dominions yielded to Russia; and consequently the system they were to proceed upon, was to break with that power, and connect themselves with France. The party directly opposed to them was headed by count Horn, and those who had contributed to establish the new form of government, which was settled after the death of Charles XII. Their object was peace, and the promotion of the domestic welfare of the nation. The system, therefore, which they adopted, was to maintain a close correspondence with Russia, and to avoid all farther connection with France. These were styled the *Caps*. There was besides a third party, called the *Hunting Caps*, composed of persons who were as yet undetermined to which of the other two they would join themselves. These parties long continued; but the French party generally prevailed, greatly to the detriment of the real interests of the kingdom. Some efforts were employed by the English court to lessen or destroy the French influence in Sweden, and for some time they were successful: but the Hat party again acquired the ascendancy. These parties, however, are now abolished, in consequence of the late king of Sweden having made such a total change in the constitution of the government.

[REVENUE AND COIN.] The revenue of Sweden, by the unfortunate wars of Charles XII. and with the Russians since, has been greatly reduced. Livonia, Bremen, Verden, and other places disunited from that kingdom, contain about 78,000 square miles. Her gold and silver specie, in the late reign, arose chiefly from the king's German dominions. Formerly, the crown lands, poll-money, tithes, mines, and other articles, are said to have produced one million sterling. The payments that are made in copper, which is here the chief medium of commerce, are extremely inconvenient; some of those pieces being as large as tiles; and a cart or wheelbarrow is often required to carry home a moderate sum. The Swedes, however, have gold ducats, and eight-mark pieces of silver, valued each at 5*s.* 2*d.* but these are very scarce, and the inhabitants of Sweden have now very little specie in circulation; large pieces of copper stamped, and small bank notes, being almost their only circulating money.

[STRENGTH AND FORCES.] No country in the world has produced greater heroes, or braver troops, than the Swedes: and yet they cannot be said to maintain a standing army, as their forces consist of a regulated militia. The cavalry is clothed, armed, and maintained, by a rate raised upon the nobility and gentry, according to their estates; and the infantry by the peasants. Each province is obliged to find its proportion

of soldiers, according to the number of farms it contains; every farm of 60 or 70l. per annum is charged with a foot soldier, furnishing him with diet, lodging, and ordinary clothes, and about 20s. a year in money; or else a little wooden house is built him by the farmer, who allows him hay and pasturage for a cow, and ploughs and sows land enough to supply him with bread. When embodied, they are subject to military law, but otherwise to the civil law of the country. It may therefore literally be said that every Swedish soldier has a property in the country he defends. This national army is thought to amount to above 40,000 men, but before the loss of Livonia, to 60,000; and Sweden formerly could have fitted out 40 ships of the line; but of late years, their ships, together with their docks, have been suffered greatly to decay.

[ROYAL STYLE.] The king's style is, King of the Goths and Vandals, great prince of Finland, duke of Schonen, Pomerania, &c.

[ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] These are the order of the *North or Polar-Star*, consisting of twenty-four members; the order of *Vasa*; and the order of the *Sword*; the last created in 1772.

[HISTORY OF SWEDEN.] The Goths, the ancient inhabitants of this country, joined by the Normans, Danes, Saxons, Vandals, &c. have had the reputation of subduing the Roman empire, and all the southern nations of Europe. The introduction of Christianity by Angarius, bishop of Bremen, in 829, seems to present the first certain period of the Swedish history.

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

Magnus Ladislaus, crowned in 1276; seems to have been the first king of Sweden who pursued a regular system to increase his authority; and to succeed in this, he made the augmentation of the revenues of the crown his principal object. He was one of the ablest princes who ever sat on the Swedish throne; by his art and address he prevailed upon the convention of estates to make very extraordinary grants to him for the support of his royal dignity. The augmentation of the revenues of the crown was naturally followed by a proportionable increase of the regal power: and whilst, by the steady and vigorous exertion of this power, Magnus humbled the haughty spirit of the nobles, and created in the rest of the nation a respect for the royal dignity, with which they appear before to have been but little acquainted, he, at the same time, by employing his authority in many respects for the public good, reconciled his subjects to acts of power, which in former monarchs they would have opposed with the utmost violence. The successors of Magnus did not maintain their authority with equal ability; and several commotions and revolutions followed, which threw the nation into great confusion.

In the year 1387, Margaret, daughter of Valdemar king of Denmark, and widow of Huguin, king of Norway, reigned in both these kingdoms. That princess, to the ordinary ambition of her sex, added a penetration and enlargement of mind, which rendered her capable of conducting the greatest and most complicated designs. She has been called the Semiramis of the North, because, like Semiramis, she found means to reduce by arms, or by intrigue, an immense extent of territory; and became queen of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, being elected to this last in 1364. She projected the union of Calmar, so famous in the North, by which these kingdoms were for the future to remain under one sovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and who should divide his residence between them all. Several revolutions ensued after the death of Margaret; and at length Christian II. the last king of Denmark, who, by virtue of the treaty of Calmar, was also king of Sweden, engaged in a scheme to render himself entirely absolute. The barbarous policy by which he attempted to effect this design, proved the destruction of himself, and afforded an opportunity for changing the face of affairs in Sweden. In order to establish his authority in that kingdom, he laid a plot for massacring the principal nobility. This horrid design was actually carried into execution, Nov. 8, 1520. Of all those who could oppose the despotic purposes of Christian, no one remained in Sweden, but Gustavus Vasa, a young prince, descended from the ancient kings of that country, and who had already signalised his arms against the king of Denmark. An immense price was set upon his head. The Danish soldiers were sent in pursuit of him; but by his dexterity and address he eluded all their attempts, and escaped under the disguise of a peasant to the mountains of Dalecarlia. After undergoing innumerable dangers and fatigues, and working in the brass-mines to prevent being discovered, he was betrayed by those in whom he reposed his confidence; but at length surmounting a thousand obstacles, engaged the savage but warlike inhabitants of Dalecarlia to undertake his cause, to oppose and to conquer his tyrannical oppressor. Sweden by his means again acquired independence. The ancient nobility were mostly destroyed. Gustavus was at the head of a victorious army, who admired his valour, and were attached to his person. He was created therefore first administrator, and afterwards king of Sweden, by the universal consent, and with the shouts of the

whole nation. His circumstances were much more favourable than those of any former prince who had possessed this dignity. The massacre of the nobles had rid him of those proud and haughty enemies, who had so long been the bane of all regular government in Sweden. The clergy, indeed, were no less powerful than dangerous; but the opinions of Luther, which began at this time to prevail in the North, and the credit which they had acquired among the Swedes, gave him an opportunity of changing the religious system of that country; and the exercise of the Roman catholic religion was prohibited in the year 1544, under the severest penalties, which have never yet been relaxed. Instead of a Gothic aristocracy, the most turbulent of all governments, and, when empoisoned by religious tyranny, of all governments the most wretched, Sweden in this manner became a regular monarchy. Some favourable effects of this change were soon visible; arts and manufactures were established and improved; navigation and commerce began to flourish; letters and civility were introduced; and a kingdom, known only by name to the rest of Europe, began to be known by its arms, and to have a certain weight in all public treaties and deliberations.

Gustavus died in 1559, while his eldest son Eric was preparing to embark for England to marry queen Elizabeth.

Under Eric, who succeeded his father Gustavus Vasa, the titles of count and baron were introduced into Sweden, and made hereditary. Eric's miserable and causeless jealousy of his brothers forced them to take up arms; and the senate siding with them, he was deposed in 1566. His brother John succeeded him, and entered into a ruinous war with Russia. John attempted, by the advice of his queen, to re-establish the catholic religion in Sweden; but, though he made strong efforts for that purpose, and even reconciled himself to the pope, he was opposed by his brother Charles, and the scheme proved ineffectual. His son Sigismund was chosen king of Poland in 1587; upon which he endeavoured again to restore the Roman catholic religion in his dominions; but he died in 1592.

Charles, brother to John, was chosen administrator of Sweden; and being a strenuous protestant, his nephew Sigismund endeavoured to drive him from the administratorship, but without effect; till at last he and his family were excluded from the succession to the crown, which was conferred upon Charles in 1599. The reign of Charles, through the practices of Sigismund, who was a powerful prince, and at the head of a great party, both in Sweden and Russia, was turbulent; which gave the Danes encouragement to invade Sweden. Their conduct was checked by the great Gustavus Adolphus, though then a minor, and heir apparent to Sweden. Upon the death of his father, which happened in 1611, he was declared of age by the states, though then only in his eighteenth year. Gustavus, soon after his accession, found himself, through the power and intrigues of the Poles, Russians, and Danes, engaged in a war with all his neighbours, under infinite disadvantages; all which he surmounted. He had nearly rendered himself sovereign of Russia. In 1617, he made a peace under the mediation of James I. of England, by which he recovered Livonia, and four towns in the prefecture of Novogorod, with which he likewise received a sum of money.

The ideas of Gustavus began now to extend. He had seen a vast deal of military service, and he was assisted by the counsels of La Gardie, one of the best generals and wisest statesmen of his age. His troops

had become the best disciplined and most warlike in Europe. The princes of the house of Austria were, it is certain, early jealous of his enterprising spirit, and supported his ancient implacable enemy Sigismund, whom he defeated. In 1627, he formed the siege of Dantzick, in which he was unsuccessful; but the attempt, which was defeated only by the sudden rise of the Vistula, added so much to his military character, that the protestant princes placed him at the head of the confederacy for reducing the house of Austria. His life, from that time, was a continued chain of the most rapid and wonderful successes: After taking Riga, and over-running Livonia, he entered Poland, where he was victorious: and from thence, in 1630, he landed in Pomerania, drove the Germans out of Mecklenburgh, defeated the famous count Tilly, the Austrian general, who was till then thought invincible; and over-ran Franconia. Upon the defeat and death of Tilly, Wallenstein, another Austrian general, of equal reputation, was appointed to the command against Gustavus, who was killed upon the plain of Lutzen in 1632, after gaining a victory, which, had he survived, would probably have put a period to the Austrian greatness.

The amazing abilities of Gustavus Adolphus, both in the cabinet and the field, never appeared so fully as after his death. He left behind him a set of generals trained by himself, who maintained the glory of the Swedish army, with most astonishing valour and success. The names of duke Bernard, Lannier, Torstenfon, Wrangel, and others, and their prodigious actions in war, will long live in the annals of Europe. It is uncertain what course Gustavus would have pursued, had his life been prolonged, and his successes continued; but there is the strongest reason to believe, that he had in view somewhat more than the relief of the protestants, and the restoration of the Palatine family. His chancellor Oxenfiern was as consummate a politician as he was a warrior; and during the minority of his daughter Christina, he managed the affairs of Sweden with such success, that she in a manner dictated the peace of Westphalia, 1648, which gave a new system to the affairs of Europe.

Christina was but six years of age when her father was killed. She received a noble education; but her fine genius took an uncommon and indeed romantic turn. She invited to her court, Descartes, Salmafius, and other learned men, to whom she was not, however, extremely liberal. She expressed a value for Grotius; and she was an excellent judge of the polite arts, but illiberal and indelicate in the choice of her private favourites. She at the same time discharged all the duties of her high station; and though her generals were basely betrayed by France, she continued to support the honour of her crown. Being resolved not to marry, she resigned her crown to her cousin Charles Gustavus, son to the duke of Deux-Ponts, in 1654.

Charles had great success against the Poles: he drove their king, John Casimir, into Silesia; and received from them an oath of allegiance, which, with their usual inconstancy, they broke. His progress upon the ice against Denmark has been already mentioned; and he died of a fever in 1660. His son and successor, Charles XI. was not five years of age at his father's death; and this rendered it necessary for his guardians to conclude a peace with their neighbours, by which the Swedes gave up the island of Bornholm, and Drontheim in Norway. All differences were accommodated at the same time with Russia and Holland; and Sweden continued to make a very respectable figure in the affairs of Europe. When Charles came to be of age, he received a

subsidy from the French king, Lewis XIV. but perceiving the liberties of Europe to be in danger from that monarch's ambition; he entered into the alliance with England and Holland. He afterwards joined with France against the house of Austria; but being defeated in Germany at Felem-Bellin, a powerful confederacy was formed against him. The elector of Brandenburg made himself master of Swedish Pomerania; the bishop of Munster over-ran Bremen and Verden, and the Danes took Wismar, and several places in Schonen. They were afterwards beaten; and Charles, by the treaty of St. Germain, which followed that of Nimeguen in 1678, recovered all he had lost, except some places in Germany. He then married Ulrica Leonora, the king of Denmark's sister; but made a base use of the tranquillity he had regained; by employing his army to enslave his people. The states lost all their power; and Sweden was now reduced to the condition of Denmark. He ordered the brave Patkul, who was at the head of the Livonian deputies, to lose his head and his right hand, for the boldness of his remonstrance in favour of his countrymen; but he saved himself by flight, and Charles became so powerful, that the conferences for a general peace at Ryswick, 1697, were opened under his mediation.

Charles XI. died in 1697, and was succeeded by his minor son, the famous Charles XII. The history of no prince is better known than that of this hero. His father's will had fixed the age of his majority to eighteen; but it was set aside for an earlier date by the management of count Piper, who became in consequence his first minister. Soon after his accession, the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar of Muscovy, formed a powerful confederacy against him, encouraged by the mean opinion they had of his youth and abilities. He entered into a war with them all; and besieging Copenhagen, dictated the peace of Travendahl to his Danish majesty, by which the duke of Holstein was re-established in his dominions. The czar Peter was at that time ravaging Ingria, at the head of 80,000 men, and had besieged Narva. The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000 men; but such was his impatience, that he advanced at the head of 8000, entirely routed the main body of the Russians, and raised the siege. Such were his successes, and so numerous his prisoners, that the Russians attributed his actions to necromancy. Charles from thence marched into Saxony, where his warlike achievements equalled if they did not excel those of Gustavus Adolphus. He dethroned Augustus king of Poland; but stained all his laurels by putting the brave count Patkul to a death equally cruel and ignominious. He raised Stanislaus to the crown of Poland in 1705; and his name carried with it such terror, that he was courted by all the powers of Europe, and among others by the duke of Marlborough in the name of queen Anne, amidst the full career of her successes against France. His stubbornness and implacable disposition, however, were such, that he cannot be considered in a better light than that of an illustrious madman; for he lost, in the battle of Pultowa, 1709, which he fought in his march to dethrone the czar, more than all he had gained by his victories. His brave army was ruined, and he was forced to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. His actions there, in attempting to defend himself with 300 Swedes against 30,000 Turks, prove him to have been worse than frantic. The Turks found it, however, convenient for their affairs to set him at liberty. But his misfortunes did not cure his military madness; and after his return to his dominions, he prosecuted his revenge against Denmark, till he was killed by a cannon shot, as it is generally said, at the siege of Frederic-

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shall, in Norway, belonging to the Danes, in 1718, when he was no more than thirty-six years of age. It has been supposed that Charles was not in reality killed by a shot from the walls of Fredericshall, but that a pistol, from one of those about him, gave the decisive blow, which put an end to the life of this celebrated monarch. This opinion is said to be very prevalent among the best informed persons in Sweden. And it appears that the Swedes were tired of a prince under whom they had lost their richest provinces, their bravest troops, and their national riches; and who yet, untamed by adversity, pursued an unsuccessful and pernicious war, nor would ever have consented to restore tranquillity to his country.

Charles XII. was succeeded by his sister, the princess Ulrica Eleonora, wife to the hereditary prince of Hesse. We have seen in what manner the Swedes recovered their liberties; and given some account of the capitulation signed by the queen and her husband. Their first care was to make peace with Great Britain, which the late king intended to have invaded. The Swedes then, to prevent farther losses by the progress of the Russian, the Danish, the Saxon, and other arms, made many and great sacrifices to obtain peace from those powers. The French, however, about the year 1738, formed that dangerous party in the kingdom under the name of the *Hats*, which has already been mentioned, and which not only broke the internal quiet of the kingdom, but led it into a ruinous war with Russia. Their Swedish majesties having no children, it was necessary to settle the succession; especially as the duke of Holstein was descended from the queen's eldest sister, and was at the same time the presumptive heir to the empire of Russia. Four competitors appeared; the duke of Holstein Gottorp, prince Frederic of Hesse Cassel, nephew to the king, the prince of Denmark, and the duke of Deux-Ponts. The duke of Holstein would have carried the election, had he not embraced the Greek religion, that he might mount the throne of Russia. The czarina interposed, and offered to restore all the conquests she had made from Sweden, excepting a small district in Finland, if the Swedes would receive the duke of Holstein's uncle, the bishop of Lubeck, as their hereditary prince and successor to their crown. This was agreed to; and a peace was concluded at Abo, under the mediation of his Britannic majesty. This peace was so firmly adhered to by the czarina, that his Danish majesty thought proper to drop all his resentment, and forget the indignity done to his son! The successor of this prince, Adolphus Frederic, married the princess Ulrica, sister to the king of Prussia, and entered into the possession of his new dignity in 1751. He was a prince of a mild and gentle temper, but much harassed by the contending Swedish factions, and found his situation extremely troublesome, in consequence of the restraints and opposition which he met with from the senate. He passed the greatest part of his reign very disagreeably, and was at length, through the intrigues of the queen, brought over to the French party. He died in February 1771, and was succeeded by his son, Gustavus the Third, the late king, who possessed abilities greatly superior to those of his father.

Gustavus was about five and twenty years of age when he was proclaimed king of Sweden: his understanding had been much cultivated; he had an insinuating address, and a graceful and commanding elocution. He was at Paris at the time of his father's death, whence he wrote in the most gracious terms to the senate, repeatedly assuring them that he designed to govern according to the laws. In consequence of

the death of his predecessor, an extraordinary diet was called to regulate the affairs of the government, and to settle the form of the coronation oath. Some time after his arrival in Sweden, on the 28th of March, 1772, his majesty solemnly signed and swore to observe twenty-four articles relative to his future administration of government. This was termed a capitulation; and among the articles were the following: "The king promises before God to support the government of the kingdom, as now established; to maintain the rights and liberties of the states, the liberty and security of all his subjects, and to reign with gentleness and equity according to the laws of the kingdom, the form of the regency as it was established in the year 1720, and conformable to the present act of capitulation. In consequence of the declaration of the states, the king shall regard any person, who shall openly or clandestinely endeavour to introduce absolute sovereignty, as an enemy to the kingdom, and as a traitor to his country, as every person must take an oath respecting this matter, before he can take possession of any employment. With regard to the affairs of the cabinet and the senate, the king promises to follow the regulations of the year 1720 upon that head, which were to be directed always by a majority of votes, and never to do any thing therein without, and much less, against, their advice. To the end that the council of state may be so much the more convinced of the inviolable designs of his majesty, and of his sincere love for the good of his people, he declares them to be entirely disengaged from their oath of fidelity, in case that he wilfully acts contrary to his coronation-oath, and to this capitulation. And lastly, the king threatens any person with his highest displeasure, who shall be so inconsiderate as to propose to him a greater degree of power and splendor than is marked out in this act of capitulation, as his majesty desires only to gain the affections of his faithful subjects, and to be their powerful defender against any attempts which may be made upon their lawful liberties."

But scarcely had the king taken these solemn oaths to rule according to the then established form of government, and accepted the crown upon these conditions, before he formed a plan to govern as he thought proper; regarding these oaths only as matters of ceremony. He made use of every art, the most profound dissimulation, and the utmost dexterity and address, in order to render this hazardous enterprise successful. On his first arrival at Stockholm, he adopted every method which could increase his popularity. Three times a week he regularly gave audience to all who presented themselves. Neither rank, fortune, nor interest, were necessary to obtain access to him; it was sufficient to have been injured, and to have a legal cause of complaint to lay before him. He listened to the meanest of his subjects with affability, and entered into the minutest details that concerned them: he informed himself of their private affairs, and seemed to interest himself in their happiness. This conduct caused him to be considered as truly the father of his people, and the Swedes began to idolise him. In the mean time there happened some contentions between the different orders of the Swedish states; and no methods were left untried to foment these jealousies. emissaries were likewise planted in every part of the kingdom, for the purpose of sowing discontent among the inhabitants, of rendering them disaffected to the established government, and of exciting them to an insurrection. At length, when the king found his scheme ripe for execution, having taken the proper measures for bring-

* The fact to be recorded in the article is, "Do not, soldier: "b account of Sheridan, et revolution.

ing a considerable number of the officers and soldiers * into his interest, on the 19th of August 1772 he totally overturned the Swedish constitution of government. In less than an hour he made himself master of all the military force of Stockholm. He planted grenadiers, with their bayonets fixed, at the door of the council-chamber in which the senate were assembled, and made all the members of it prisoners, And that no news might be carried to any other part of Sweden, of the transaction in which the king was engaged, till the scheme was completed, cannon were drawn from the arsenal, and planted at the palace, the bridges, and other parts of the town, and particularly at all the avenues leading to it. Soldiers stood over these with matches ready lighted; all communication with the country was cut off, no one without a passport from the king being allowed to leave the city. The senators were then confined in separate apartments of the palace; and many others who were supposed to be zealously attached to the liberties of Sweden, were put under arrest. The remainder of the day the king employed in visiting different quarters of the town, in order to receive oaths of fidelity to him from the magistrates, the colleges, and city militia. Oaths were also tendered the next day to the public in general, to whom he addressed a speech, which he concluded by declaring that his only intention was to restore tranquillity to his native country, by suppressing licentiousness, overturning the aristocratic form of government, reviving the old Swedish liberty, and restoring the ancient laws of Sweden, such as they were before 1680. "I renounce now," said he, "as I have already done, all idea of the abhorred absolute power, or what is called *sovereignty*, esteeming it now, as before, my greatest glory to be the first citizen among a truly free people." Heralds then went through the different quarters of the town to proclaim an assembly of the states for the following day. This proclamation contained a threat, that if any member of the diet should absent himself, he should be considered and treated as a traitor to his country.

On the morning of the 21st of August, a large detachment of guards was ordered to take possession of the square where the house of nobles stands. The palace was invested on all sides with troops, and cannon were planted in the court, facing the hall where the states were to be assembled. These were not only charged, but soldiers stood over them with matches ready lighted in their hands. The several orders of the states were here compelled to assemble by the king's command; and these military preparations were made in order to assist their deliberations. The king being seated on his throne, surrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of officers, after having addressed a speech to the states, ordered a secretary to read a new form of government, which he offered to the states for their acceptance. As they were surrounded by an armed force, they thought proper to comply with what was required of them. The marshal of the diet, and the speakers of the other orders, signed the form of government; and the states took the oath to the king, which he dictated to them himself. This extraordinary transaction was

* The fidelity which was manifested by a private soldier, on this occasion, deserves to be recorded. The night preceding the revolution, the king, being desirous of visiting the arsenal, went thither, and ordered the centinel to admit him. The latter refused. "Do you know who you are speaking to?" said the king. "Yes," replied the soldier: "but I likewise know my duty."—*Vide* a very judicious and well-written account of this extraordinary revolution in Sweden, published by Charles Francis Sheridan, esq. who was secretary to the British envoy in Sweden at the time of the revolution.

concluded in a manner equally extraordinary. The king drew a book of psalms from his pocket, and taking off his crown, began to sing *Te Deum*, in which he was joined by the assembly. He afterwards gave them to understand, that he intended in six years' time again to convene an assembly of the states. Thus was this great revolution completed without any bloodshed, in which the Swedes surrendered that constitution which their forefathers had bequeathed to them after the death of Charles the Twelfth, as a bulwark against any despotic attempts of their future monarchs.

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

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

A diet summoned by the king to meet at Gefflé, a solitary place on the Bothnic Gulf, near seventy miles from Stockholm, excited much attention. Some imagined that the diet might assert the national freedom against a despotic monarch; but Gustavus had guarded against any such design, by his choice of the spot, and surrounding it with his mercenary troops. He found some difficulty in gaining his only intention, that of raising money, and was obliged to be satisfied with a part of his demand.

The diet being dissolved, the king returned to Stockholm, where, at a masquerade in the opera-house, on the night of the 16th of March, 1792, he was shot with a pistol by an assassin, named Ankerstroem, in consequence of a conspiracy among some of the discontented nobles; and having survived in great pain till the 29th of that month, he expired, in the forty-fifth year of his reign.

The reflection of dying ingloriously through the means of a vile assassin is said to have embittered the last moments of the king's life much more than even the agonising pain of his wounds. He showed the same noble and brave spirit on his death-bed, as he had done before his enemies during his life-time. He retained all his mental faculties to the last, which enabled him so well to arrange the future government of his country.

The wounds at first indicated the most promising appearance of recovery, and the slugs were all extracted: but some rusty pieces of iron had penetrated so far into the body as to render any surgical operation immediate death. The presence of mind shown by Gustavus during his illness was very great. While he waited for the arrival of his surgeons in an apartment adjoining to the saloon of the opera-house, several of the foreign ministers presented themselves, to whom he said, "I have given orders, gentlemen, that the gates of the city shall be shut. You will therefore not take it ill, if you should be unable to send couriers to your courts until after three days. Your advices will then be more certain, since it will be probably known whether I can survive or not." His conversation then related to the effects which the acci-

dent might produce in Europe; and the love of fame, which was always his predominant passion, was perceptible in his remarks.

Finding that he was not likely to survive, he settled all his affairs, with the greatest composure imaginable. He sent for his son the prince-royal, and addressed a speech to him on the nature of good government, in a manner so truly affecting, that all who were present shed tears. At eight o'clock, on the morning of his death, he received the sacrament. The queen had taken leave of him the evening before; and at half past ten he died in great agonies.

The prince-royal, being fourteen years of age, was immediately proclaimed king, by the name of Gustavus Adolphus; and the duke of Sudermania, his uncle, and brother to the late king, in compliance with his majesty's will, was declared sole regent, and guardian of the young sovereign, till he should attain his majority, which was fixed at the age of eighteen. We have only to add, that the prudence and conciliatory measures of the regent have established the tranquillity of this kingdom beyond expectation.

Gustavus Adolphus IV. the present king of Sweden, was born Nov. 1, 1778, and succeeded his father Gustavus III. who was shot the 16th, and died the 29th March, 1792; born Jan. 24, 1746; married Oct. 17, 1766, to the princess-royal of Denmark, by whom he had issue Gustavus Adolphus, the present king.

Brothers and sisters to the late king:

1. Charles, duke of Sudermania, born Oct. 7, 1748.
2. Frederic Adolphus, duke of West-Gothland, born July 18, 1750.
3. Sophia Albertina, abbess of Queclingburgh, born in Oct. 1753.

MUSCOVY, OR THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE.

Miles.	Degree.
Length 1500	} between { 23 and 65 East longitude. 47 and 72 North latitude.
Breadth 1100	

Russia in Europe contains 1,194,976 square miles, with 17 inhabitants to each.

DIVISIONS AND NAMES. } ACCORDING to the most authentic accounts of this mighty empire, it consists of forty-

two provinces, or governments; besides part of Carelia, Esthonia, Ingria, Livonia, and part of Finland, which were conquered from Sweden; the Crimea, or Crim Tartary, anciently the Taurica Chersonesus, a peninsula in the Euxine sea, subject to the Turks formerly, but added in the year 1783 to the Russian empire, with the isle of Taman, and part of Cuban*; also the duchy of Courland, and a great part of Lithuania in Poland, together with another large portion of the latter country, united to the Russian empire, in consequence of a second

* The Russians are supposed to have gained above a million of subjects by this cession.

partition of Poland in the year 1793; consisting of all that tract of land, with its inhabitants, which is contained within a line beginning at the village of Druy, on the left bank of the river Dwina, and thence extending to Neroch and Dubrova, passing Kunish, near the frontier of Galicia, proceeding thence to the river Dniester, and lastly running along that river till it enters the old border of Russia and Poland at Jegertic.

The following table will give some idea of the Russian empire properly so called, or Russia in Europe, with its acquisitions from Sweden in the present century; and also of the Russian empire in its most extensive sense; for we must also include all the acquisitions in Tartary, now known by the name of Siberia; the whole comprehending the northern parts of Europe and Asia, stretching from the Baltic and Sweden on the West, to Kamptshatka, and the Eastern Ocean; and on the North, from the Frozen Ocean to the forty-seventh degree of latitude, where it is bounded by Poland, Little Tartary, Turkey, Georgia, the Euxine and Caspian seas, Great Tartary, Chinese Tartary, and other unknown regions in Asia.

The country now comprised under the name of Russia or the Russias, is of an extent nearly equal to all the rest of Europe, and greater than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power, or the empire of Darius subdued by Alexander, or both put together, as may be seen by turning to the table, page 27.

Russian empire in Europe.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Greek Church.	Rus. or Muscovy.	784,650	1160	1050	Moscow.
	Belgorod.	72,900	375	285	Warouetz.
	Don Cossacs.	57,000	400	280	Panchina.
	Uk. Cossacs.	45,000	330	205	Kiow.
Conquered from Sweden since 1700.	Lapland.	72,000	405	270	Kola.
	Rus. Finland.	41,310	320	180	Wyburg.
	Livonia.	21,525	218	145	Riga.
Seized from the Turks in 1783.	Ingria.	9,100	175	90	PETERSBURGH. { N. Lat. 60. E.L. 30-25
	Crim Tar.	8,200	160	15	Kassa.
Russian empire in Asia.					
Christians and Idolaters.	Muscovy, Tartary, & Siberia.	2,000,000	3150	1500	Tobolsk.
	Kalm. Tart.	850,000	1100	750	Astracan.
By the partition Treaty between the Emper. Prussia, & Russia.	Lithuania in Poland.	64,000	300	250	Grodno.
	Total.	4,025,685			

Northern Provinces.
Middle Provinces.

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Russia has been also subdivided into thirty-one provinces, viz.

Northern Provinces.	{	1. Lapland,	Eastern Provinces.	{	17. Bulgar,		
		2. Samoieda,			18. Kafan,		
		3. Ballamorenky,			19. Tſcheremiffi,		
		4. Mefeen,			20. Little Novogorod,		
		5. Dwina,			21. Don Coffacs.		
		6. Syrianes,			Western Provinces.	{	22. Great Novogorod,
		7. Permia,					23. Ruffian Finland,
		8. Rubeninski,					24. Kexholm,
		9. Belaeſeda.					25. Kaleria,
Middle Provinces.	{	10. Rezen, or Pereſlaf,	Southern Provinces.	{			26. Ingria.
		11. Belozero,					27. Livonia,
		12. Wolagda,			28. Smolenſko,		
		13. Jeraflaf,			29. Zernigof,		
		14. Tweer,			30. Seefsk,		
		15. Mofcow,			31. Ukraine, or country of the old Coffacs.		
		16. Belgorod.					

M. Fooke, chaplain to the Britiſh factory at Petersburgh, who, a few years ago, published an account of Ruſſia, has enumerated the following nations, as comprehended in this great empire :

The Monguls,	The Tſcouwaſches,	The Kurilians,
The Kalmucs,	The Mordvines,	The Kiſtim and Toulbert Tartars,
The Tartars,	The Votiaks,	The Vergo Tomſkoi Tartars,
The Samoiedes,	The Terptyaireis,	
The Oſtiacs,	The Tartars of Kafan and Orenburg,	The Sayan Tartars,
The Burattians,	The Tartars of Tobolſk,	The Touralizes,
The Jakutans,	The Tartars of Tomſk,	The Bougharians,
The Tunguſians,	The Nogayan Tartars,	The Baſchkirians,
The Voguls,	The Tartars of the Ob,	The Meſſſſeraiks,
The Laplanders,	The Tſchoulym Tartars,	The Barabazines,
The Finns,	The Katſchintz Tartars,	The Kirkguiſians,
The Lantons,	The Teleutes,	The Beltirians,
The Eſtonians,	The Abinzes,	The Yakoutes,
The Lieffs,	The Biryouſſes,	The Kamtſchadales,
The Ingrians,	The Coffacs,	

and various others; but ſome of which muſt be conſidered rather as different tribes than diſtinct nations.

The names of Ruſſia and Muſcovy, by which this empire is arbitrarily called, are probably derived from the ancient inhabitants, the Ruſſi, or Boruſſi, and the river Moſca, upon which the ancient capital Moſcow was built.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, VEGETABLES, MINES, AND MINERALS. } In the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, or Muſcovy, the longest day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half; whereas, in the moſt northern, the ſun is ſeen in ſummer two months above the horizon. Hence there is in Muſcovy a vaſt diverſity both of ſoil and climate.

The ſeverity of the climate, in Ruſſia properly ſo called, is very great. Dr. John Glen King, who reſided eleven years in Ruſſia, obſerves, that

the cold in St. Peterburgh, by Fahrenheit's scale, is, during the months of December, January, and February, usually from 8 to 15 or 20 degrees below 0; that is, from 40 to 52 degrees below the freezing point; though commonly, in the course of the winter, it is for a week or ten days some degrees lower. The same writer remarks, that it is very difficult for an inhabitant of our temperate climate to have any idea of a cold so great. It is such, that, when a person walks out in that severe weather, the cold makes the eyes water, and that water freezing, hangs in little icicles on the eye-lashes. As the common peasants usually wear their beards, you may see them hanging at the chin like a solid lump of ice. The beard is therefore found very useful in protecting the glands of the throat: and the soldiers, who do not wear their beards, are obliged to tie a handkerchief under the chin to supply their place. All the parts of the face, which are exposed, are very liable to be frozen: though it has often been observed, that the person himself does not know when the freezing begins, but is commonly told of it first by those who meet him, and who call out to him to rub his face with snow, the usual method to thaw it. It is also remarked that the part which has once been frozen, is afterwards most liable to be frozen again. In some very severe winters, sparrows, though a hardy species of birds, have been seen quite numbed by the intense cold, and unable to fly: and drivers, when sitting on their loaded carriages, have sometimes been found frozen to death in that posture. When the thermometer has stood at 25 degrees below 0, boiling water thrown up into the air by an engine, so as to spread, has fallen down perfectly dry, formed into ice. A pint bottle of common water was found by Dr. King frozen into a solid piece of ice in an hour and a quarter. A bottle of strong ale has also been frozen in an hour and a half: but in this substance there was about a tea cup full in the middle unfrozen, which was as strong and inflammable as brandy and spirits of wine. But, notwithstanding the severity of the cold in Russia, the inhabitants have such various means and provisions to guard against it, that they suffer much less from it than might be expected. The houses of persons in tolerable circumstances are so well protected, both without doors and within, that they are seldom heard to complain of cold. The method of warming the houses in Russia is by an oven constructed with several flues; and the country abounds with wood, which is the common fuel. These ovens consume a much smaller quantity of wood than might be imagined; and yet they serve at the same time for the ordinary people to dress their food. They put a very moderate faggot into them, and suffer it to burn only till the thickest black smoke is evaporated; they then shut down the chimney to retain all the rest of the heat in the chamber; by this method the chamber keeps its heat twenty-four hours, and is commonly so warm that they sit with very little covering, especially children, who are usually in their shirts. The windows in the huts of the poor are very small, that as little cold may be admitted as possible: in the houses of persons of condition, the windows are caulked up against winter, and commonly have double glass frames. In short, they can regulate the warmth in their apartments by a thermometer with great exactness, opening or shutting the flues to increase or diminish the heat. When the Russians go out, they are clothed so warmly, that they almost bid defiance to frost and snow; and it is observable that the wind is seldom violent in the winter; but when there is much wind, the cold is exceedingly piercing.

One advantage, which the Russians derive from the severity of their

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

The quickness of vegetation in Russia is pretty much the same as has been described in Scandinavia, or Sweden and Denmark. The snow is the natural manure of Russia, where grain grows in plenty, near Poland, and in the warmer provinces. The bulk of the people, however, are miserably fed; the soil produces a vast number of mushrooms for their subsistence; and in some places, besides oaks and firs, Russia yields rhubarb, flax, hemp, pasture for cattle, wax, honey, rice, and melons. The boors are particularly careful in the cultivation of honey, which yields them plenty of metheglin, their ordinary drink; they likewise extract a spirit from rye, which they prefer to brandy.

That a great part of Russia was populous in former days, is not to be disputed; though it is equally certain that the inhabitants, till lately, were but little acquainted with agriculture, and supplied the place of bread, as the inhabitants of Scandinavia do now, with a kind of saw-dust and a preparation of fish-bones. Peter the Great, and his successors down to the present time, have been at incredible pains to introduce agriculture into their dominions; and though the soil is not every where proper for corn, yet its vast fertility in some provinces bids fair to make grain as common in Russia as it is in the southern countries of Europe. The easy communication by means of rivers, which the inland parts of that empire have with each other, serves to supply one province with those products of the earth in which another may be deficient. As to mines and minerals, they are as plentiful in Russia as in Scandinavia; and the people are daily improving in working them. Mountains of rich iron ore are found in some places, most of which produce the load-stone, and yield from 50 to 70 per cent. Rich silver and copper mines are found on the confines of Siberia.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, FORESTS, } Russia is in general a flat level
AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } country, except towards the north,
where lie the Zimnopoias mountains, thought to be the famous Montes Riphæi of the ancients, now called the Girdle of the Earth. On the western side of the Dnieper comes in part of the Carpathian mountains; and between the Black Sea and the Caspian, Mount Caucasus borders a range of vast plains extending on the sea of Oral. And here it may be observed, that, from Peterburgh to Pekin, we shall hardly meet with

a mountain on the road through Independent Tartary; and from Petersburg to the north part of France, by the road of Dantzic, Hamburgh, and Amsterdam, we scarcely can perceive the smallest hill.

The most considerable rivers are the Wolga, or Volga, running east and south, which, after traversing the greatest part of Muscovy, and winding a course of 3000 English miles, discharges itself into the Caspian Sea. It is reckoned one of the most fertile rivers of Europe; producing many kinds of fish, and fertilising all the lands on each side with various trees, fruits, and vegetables; and it is remarkable, that in all this long course there is not a single cataract to interrupt the navigation; but the nearer it approaches to its mouth, the number of its illes increaseth, and it divides itself into a greater number of arms than any known river in the world: all these arms divide themselves into others still less, which join and meet again, so that the Wolga discharges itself into the Caspian sea by more than 70 mouths. By means of this noble river, the city of Moscow preserves a communication, not only with all the southern parts of Russia, but even with Persia, Georgia, Tartary, and other countries bordering on the Caspian Sea. The Don, or Tanais, divides the most eastern part of Russia from Asia, and, in its course towards the east, approaches so near the Wolga, that the late czar had undertaken to form a communication between them by means of a canal: this grand project, however, was defeated by the irruption of the Tartars. This river, exclusive of its turnings and windings, discharges itself into the Palus Mæotis, or sea of Asoph, about four hundred miles from its rise. The Borysthenes, or Dnieper, which is likewise one of the largest rivers in Europe, runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Cossacs, and that of the Nagaisch Tartars, and falls into the Euxine or Black Sea, at Kinburn, near Oczakow; it has thirteen cataracts within a small distance. To these may be added the two Dwinas, one of which empties itself at Riga into the Baltic; the other has its source near Ustiaga, and, dividing itself into two branches near Archangel, there falls into the White Sea.

Forests abound in this extensive country; and the northern and north-eastern provinces are in a manner desert; nor can the few inhabitants they contain be called Christians rather than pagans.

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

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

caviare, so much esteemed for its richness and flavour, that it is often sent in presents to crowned heads. In cutting up the belugas, they often find what is called the beluga-stone, which is concealed in that mass of glandular flesh which covers the posterior parts of the dorsal spine, supplying the place of a kidney in fish. The instant it is taken from the fish, it is soft and moist, but quickly hardens in the air. Its size is that of a hen's egg; in shape it is sometimes oval and sometimes flattened, and commonly sells for a ruble. This stone is supposed by professor Pallas to belong to the genitals of the fish; it holds a considerable rank, though with little merit, among the domestic remedies of the Russians, who scrape it, and, mixed with water, give it in difficult labours, in the diseases of children, and other disorders.

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The new register in 1764 contains 8,500,000 subject to the poll-tax; and a late ingenious writer, resident some time in Russia, gives the following estimate:

Lower class of people paying capitation-tax,	18,000,000
Conquered provinces,	1,200,000
Noble families,	60,000
Clergy,	100,000
Military,	360,000
Civil,	30,000
Ukraine, Siberia, Cossacs, &c.	350,000
	<hr/>
	20,100,000

To these must now be added near a million more by the acquisitions of the Crimea, and a part of Cuban Tartary; and at least, 1,500,000 in the provinces dismembered from Poland.

As her imperial majesty of all the Russias possesses many of the countries whence the prodigious swarms of barbarians who overthrew the Roman empire issued, there is the strongest reason to believe that her dominions must have been better peopled formerly than they are at present; twenty-four millions are but a thin population for the immense tract of country she possesses. Perhaps the introduction of the small-pox and the venereal disease may have assisted in the depopulation; it is probable, also, that the prodigious quantity of strong and spirituous liquors, consumed by the inhabitants of the north, is unfriendly to generation.

The Russians, properly so called, are in general a personable people, hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour, especially in the field, to an incredible degree. Their complexions differ little from those of the English or Scots; but the women think that an addition of red heightens their beauty. Their eye-sight seems to be defective, occasioned, probably, by the snow, which for a long time of the year is continually present to their eyes. Their officers and soldiers always possessed a large share of passive valour; but, in the late war with the king of Prussia, they proved as active as any troops in Europe; and in the late war with the Turks greatly distinguished themselves. They are implicitly submissive to discipline, let it be ever so severe; endure extreme hardships with great patience; and can content themselves with very hard fare.

Before the days of Peter the Great, the Russians were in general barbarous, ignorant, mean, and much addicted to drunkenness; no less than 4000 brandy-shops have been reckoned in Moscow. Not only the common people, but many of the boyars, or nobles, lived in a continual state of idleness and intoxication; and the most complete objects

of misery and barbarity appeared in the streets, while the court of Moscow was the most splendid of any upon the globe. The czar and the grandees dressed after the most superb Asiatic manner; and their magnificence was astonishing. The earl of Carlisle, in the account of his embassy, says, that he could see nothing but gold and precious stones in the robes of the czar and his courtiers. The manufactures, however, of those and all other luxuries, were carried on by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners. Peter saw the bulk of his subjects, at his accession to the throne, little better than beasts of burden, destined to support the pomp of the court. He forced his great men to lay aside their long robes, and dress in the European manner; and even obliged the laity to cut off their beards. The Russians, before his time, had scarcely a ship upon their coasts. They had no convenience for travelling, no pavements in their streets, no places of public diversion; and they entertained a sovereign contempt for all improvements of the mind. At present a French or English gentleman may make a shift to live as comfortably and sociably in Russia as in most other parts of Europe. Their polite assemblies, since the accession of the late empress, have been put under proper regulations; and few of the ancient usages remain. It is, however, to be observed, that, notwithstanding the severities of Peter, and the prudence of succeeding governments, drunkenness still continues among all ranks; nor are even priests or ladies ashamed of it on holidays.

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

It is said that the Russian ladies were formerly as submissive to their husbands in their families as the latter are to their superiors in the field; and that they thought themselves ill treated if they were not often reminded of their duty by the discipline of a whip, manufactured by themselves, which they presented to their husbands on the day of their marriage. Their nuptial ceremonies are peculiar to themselves; and formerly consisted of some very whimsical rites, many of which are now disused. When the parents have agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never seen each other, the bride is critically examined by a certain number of females, who are to correct, if possible, any defect they find in her person. On her wedding-day she is crowned with a garland of wormwood; and after the priest has tied the nuptial knot, his clerk or sexton throws a handful of hops upon her head, wishing that she may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then led home, with abundance of coarse and indeed indecent ceremonies, which are now wearing off even amongst the lowest ranks; and the barbarous treatment of wives by their husbands, which extended even to scourging or broiling them to death, is either guarded against by the laws of the country, or by particular stipulations in the marriage contract.

FUNERALS.] The Russians entertain many fantastic notions with regard to the state of departed souls. After the dead body is dressed, a priest is hired to pray for the soul, to purify the corpse with incense, and to sprinkle it with holy water while it remains above ground, which, among the better sort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many gesticulations of

forrow, the priest produces a ticket, signed by their bishop and another clergyman, as the deceased's passport to heaven. This is put into the coffin, between the fingers of the corpse; after which the company return to the deceased's house, where they drown their sorrow in intoxication, which lasts, among the better sort, with a few intervals, forty days. During that time a priest every day recites prayers over the grave of the deceased: for though the Russians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be assisted by prayer, in his long journey to the place of his destination after this life.

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

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

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

TRAVELLING.] Among the many conveniencies introduced of late into Russia, that of travelling is extremely remarkable, and the expense very trifling. Like their Scandinavian neighbours, the Russians travel in sledges made of the bark of the linden tree, lined with thick felt, drawn by rein-deer, when the snow is frozen hard enough to bear them. In the internal parts of Russia, horses draw their sledges; and the sledge-way, towards February, becomes so well beaten, that they erect a kind

of coach upon the sledges, in which they may lie at full length, and so travel night and day, wrapt up in good furs; thus they often perform a journey of about 400 miles, such as that between Peterburgh and Moscow, in three days and nights. Her late imperial majesty, in her journeys, was drawn in a house which contained a bed, a table, chairs, and other conveniences, for four people, by 24 post-horses; and the house itself was fixed on a sledge.

DIFFERENT NATIONS } As the present subjects of the Russian em-
SUBJECT TO RUSSIA. } pire, in its most extensive sense, are the descendants of many different people, and inhabit prodigious tracts of country, so we find among them a vast variety of character and manners: and the great reformations introduced of late years, as well as the discoveries made, render former accounts to be but little depended upon. Many of the Tartars, who inhabit large portions of the Russian dominions, now live in fixed houses and villages, cultivate the land, and pay tribute like other subjects. Till lately, they were not admitted into the Russian armies; but now they make excellent soldiers. Other Russian Tartars retain their old wandering lives. Both sides of the Wolga are inhabited by Tschermises and Morduars, a peaceable, industrious people. The Balkirs are likewise fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Kafan to the frontiers of Siberia; and have certain privileges, of which they are tenacious. The wandering Kalmucs occupy the rest of the tract to Astracan, and the frontiers of the Usbeks; and, in consideration of certain presents they receive from the sovereigns of Russia, they serve in their armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends and foes.

The *Cossacs* who lately made a figure in the military history of Europe, were originally Polish peasants, and served in the Ukraine, as a militia against the Tartars. Being oppressed by their unfeeling lords, a part of them moved to the uncultivated banks of the Don or Tanaïs, and there established a colony. They were soon after joined, in 1637, by two other detachments of their countrymen; and they reduced Asoph, which they were obliged to abandon to the Turks, after laying it in ashes. They next put themselves under the protection of the Russians, built Circaska, on an island in the Don; and their possessions, which consisted of thirty-nine towns on both sides that river, reached from Ribna to Asoph. They cultivated the country, but were so wedded to their original customs, that they were little better than nominal subjects to the czars, till the time of Peter the Great. They professed the Greek religion; their inclinations were warlike, and they occasionally served against the Tartars and Turks on the Palus Mæoticis.

The character of the Tartars of Kafan may serve for that of all the Mahometan Tartars in their neighbourhood. Very few of them are tall; but they are generally straight and well made, have small faces, with fresh complexions, and a sprightly and agreeable air. They are haughty and jealous of their honour, but of very moderate capacity. They are sober and frugal, dexterous at mechanical trades, and fond of neatness. The Tartarian women are of a wholesome complexion rather than handsome, and of a good constitution: from their earliest infancy they are accustomed to labour, retirement, modesty, and submission. The Tartars of Kafan take great care of the education of their children. They habituate their youth to labour, to sobriety, and to a strict observance of the manners of their ancestors. They are taught to read and write, and are instructed in the Arabic tongue, and the principles of their religion. Even the smallest village has its chapel, school, priest, and

school-master; though some of these priests and schoolmasters are not much skilled in the Arabic language. The best Tartarian academies in the Russian empire are those of Kafan, Tobolsk, and Astracan, which are under the direction of the gagouns, or high-priests. It is not uncommon to find small collections of historical anecdotes in manuscript, in the huts of the boors: and their merchants, besides what those little libraries contain, are pretty extensively acquainted with the history of their own people, and that of the circumjacent states, with the antiquities of each. Such as choose to make a progress in theology, enter themselves into the schools of Bougharia, which are more complete than the others.

The Tartar citizens of Kafan, Orenberg, and other governments, carry on commerce, exercise several trades, and have some manufactories. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter; coin is very rarely seen among them, and bills of exchange never. They are not in general very enterprising; but as they extend their connections by partners and clerks, many of them carry on a great deal of business, which their parsimonious way of life renders very lucrative. At Kafan they make a trade of preparing what is called in England, Morocco-leather. The villages of these people comprehend from ten to one hundred farms. Most of them also contain tanners, shoe-makers, tailors, dyers, smiths, and carpenters.

The habitations and manner of living of the Tartar citizens and villagers of Astracan are perfectly similar with those of the Tartars of Kafan. In the city of Astracan they have a large magazine for goods, built of bricks, and several shops upon arches. They carry on an important commerce with the Armenians, Persians, Indians, Bougharians: and their manufactories of Morocco leather, cotton, camelots, and silks, are in a very thriving state.

The *Finn*s are of Asiatic origin, and have a close resemblance to the Laplanders, but are more civilised, and better informed. They live in towns and villages, have schools and academies, and have made some progress in the arts and sciences. They profess the Lutheran faith, and use the Christian æra in their chronology. They carry on commerce, and exercise most of the common trades. The boors are chiefly employed in agriculture, hunting, and fishing. They are great eaters, making five meals a day, and are immoderately fond of brandy. They enjoy a considerable degree of freedom, as the Russian government has continued to them the enjoyment of the privileges which they formerly had under the crown of Sweden.

The *Votiaks*, who are a Finnish race, chiefly inhabit the province of Viatka, in the government of Kafan. Some of the Votiaks are Christians, but great part of them are heathens and idolaters; though even these believe the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments.

The *Ostiaks*, who are likewise a Finnish race, are one of the most numerous nations of Siberia. Before they were in subjection to Russia, they were governed by princes of their own nation, and their descendants are still reputed noble. These people divide themselves into different stocks or tribes: they choose their chiefs from among the progeny of their ancient rulers. These maintain peace and good order, and superintend the payment of the taxes. They are entirely unacquainted with the use of letters, and are extremely ignorant; they can reckon as far as ten, but no farther, as is the case of other Finnish nations.

The *Nogouls* are rather below the middle stature, have generally black hair, and a scanty beard. Their principal occupation is the chase, in

which they discover much eagerness and address; using indiscriminately fire-arms, the bow, and the spear. They are also skilful in contriving traps, snares, and gins, and all the lures of game.

The *Tschouwasches* dwell along the two sides of the Wolga, in the governments of Wischnai-Novogorod, Kafan, and Orenberg. They never live in towns, but assemble in small villages, and choose the forests for their habitations. They are very fond of hunting, and procure for that purpose screw-barrel muskets, which they prefer to the bow. One of their marriage ceremonies is, that on the wedding night the bride is obliged to pull off her husband's boots. A late writer says, "Among the Tschouwasches the husband is master of the house; he orders every thing himself; and it is the duty of the wife to obey without reply."

The *Kirguisians* have a frank and prepossessing air, similar to that which characterises the Tartars of Kafan. They have a sharp but not a fierce look, and smaller eyes than those Tartars. They have good natural sense, and are affable, and high-spirited, but fond of their ease, and voluptuous. They dwell always in portable huts, wandering about their deserts in search of pasturage for their flocks and herds, which constitutes their principal occupation. The decoration of their horses employs them almost as much as that of their persons; they having generally elegant saddles, handsome housings, and ornamented bridles. They are great eaters; and they also smoke tobacco to excess. Men, women, and children, all smoke, and take snuff: they keep the latter in little horns fastened to their girdles. The great and wealthy live perfectly in the same manner as the rest of the people, and are distinguished only by the numerous train that accompanies them in their cavalcades, and the quantity of huts which surround their quarters, inhabited by their wives, children, and slaves.

The *Tungusians* form one of the most numerous nations of Siberia. They are of a middle stature, well made, and of a good mien. Their sight and hearing are of a degree of acuteness and delicacy that is almost incredible; but their organs of smelling and feeling are considerably more blunt than ours. They are acquainted with almost every tree and stone within the circuit of their usual perambulation; and they can even describe a course of some hundred miles by the configurations of the trees and stones they meet with, and can enable others to take the same route by such descriptions. They also discover the tracks of the game by the compression of the grass or moss. They learn foreign languages with ease, are alert on horseback, good hunters, and dexterous at the bow.

The *Kalmucs* are a courageous tribe, and numerous; for the most part raw-boned and stout. Their visage is so flat, that the skull of a Kalmuc may be easily known from others. They have thick lips, a small nose, and a short chin, the complexion a reddish and yellowish brown. Their cloathing is oriental, and their heads are exactly Chinese. Some of their women wear a large golden ring in their nostrils. Their principal food is animals, tame and wild, and even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of distemper or age, and though the flesh be putrid; so that in every horde the flesh-market has the appearance of a lay-stall of carion; they eat likewise the roots and plants of their deserts. They are great eaters, but can endure want for a long time without complaint. Both sexes smoke continually: during the summer they remain in the northern, and in the winter in the southern deserts. They sleep upon felt or carpeting, and cover themselves with the same.

The *Kamtschadales* have a lively imagination, a strong memory, and

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a great genius for imitation. Their chief employments are hunting and fishing. The chase furnishes them with fables, foxes, and other game. They are very expert at fishing, and are well acquainted with the proper seasons for it. They eat and drink great quantities; but as what they eat is always cold, their teeth are very fine. Dogs are their only domestic animals, and they put a high value upon them. Some of them travel in small carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtschadalian equipage, dogs, harness, and all, costs in that country near twenty rubles, or 4l. 10s. The Kamtschadales believed the immortality of the soul, before they were prevailed upon to embrace the Christian religion. They are superstitious to extravagance, and extremely singular and capricious in the different enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments.

The manners of the *Siberians* were formerly so barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater punishment upon his capital enemies, the Swedes, than by banishing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swedish officers and soldiers introduced European usages and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living. In this forlorn region, so long unknown to Europe, some new mines have lately been discovered, which, upon their first opening, have yielded 45,000 pounds of fine silver, said to have been obtained with little difficulty or expense. But Kamtschatka is now considered as the most horrid place of exile in the vast empire of Russia; and here some of the greatest criminals are sent.

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

The conquered provinces, as already observed, retain the exercise of their own religion; but such is the extent of the Russian empire, that many of its subjects are Mahometans; and more of them no better than

pagans, in Siberia and the uncultivated countries. Many ill-judged attempts have been made to convert them by force, which have only tended to confirm them in their infidelity. On the banks of the river Sarpa, is a flourishing colony of Moravian brethren, to which the founders have given the name of Sarepta; the beginning of the settlement was in 1765, with distinguished privileges from the imperial court.

[LANGUAGE.] The common language of Russia is a mixture of the Polish and Slavonian; their priests, however, and the most learned clergy, make use of what is called modern Greek; and they who are acquainted with the ancient language in its purity, may easily acquire the knowledge of it in its corrupted state. The Russians have thirty-six letters, the forms of which have a strong resemblance to the old Greek alphabet.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Russians have hitherto made but an inconsiderable figure in the republic of letters: but the great encouragement lately given by their sovereigns, in the institution of academies and other literary boards, has produced sufficient proofs that they are no way deficient in intellectual abilities. The papers exhibited by them at their academical meetings have been favourably received all over Europe; especially those that relate to astronomy, the mathematics, and natural philosophy. The speeches pronounced by the bishop of Turer, the metropolitan of Novogorod, the vice-chancellor, and the marshal, at the opening of the commission for a new code of laws, are elegant and classical; and the progress which learning has made in that empire since the beginning of this century, with the specimens of literature published both at Peterburgh and Moscow, is an evidence that the Russians are not unqualified to shine in the arts and sciences. The efforts to civilise them did not begin with Peter the Great, but were much older. A small glimmering, like the first day-break, was seen under czar Iwan, in the middle of the 16th century. This became more conspicuous under Alexis Michaelowitz; but under Peter it burst forth with the splendor of a rising sun, and has continued ever since to ascend towards its meridian.

[UNIVERSITIES.] Three colleges were founded by Peter the Great at Moscow; one for classical learning and philosophy, the second for mathematics, and the third for navigation and astronomy. To these he added a dispensary, which is a magnificent building, and under the care of some able German chemists and apothecaries, who furnish medicines not only to the army but all over the kingdom. And within these few years, Mr. de Shoreslow, high chamberlain to the empress Elizabeth, daughter to Peter the Great, has founded an university in this city. The late empress Catharine II. also founded an university at Petersburg, and invited some of the most learned foreigners in every faculty, who are provided with good salaries; and also a military academy, where the young nobility and officers' sons are taught the art of war. It ought also to be mentioned, to the honour of the same royal benefactress, that she founded a number of schools for the education of the lower classes of her subjects, throughout the best inhabited parts of the empire.

[CITIES, TOWNS, PALACES, } Petersburg naturally takes the lead in
AND OTHER BUILDINGS. } this division. It lies at the junction of
the Neva with the lake Ladoga already mentioned, in latitude 60; but the reader may have a better idea of its situation, by being informed that it stands on both sides the river Neva, between that lake and the bottom of the Finland gulf. In the year 1703, this city consisted of a few small sitting huts, on a spot so waterish and swampy, that the ground was formed into nine islands, by which its principal quarters are still di-

vided. Without entering into too minute a description of this wonderful city, it is sufficient to say that it extends about six miles every way, and contains every structure for magnificence, the improvement of the arts, revenue, navigation, war, commerce, and the like, that are to be found in the most celebrated cities in Europe. But there is a convent which deserves particular notice, in which 440 young ladies are educated; 200 of them of superior rank, and the others, daughters of citizens and tradesmen, who, after a certain time allotted to their education, quit the convent with improvements suitable to their conditions of life; and those of the lower class are presented with a sum of money, as a dowry if they marry, or to procure to themselves a proper livelihood. Near to this convent is a foundling hospital, assistant to that noble one established at Moscow, and where the mother may come to be delivered privately; after which she leaves the child to the state, as a parent more capable of promoting its welfare.

As Petersburg is the emporium of Russia, the number of foreign ships trading to it in the summer-time is surprising. In winter 3000 one-horse sledges are employed for passengers in the streets. It is supposed that there are 150,000 inhabitants in this city; and it is ornamented with thirty-five great churches; for in it almost every sect of the Christian religion is tolerated. It also contains five palaces, some of which are superb, particularly that which is called the New Summer Palace, near the Triumphal Port, which is an elegant piece of architecture. This magnificent city is defended on the side next the sea by the fortress of Cronstadt, which, considering the difficulty and danger of navigating a large naval force through the gulf of Finland, is sufficient to guard it on that side from the attempts of any enemy. Petersburg is the capital of the province of Ingria, one of Peter the Great's conquests from the Swedes. In the neighbourhood of this city are numerous country-houses and gardens.

The city of Moscow was formerly the glory of this great empire, and it still continues considerable enough to figure among the capitals of Europe. It stands, as has been already mentioned, on the river from which it takes its name, in lat. 55-45, and about 1414 miles north-east of London. Though its streets are not regular, it presents a very picturesque appearance; for it contains such a number of gardens, groves, lawns, and streams, that it seems rather to be a cultivated country, than a city. The ancient magnificence of this city would be incredible, were it not attested by the most unquestionable authors; but we are to make great allowances for the uncultivated state of the adjacent provinces, which might have made it appear with a greater lustre in a traveller's eyes. Neither Voltaire nor Busching gives us any satisfactory account of this capital; and little credit is to be given to the authors who divide it into regular quarters, each quarter inhabited by a different order or profession. Busching speaks of it as the largest city in Europe; but that can be only meant as to the ground it stands on, computed to be sixteen miles in circumference. It is generally admitted, that Moscow contains 1600 churches and convents, and forty-three palaces or squares. The merchants' exchange, according to Busching, contains about 6000 fine shops, which display a vast parade of commerce, especially to and from China. No city exhibits a greater contrast than Moscow, of magnificence and meanness in building. The houses of the inhabitants in general are miserable timber booths; but their palaces, churches, convents, and other public edifices, are spacious and lofty. The Kremlin, or grand imperial palace, is mentioned as one

of the most superb structures in the world: it stands in the interior circle of the city, and contains the old imperial palace, pleasure-house, and stables, a victualling-house, the palace which formerly belonged to the patriarch, nine cathedrals, five convents, four parish-churches, the arsenal, with the public colleges, and other offices. All the churches in the Kremlin have beautiful spires, most of them gilt, or covered with silver; the architecture is in the Gothic taste; but the insides of the churches are richly ornamented; and the pictures of the saints are decorated with gold, silver, and precious stones. The cathedral has nine towers covered with copper double gilt, and contains a silver branch with forty-eight lights, said to weigh 2800 pounds. A volume would scarcely suffice to recount the other particulars of the magnificence of this city. Its sumptuous monuments of the great dukes and czars, the magazine, the patriarchal palace, the exchequer, and chancery, are noble structures. They have a barbarous anecdote, that the czar John Basilides ordered the architect of the church of Jerusalem to be deprived of his eye-sight, that he might never contrive its equal. The jewels and ornaments of an image of the virgin Mary, in the Kremlin church, and its other furniture, can be only equalled by what is seen at the famous Holy House of Loretto in Italy. Mr. Voltaire says, that Peter, who was attentive to every thing, did not neglect Moscow at the time he was building Petersburg: for he caused it to be paved, adorned it with noble edifices, and enriched it with manufactures.

The foundling hospital at Moscow is an excellent institution, and appears to be under very judicious regulations. It was founded by the late empress, and is supported by voluntary contributions, legacies, and other charitable endowments. It is an immense pile of building, of a quadrangular shape, and contains 3000 foundlings: when completed, it is intended to contain 8000. They are taken great care of; and at the age of fourteen have the liberty of choosing any trade; for which purpose there are different species of manufactures established in the hospital. When they have gone through a certain apprenticeship, or have arrived at the age of twenty, they are allowed the liberty of setting up for themselves: a sum of money is bestowed upon each foundling for that purpose, and they are permitted to carry on trade in any part of the Russian empire. This is a very considerable privilege in Russia, where the peasants are slaves, and cannot leave their villages without the permission of their masters.

Nothing can be said with certainty as to the population of Moscow. When lord Carlisle was the English ambassador there in the reign of Charles II. this city was twelve miles in compass, and the number of houses was computed at 40,000. When Voltaire wrote, Moscow was twenty miles in circumference, and its inhabitants amounted to 500,000. Mr. Coxe confirms the account of the circumference of this city, but thinks the estimate of its population much exaggerated: according to an account which was given to him by an English gentleman, which he received from a lieutenant of the police, and which he says may be relied on, Moscow contains within the ramparts 250,000 souls, and in the adjacent villages 50,000.

CURIOSITIES.] This article affords no great entertainment, as Russia has but lately been admitted into the rank of civilised nations. She can, however, produce many stupendous monuments of the public spirit of her sovereigns; particularly her canals made by Peter the Great, for the benefit of commerce. Siberia is full of old sepulchres of an un-

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known nation, whose instruments and arms were all made of copper. In the cabinet of natural history at Petersburg, is a rhinoceros, dug up on the banks of the river Valui, with his skin, and the hair upon it, perfect. The Russians are extremely fond of the ringing of bells, which are always to be heard tinkling in every quarter. The great bell of Moscow weighs, according to Mr. Coxe, "432,000 pounds, and exceeds in bigness every bell in the known world. Its size is so enormous," says that writer, "that I could scarcely have given credit to the account of its magnitude, if I had not examined it myself, and ascertained its dimensions with great exactness. Its height is nineteen feet, its circumference at the bottom "twenty-one yards eleven inches, its greatest thickness twenty-three inches." It was cast in the reign of the empress Anne: but the beam on which it hung, being burnt, it fell, and a large piece is broken out of it; so that it lately lay in a manner useless. Mr. Bruce in his Memoirs mentions a bell at Moscow founded in the czar Boris's time, nineteen feet high, twenty-three in diameter, and two in thickness, and weighing 336,000 pounds. The building of Petersburg, and raising it on a sudden from a few fishing huts to be a populous and rich city, is perhaps an enterprise hardly to be paralleled in antiquity. The same may be said of the fortress of Cronstadt, in the neighbourhood of Petersburg, which is almost impregnable. This fortress and city employed for some years 300,000 men in laying its foundation, and driving piles night and day; a work which no monarch in Europe (Peter excepted) could have executed. The whole plan, with a very little assistance from some German engineers, was drawn by his own hand. Equally wonderful was the navy which he raised to his people, at the time when they could hardly be said to have possessed a ship in any part of the globe. What is more wonderful than all, he often wrought in person in all those amazing works, with the same assiduity as if he had been a common labourer.

COMMERCE, AND MA- } According to the best information, the an-
RITIME FORCE. } nual exports of Russia at present amount to
about £.2,400,000, and her imports do not exceed £.1,600,000, so that
the balance of trade is yearly £.800,000 sterling in her favour.*

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

Her foreign commerce is much increased since her conquests from Sweden, especially of Livonia and Ingria, and since the establishing of the new emporium of Petersburg, whereby her naval intercourse with Europe is made much more short and easy. The Ukraine may be called the granary of the empire: the best corn, hemp, flax, honey, and wax, come from this fertile province, and 10,000 head of horned cattle are annually sent from its pastures into Silesia and Saxony.

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

* Coxe's Travels, vol. ii. p. 247.

Persia by Astracan, across the Caspian sea, for raw and wrought silk. The late empress, in 1784, issued an edict, permitting all foreigners to carry on a free trade by sea and land with the several countries bordering on the Euxine, which have been lately annexed to the empire. The same privileges, religious and civil, are allowed to them in the ports of Cherson, Sebastopolis, and Theodosia (formerly Caffa) in the province of Taurica, as in Petersburgh.

Before the time of Peter the Great, Archangel, which lies upon the White Sea, was the only port of naval communication which Russia had with the rest of Europe; but it was subject to a long and tempestuous voyage. They have now thirteen ports, Archangel, Petersburgh, Riga, Revel, Pernéau, Narva, Wibourg, Fredericsham, Astracan, and Kola, and the three opened in their new conquests. This town is about three English miles in length, and one in breadth, built all of wood, excepting the exchange, which is of stone. Notwithstanding the decrease of the trade of Archangel by building Petersburgh, it still exports a considerable quantity of merchandise. Their masts and timber for the dock-yards come chiefly from the forests of Kasan, that border on the province of Astracan.

The army is generally calculated to amount to from 400 to 450,000 men: according to Busching, it amounted, in 1772, to above 600,000; and, according to an estimate taken in 1784, it then amounted to 368,901.

The present state of the Russian navy, according to a late list, is 36 men of war of the line, 25 frigates, 101 galleys, 10 prames from 50 to 24 guns, two bombs, seven pinks, &c. It has been related that, in 1785, there were 48 ships of the line at Cronstadt, and 12 ships of the line in the Black Sea. Fifteen thousand sailors are kept in constant pay and service, either on board the ships, or in the dock-yards. The harbour at Cronstadt, seven leagues from Petersburgh, is defended on one side by a fort of four bastions, and on the other by a battery of 100 pieces of cannon. The canal and large basin will contain near 600 sail of ships.

**GOVERNMENT, LAWS, AND } The sovereign of the Russian empire
DISTINCTION OF RANK. } is absolute and despotic in the fullest
extent of those terms, and master of the lives and properties of all his
subjects, who, though they are of the first nobility, or have been highly
instrumental in promoting the welfare of the state, may notwithstanding,
for the most trifling offence, or even for no offence at all, be seized
upon and sent to Siberia, or made to drudge for life upon the public
works, and have all their goods confiscated, whenever the sovereign or
his ministers shall think proper. Persons of any rank may be banished
into Siberia, for the slightest political intrigue; and their possessions be-
ing confiscated, a whole family may at once be ruined by the insinua-
tions of an artful courtier. The secret court of chancery, which was
a tribunal composed of a few ministers chosen by the sovereign, had the
lives and fortunes of all families at their mercy. But this court was
suppressed by Peter III.**

The system of civil laws at present established in Russia is very imperfect, and in many instances barbarous and unjust; being an assemblage of laws and regulations drawn from most of the states of Europe, all digested, and in many respects not at all adapted to the genius of the Russian nation. But the late empress made some attempts to reform the laws, and put them upon a better footing. The courts of justice were in general very corrupt, and those by whom it was administered extremely ignorant; but the judicious regulations of Catharine II. fix-

ed a certain salary to the office of judge, which before depended on the contributions of the unhappy clients; and thus the poor were without hope or remedy.

The distinctions of rank form a considerable part of the Russian constitution. The late empress took the title of Autocratrix, which implies that they owed their dignity to no earthly power. Their ancient nobility were divided into knezes or knazes, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were sovereigns upon their own estates, till they were reduced by the czar: but they still retain the name. The boyars were nobility under the knezes; and the vaivods were governors of provinces. Those titles, however, so often revived the ideas of their ancient power, that the late empresses introduced among their subjects the titles of counts and princes, and the other distinctions of nobility that are common to the rest of Europe.

REVENUE AND EXPENSES.] Nothing certain can be said concerning the revenues of this mighty empire; but they are, undoubtedly, at present, far superior to what they were in former times, even under Peter the Great. The vast exertions for promoting industry, made by his successors, especially her late imperial majesty, must have greatly added to their income, which is little less than 30,000,000 of rubles, or nearly six millions sterling annually; thus computed:

	Rubles,
Capitation tax	8,500,000
Other taxes and duties	7,000,000
Her own estates, with other domains taken from the clergy	6,000,000
Produce of the mines	1,500,000
Monopoly of distilled liquors	4,000,000
Monopoly of salt	1,800,000
	28,800,000

According to Mr. Plefcheef's computation, published in English by the reverend Mr. Smirnov, the revenues of Russia exceed 40,000,000 of rubles; and the expenses, even in time of war, are said not to amount to 30,000,000.

When this sum is considered relatively, that is, according to the high value of money in that empire, compared to its low value in Great Britain, it will be found a very considerable revenue. That it is so, appears from the vast armies maintained and paid by the two late empresses, in Germany, Poland, and elsewhere, when no part of the money returned to Russia; nor do we find that they received any considerable subsidy from the houses of Bourbon and Austria, who, indeed, were in no condition to grant them any. In 1733, reckoning the tribute paid by the Tartars, with all taxes and duties in money, the sum total is said to have amounted only to thirteen millions of rubles (each ruble amounting to 4s. 6d. sterling). This income was at that time sufficient to maintain 339,500 men, employed in the land and sea service. The other expenses, beside the payment of the army and navy of the late empress, the number and discipline of which were at least equal to those of her greatest predecessors, were very considerable. Her court was elegant and magnificent; her guards and attendants splendid; and the encouragement she gave to learning, the improvement of the arts, and useful discoveries, cost her vast sums, exclusive of her ordinary expenses of state.

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

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

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

HISTORY.] It is evident, both from ancient history and modern discoveries, that some of the most neglected parts of the Russian empire at present, were formerly rich and populous. The reader who casts his eyes on a general map of Europe and Asia, may see the advantages of their situation, and their communication by rivers with the Black Sea, and the richest provinces in the Roman and Greek empires. In later times, the Asiatic part of Russia bordered on Samarcand in Tartary, once the capital, under Jenghis Khan and Tamerlane, of a far more rich and powerful empire than any mentioned in history; and nothing is more certain than that the conquest of Russia was among the last attempts made by the former of those princes. The chronicles of this empire reach no higher than the ninth century; but they have a tradition, that Kiovia and Novogorod were founded by Kii in the year 430. This Kii is by some considered as an ancient prince, while others mention him as a simple boatman, who used to transport goods and passengers across the Neiper. For a long time the chief or ruler had the title of grand duke of Kiow. We cannot, with the smallest degree of probability, carry our conjectures, with regard to the history of Russia, higher than the introduction of Christianity, which happened about the tenth century; when the princess of this country, called Olba, is said to have been baptised at Constantinople, and refused the hand of the Greek emperor, John Zimisces, in marriage. This accounts for the Russians adopting the Greek religion, and part of the alphabet. Photius, the famous Greek patriarch, sent priests to baptise the Russians, who were for some time subject to the see of Constantinople; but the Greek patriarchs afterwards resigned all their authority over

the Russian church; and its bishops erected themselves into patriarchs, who were in a manner independent of the civil power. It is certain, that, till the year 1450, the princes of Russia were but very little considered, being chiefly subjected by the Tartars. About this time John or Iwan Basildes conquered the Tartars, and, among others, the duke of Great Novogorod, from whom he is said to have taken 300 cart-loads of gold and silver. His prosperous reign of forty years gave a new aspect to Russia.

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

These impostures prove the despicable state of ignorance in which the Russians were immersed. The country became by turns a prey to the Poles and the Swedes, but was at length delivered by the good sense of the boyars, impelled by their despair, so late as the year 1613. The independency of Russia was then on the point of being extinguished. Uladislaus, son of Sigismund II. of Poland, had been declared czar; but the tyranny of the Poles was such, that it produced a general rebellion of the Russians, who drove the Poles out of Moscow, where they had for some time defended themselves with unexampled courage. Philaret, archbishop of Rostow, whose wife was descended from the ancient sovereigns of Russia, had been sent ambassador to Poland by Demetrius one of the Russian tyrants, and there was detained prisoner under pretence that his countrymen had rebelled against Uladislaus. The boyars met in a body; and such was their veneration for Philaret, and his wife, whom the tyrant had shut up in a nunnery, that they elected their son Michael Fædorowitz, of the house of Romanoff, a youth of 15 years of age, to be their sovereign. The father being exchanged for some Polish prisoners, returned to Russia; and being created patriarch by his son, he reigned in the young man's right with great prudence and success. He defeated the attempts of the Poles to replace Uladislaus upon the throne, and likewise the claim of a brother of Gustavus Adolphus. The claims of the Swedes and Poles upon Russia occasioned a war between those two people, which gave Michael a kind of breathing time; and he made use of it for the benefit of his subjects. He reigned thirty-three years; and by his wisdom, and the

mildness of his character, restored ease and tranquillity to his subjects. It here may be proper to mention the mode of the czar's nuptials, which could not be introduced into the miscellaneous customs of the nation. His czarish majesty's intention to marry being known, the most celebrated beauties of his dominions were sent for to court, and there entertained. They were visited by the czar, and the most magnificent nuptial preparations were made, before the happy lady was declared, by sending her magnificent jewels and a wedding robe. The rest of the candidates were then dismissed to their several homes, with suitable presents. The name of the lady's father who pleased Michael, was Strefchnien; and he was ploughing his own farm when it was announced to him that he was father-in-law to the czar.

Alexius succeeded his father Michael, and was married in the same manner. He appears to have been a prince of great genius. He recovered Smoleńsko, Kïow, and the Ukraine, but was unfortunate in his wars with the Swedes. When the grand signor, Mahomet IV. haughtily demanded some possessions from him in the Ukraine, his answer was, "that he scorned to submit to a Mahometan dog, and that his scymitar was as good as the grand signor's sabre." He promoted agriculture, introduced into his empire arts and sciences, of which he was himself a lover; published a code of laws, some of which are still used in the administration of justice; and greatly improved his army by establishing discipline. This he effected chiefly by the help of strangers, most of whom were Scotch. He subdued a chief of the Don Cossaks, named Stenko Rasin, who endeavoured to make himself king of Astracan; and the rebel, with 12,000 of his adherents, were hanged on the high roads. He introduced linen and silk manufactures into his dominions; and, instead of putting to death or enslaving his Lithuanian, Polish, and Tartar prisoners, he sent them to people the banks of the Wolga and the Kama. Theodore succeeded his father Alexius in 1667. He reigned seven years; and having on his death-bed called his boyars around him, in the presence of his brother and sister, Iwan and Sophia, and of Peter, who was afterwards so celebrated, and who was his half-brother, he said to them, "Hear my last sentiments; they are dictated by my love for the state, and by my affection for my people. The bodily infirmities of Iwan necessarily must affect his mental faculties; he is incapable of ruling an empire like that of Russia; he cannot take it amiss if I recommend to you to set him aside, and let your approbation fall on Peter, who to a robust constitution joins great strength of mind, and marks of a superior understanding." But this wise destination extremely offended the princess Sophia, who was a woman of great ambition, and who, after the death of Theodore, found means to excite a horrible sedition among the Strelitzes, who then formed the standing army of Russia. Their excesses surpassed all description; but Sophia, by her management, replaced her brother Iwan in his birthright, and exercised the government herself with the greatest severity and inhumanity; for all the Russian grandees who were related to Peter, or whom she supposed to favour him, were put to cruel deaths. The instances given of her barbarous administration are shocking to humanity. At length, in 1682, the two princes, Iwan and Peter, were declared joint sovereigns, and their sister, their associate co-regent. Her administration was bloody and tumultuous; nor durst she venture to check the fury of the Strelitzes, and other insurgents. Finding this debility in her own person, she intended to have married prince Basil Galitzin, who is said to have been a man of least

and spirit, and some learning. Being placed at the head of the army by Sophia, he marched into Crim Tartary; but Peter now was about 17 years of age, and asserted his right to the throne. Sophia and Iwan were then at Moscow; and upon Peter's publishing aloud that a conspiracy had been formed by his sister to murder him, he was joined by the Strelitzes, who defeated or destroyed Sophia's party, and forced herself to retire to a monastery. Galltzin's life was spared; but his great estate was confiscated, and the following curious sentence was pronounced as his punishment. "Thou art commanded by the most clement czar to repair to Karga, a town under the pole, and there to continue the remainder of thy days. His majesty, out of his extreme goodness, allows thee three pence per day for thy subsistence." This left Peter with no other competitor, in the year 1689, than the mild and easy Iwan; and upon his death, which happened in 1696, Peter reigned alone, and cruelly provided for his own future security, by the execution of above 3000 Strelitzes.

Peter, though he had been but very indifferently educated through the jealousy of his sister, associated himself with the Germans and Dutch; with the former for the sake of their manufactures, which he early introduced into his dominions; and with the latter for their skill in navigation, which he practised himself. His inclination for the arts was encouraged by his favorite Le Fort, a Piedmontese; and general Gordon, a Scotchman; disciplined the czar's own regiment, consisting of 5000 foreigners; while Le Fort raised a regiment of 12,000, among whom he introduced the French and German exercises of arms, with a view of employing them in curbing the insolence of the Strelitzes. Peter, after this, began his travels; leaving his military affairs in the hands of Gordon. He set out as an attendant upon his own ambassadors; and his adventures in Holland and England, and other courts, are too numerous, and too well known, to be inserted here. By working as a common ship-carpenter at Deptford and Saardam, he completed himself in ship-building and navigation; and through the excellent discipline introduced among his troops by the foreigners, he not only over-awed or crushed all civil insurrections, but all his enemies on this side of Asia; and at last he even exterminated, excepting two feeble regiments, the whole body of the Strelitzes. He rose gradually through every rank and service both by sea and land; and the many defeats which he received, especially that from Charles XII. at Narva, seemed only to enlarge his ambition, and extend his ideas. The battles he lost rendered him at length a conqueror, by adding experience to his courage; and the generous friendship he showed to Augustus king of Poland, both before and after he was dethroned by the king of Sweden, redounds greatly to his honour. He had no regard for rank distinct from merit; and he at last married Catharine, a young Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swedish soldier; because, after a long cohabitation, he found her possessed of a soul formed to execute his plans, and to assist his councils. Catharine was so much a stranger to her own country, that her husband afterwards discovered her brother, who served as a common soldier in his armies. But military and naval triumphs, which succeeded one another after the battle of Pultowa in 1709, with Charles XII. were not the chief glory of Peter's reign. He applied himself with equal assiduity to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and sciences; and upon the whole, he made such acquisitions of dominion, even in Europe itself, that he may be said at the time of his death, which happened in 1725, to have been the most

powerful prince of his age, but more feared than beloved by his subjects.

Peter the Great was unfortunate in his eldest son, who in Russia is entitled the Czarowitz, and who, marrying without his consent, entered, as his father alleged, into some dangerous practices against his person and government; for which he was tried and condemned to death. Under a sovereign so despotic as Peter was, it is difficult to determine on the justice of the charge. It was undoubtedly his will that the young prince should be found guilty; and the very reading of the sentence appears to have been fatal to him. It is said, that, as soon as sentence of death was pronounced upon the prince, in which were the following words, "The divine, ecclesiastical, civil, and military law, condemns to death, without mercy, all those whose attempts against their father and their sovereign are manifest," he fell into the most violent convulsions, from which it was with great difficulty that he regained a little interval of sense, during which he desired his father would come to see him, when he asked his pardon, and soon after died. According to other accounts, he was secretly executed in prison, and marshal Weyde was the person who beheaded him. After this event, in 1724, Peter ordered his wife Catharine to be crowned, with the same magnificent ceremonies as if she had been a Greek empress, and to be recognized as his successor; which she accordingly was, and mounted the Russian throne upon the decease of her husband. She died, after a glorious reign, in 1727, and was succeeded by Peter II. a minor, son to the czarowitz. Many domestic revolutions happened in Russia during the short reign of this prince; but none were more remarkable than the disgrace and exile of prince Menzikoff, the favourite general in the two late reigns, and esteemed the richest subject in Europe. Peter died of the small pox, in 1730.

Notwithstanding the despotism of Peter and his wife, the Russian senate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II. ventured to set aside the order of succession which they had established. The male issue of Peter was now extinguished; and the duke of Holstein, son to the eldest daughter, was, by the destination of the late empress, entitled to the crown; but the Russians, for political reasons, filled their throne with Anne, duchess of Courland, second daughter to Iwan, Peter's eldest brother, though her eldest sister, the duchess of Mecklenburgh, was alive. Her reign was extremely prosperous; and though she accepted the throne under limitations that some thought derogatory to her dignity, yet she broke them all, asserted the prerogative of her ancestors, and punished the aspiring Dologorucki family, who had imposed upon her limitations, with a view, as it is said, that they themselves might govern. She raised her favourite, Biron, to the duchy of Courland; and was obliged to give way to many severe executions on his account. Upon her death in 1740, John, the son of her niece the princess of Mecklenburgh, by Anthony Ulric of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle, was, by her will, entitled to the succession; but being no more than two years old, Biron was appointed to be administrator of the empire during his nonage. This destination was disagreeable to the princess of Mecklenburgh and her husband, and unpopular among the Russians. Count Munich was employed by the princess of Mecklenburgh to arrest Biron, who was tried, and condemned to die, but was sent into exile to Siberia.

The administration of the princess Anne of Mecklenburgh and her husband was, upon many accounts, but particularly that of her German

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

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

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

Elizabeth was succeeded by Peter III. grand duke of Russia, and duke of Holstein, a prince whose conduct has been variously represented. He mounted the throne possessed of an enthusiastic admiration of his Prussian majesty's virtues; to whom he gave peace, and whose principles and practices he seems to have adopted as the rule of his future reign. He might have surmounted the effects even of those peculiarities, unpopular as they then were in Russia; but it is said that he aimed at reformation in his dominions, which even Peter the Great durst not attempt; and that he even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy. It is also alleged that he had formed a resolution to destroy both the empress and her son, though they had been declared heirs to the imperial throne by the same authority which had placed the crown upon his head: even the advocates of Peter the Third acknowledge that he had resolved to shut up his wife and son in a convent, to place his mistress upon the throne, and to change the order of succession. The execution of his designs was, however, prevented by an almost general conspiracy formed against him, in which the empress took a very active part; and this unfortunate prince scarcely knew an interval between the loss of his crown and his life, of which he was deprived, while under an ignominious confinement, in July 1762. His wife, the late Catharine II. was proclaimed empress.

The death of prince Iwan, son to the princess of Mecklenburgh, was

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

While this event excited the attention of the Russian nation, the flames of civil war broke out with great violence in Poland; which has generally been the case when the throne was vacant. And as the internal tranquillity of Poland is a capital object with Russia, the empress Catharine sent a body of troops into Poland, and by her influence count Poniatowski was raised to the throne. She also interposed, in order to secure the rights which the treaty of Oliwa had given to the Greek and protestant subjects of Poland. But the umbrage which her imperial majesty's armies gave to the Roman catholic Poles by their residence in Poland, increased the rage of civil war in that country, and produced confederacies against all that had been done during the late election; which rendered Poland a scene of blood and confusion. The conduct of Russia with regard to Poland gave so much offence to the Ottoman court, that the grand signor sent Obreskoff, the Russian minister, to the prison of the Seven Towers, declared war against Russia, and marched a very numerous army to the confines of Russia and Poland. Hostilities soon commenced between these rival and mighty empires. In the months of February and March 1769, Crim Guera, khan of the Tartars, at the head of a great body of Tartars, supported by 10,000 Spahis, having forced the Russian lines of communication, penetrated into the province of New Servia, where he committed great ravages, burning many towns and villages, and carrying off some thousand families captive. In April following, the grand vizir, at the head of a great army, began his march from Constantinople, and proceeded towards the Danube. In the mean time prince Galitzin, who commanded the Russian army on the banks of the Neister, thought this a proper time to attempt something decisive, before the arrival of the great Turkish force in that quarter. Having accordingly crossed the Neister with his whole army, he advanced to Choczim, where he encamped in sight of a body of 30,000 Turks, commanded by Caraman Pacha, and entrenched under the cannon of the town. The prince, having made the necessary dispositions, attacked the Turks in their entrenchments early in the morning of the 30th of April, and, notwith-

standing an obstinate defence, and a dreadful fire from the fortrefs, at length beat them out of their trenches. The Turks endeavoured to cover their retreat, by detaching a large body of cavalry to attack the right wing of the Russian army; but they met with such a warm reception from the artillery, that they soon retired in great disorder. General Stoffeln and prince Dolgorucki were then ordered to pursue the fugitives, at the head of eight battalions; which they did so effectually, that they followed them into the suburbs of Choczim; and their pursuit was at length only stopped by the palisadoes of the fortrefs.

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

In the management of this war, the grand vizir had acted with a degree of prudence, which, it has been thought, would have proved fatal to the designs of the Russians, if the same conduct had been afterwards pursued. But the army of the vizir was extremely licentious, and his caution gave offence to the Janizaries; so that, in consequence of their clamours, and the weakness of the councils that prevailed in the seraglio, he at length became a sacrifice, and Moldovani Ali Pacha, a man of more courage than conduct, was appointed his successor.

During these transactions, general Romanzow committed great devastations upon the Turks on the borders of Bender and Oczakow, where he plundered and burnt several towns and villages; defeated a Turkish detachment, and carried off a great booty of cattle. The Tartars also committed great ravages in Poland; where they almost totally destroyed the palatinate of Bracklaw, besides doing much mischief in other places. In the beginning of September, the Russian army was again posted on the banks of the Neister, and effectually defended the passage of that river against the Turks, whose whole army, under the command of the new vizir, was arrived on the opposite shore. Having laid three bridges over the Neister, the Turkish army began to pass the river in the face of the enemy. Prince Galitzin having perceived this motion early in the morning of the 9th of September, immediately attacked those troops that had crossed the river in the night, who consequently could neither choose their ground, nor have time to extend or form themselves properly where they were. Notwithstanding these extreme disadvantages, the engagement was very severe, and continued from seven in the morning till noon. The Turks fought with great obstinacy, but were at length totally defeated, and obliged to repass the river with great loss, and in the utmost confusion. It was computed, that about 60,000 Turks crossed the river before and during the time of the engagement. Prince Galitzin charged at the head of five columns of infantry, with fixed bayonets, and destroyed the flower of the Turkish cavalry. It is said that the loss of the Turks in this battle amounted to 7000 men killed upon the spot, besides wounded and prisoners, and a great number who were drowned. Though the ill conduct of the vizir had greatly contributed to this misfortune, yet this did not prevent him from engaging in another operation of the same nature. He now laid

but one bridge over the river, which he had the precaution to cover with large batteries of cannon, and prepared to pass the whole army over. Accordingly, on the 17th of September, eight thousand Janizaries and four thousand regular cavalry, the flower of the whole Ottoman army, passed over with a large train of artillery, and the rest of the army were in motion to follow, when a sudden and extraordinary swell of the waters of the Neister carried away and totally destroyed the bridge. The Russians lost no time in making use of this great and unexpected advantage. A most desperate engagement ensued, in which the slaughter of the Turks was prodigious. Not only the field of battle, but the river, over which some few hundreds of Turks made their escape by swimming, was for several miles covered with dead bodies. The Russians took 64 pieces of cannon, and above 150 colours and horse-tails. The Turks immediately broke up their camp, and abandoned the strong fortrefs of Choczim, with all its stores and numerous artillery, and retired tumultuously towards the Danube. They were much exasperated at the ill conduct of their commander the vizir; and it was computed that the Turks lost 28,000 of the best and bravest of their troops, within little more than a fortnight; and 48,000 more abandoned the army, and totally deserted, in the tumultuous retreat to the Danube. Prince Galitzin placed a garrison of four regiments in the fortrefs of Choczim, and soon after resigned the command of the army to general count Romanzow, and returned to Peterburgh, covered with laurels.

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

But it was not only by land that the Russians carried on the war successfully against the Turks. The empress sent a considerable fleet of men of war, Russian built, into the Mediterranean, to act against the Turks on that side; and, by means of this fleet, under count Orlop, the Russians spread ruin and desolation through the open islands of the Archipelago, and the neighbouring defenceless coasts of Greece and Asia; the particulars of which will appear in the history of Turkey.

The war between the Russians and the Turks still continued to be carried on by land as well as by sea, to the advantage of the former; but at length a peace was concluded, on the 21st of July, 1774, highly honourable and beneficial to the Russians, by which they obtained the liberty of a free navigation over the Black Sea, and a free trade with all the ports of the Ottoman empire.

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

The peace of 1774 was then indispensably necessary to the immediate preservation of the Turkish empire; but within so small a space of time as five years, a new war was just upon the point of breaking out between the two empires, and was only prevented by a new treaty of pacification, which took place on the 21st of March, 1776. But the great source of discord was still left open. The pretended independency of the Crimea afforded such an opening to Russia into the very heart of the Turkish empire, and such opportunities of interference, that it was scarcely possible that any lasting tranquillity could subsist between the two empires. A claim, made and insisted on by Russia, of establishing consuls in the three provinces of Moldavia, Wallachia, and Bessarabia, was exceedingly grievous to the Porte. After long disputes, the Turkish ministers, more from a sense of the disability of the state for war, than from pacific dispositions, found it necessary, towards the close of the year 1781, to give up the point in debate with respect to the consuls. This concession, however mortifying, produced but a short-lived effect. New troubles were continually breaking forth. The emperor of Germany having avowed his determination of supporting all the claims of Russia as well as his own, all the parties prepared, with the utmost vigour, for the most determined hostility. The year 1783 accordingly exhibited the most formidable apparatus of war on the northern and eastern borders of Europe. However, in the midst of all these appearances of war, negotiations for a peace continued to be carried on at Constantinople, which peace was at last signed, January 9th, 1784.

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

The year 1787 opened with the extraordinary spectacle of the journey of the empress of Russia to Cherson, where it seems to have been her original intention to have been crowned with all possible magnificence,

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

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

It was during the progress of these hostilities with the Porte, that Russia found herself suddenly involved in a new and unexpected war. As a nation, Sweden had the greatest causes of resentment against Russia for past injury and loss, at the same time that she had every thing to dread from her present overgrown power and boundless ambition, which was as little qualified in the wanton display, as it was ungoverned in the actual exertion. Russia has constantly found means to maintain a strong and numerous party in Sweden. All these causes operating together induced Gustavus the Third to meditate a project of hostilities against Russia, which commenced in Finland, a few days after the king's arrival in that province. But the principal action of the campaign was the naval battle off Hoogland, in the gulph of Finland. The engagement, which lasted five hours, was fought with considerable skill and obstinacy on both sides. The forces were nearly equal. The Russian fleet, commanded by admiral Greig, consisted of seventeen ships of the line; and the Swedish, under the command of the duke of Sudermania, the king's brother, consisted of fifteen of an inferior weight of metal, but reinforced by five frigates, one of forty-four, and the rest of forty guns each, which occasionally ranged themselves in order of battle. The Russians possessed, upon the whole, a su-

priority of 204 pieces of cannon, while that in the weight of metal was perhaps of greater moment. The victory, as is usually the case in actions not apparently and absolutely decisive, was claimed by both sides. But it seems, upon the whole, that the Swedes, in the brightest period of their glory, had never displayed greater gallantry by sea or land than they did upon this occasion. Their princely commander merited a very considerable share of the glory of this engagement. At last, after many other engagements attended with various success, on the 14th of August 1700, a convention for a peace was signed between the courts of Russia and Sweden, and ratified in six days after.

At the close of the year 1790, the empress had the satisfaction to see her conquests no longer bounded by the course of the Danube. The capture of Ismail was the last important action. Eight different times were the Muscovites repulsed with the slaughter of many of their bravest soldiers. At the ninth, general Suwarrow put himself at their head, and snatching a standard out of an officer's hand, ran directly towards the town, passed the trenches, and clambering up the wall, planted it himself upon the ramparts. "There," cried he, "my fellow soldiers, behold there your standard in the power of the enemy, unless you will preserve it; but I know you are brave, and will not suffer it to remain in their hands." This speech had the desired effect. It was taken by storm on the 22d of December, 1790; and it is said that the siege and capture did not cost the Russians less than 10,000 men. The most shocking part of the transaction is, that the garrison (whose bravery merited, and would have received from a generous foe, the highest honours) were massacred in cold blood by the merciless Russians; to the amount of upwards of 30,000 men, by their own account; and the place was given up to the unrestrained fury of the brutal soldiery. The most horrid outrages were perpetrated on the defenceless inhabitants; and the conduct of the conquerors was more like that of a horde of cannibals than of a civilised people; and too strongly evinces, that, whatever steps may have been taken by the late or other sovereigns of this empire to produce a forced civilisation, both the monarchs and the people of Russia are still barbarians.

England and Prussia, after a long and expensive armed negotiation, at length assented to the demand of the empress, which was strengthened by the interference of Spain and Denmark, that Oczakow, and the territory between the rivers Bog and Niester, shall in full sovereignty belong to Russia; that the river Niester shall for the future determine the frontiers of Russia and the Porte; that the two powers may erect on the shores of that river what fortresses they think proper; and Russia engages to grant a free navigation on the river Niester. This was concluded on the 11th of August, 1791. Thus has the Porte entered into a war, for the purpose of regaining the Crimea, and after reducing the Ottoman empire to extreme weakness, and internal symptoms of ruin, irremediable by a government in a regular progress of deterioration, lost a most important territory, and left the existence of the empire at the mercy of another Russian war. By some advantages offered to Prussia and Poland, and a few intrigues, Russia may change the fluctuating stream of European politics, and by one powerful campaign overturn the Turkish monarchy.

The final treaty with the Turks was concluded at Jassy, the 9th of January, 1792. Catharine then applied herself to the improvement of Oczakow, and rendered it a place of great strength, importance, and commerce. At the same time she was not inattentive to European po-

litics. When the coalition of sovereign powers was formed against France, Gustavus III. the late king of Sweden, was to have conducted that expedition which was afterwards made against France by the king of Prussia and the prince of Brunswick. Catharine, on this occasion, promised to assist him and the alliance, with twelve thousand Russian troops, and an annual subsidy of three hundred thousand rubles. She assured the pope that she would support him in the resumption of Avignon, and published a strong manifesto against the French revolution and the progress of liberty; but the only active part she took against that revolution, was sending twelve ships of the line and eight frigates to join the English fleet, which were paid for by a subsidy, victualled and repaired in the British ports, and then returned home without rendering any further service. But her attention was principally directed to Poland, and the efforts which that people made in the cause of liberty. Whilst she amused the world with manifestoes against France, she beheld, with pleasure, the greatest powers of Europe wasting their strength and treasure; and, undisturbed by any foreign interference, made a second partition of Poland, the circumstances of which the reader will find briefly narrated in our account of that unfortunate country.

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

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

defeat, a strong body of Russians troops were ordered to reinforce the army of Zouboff.

These martial preparations, and plans of ambition, were, however, interrupted by her death. On the morning of the 9th of November, 1796, she appeared very cheerful, and took her coffee as usual. Soon after she retired into the closet, where continuing unusually long, her attendants became alarmed, and at length opened the door, when they found her on the floor in a state of insensibility, with her feet against the door. Doctor Rogerion, her first physician, was immediately called, who bled her twice. At first she appeared rather to revive, but was unable to utter a word, and expired at ten o'clock at night.

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

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

The character of her successor Paul I. as far as it has been displayed in the first year of his reign, appears to be milder and more pacific than that of his mother. Immediately on his accession to the throne, he ordered hostilities to cease between Russia and Persia; and a peace was soon after concluded between the two countries. He has set at liber-

ty the unfortunate Kosciusko, the general of the Polish insurgents, bestowed on him a pension, with liberty either to reside in his dominions or retire to America, which latter country the general has chosen for his asylum. He has behaved with an honourable liberality towards the deposed king of Poland; and restored to their estates a great number of Polish emigrants and fugitives. Should his abilities, as some have suggested, be unequal to the extensive schemes of unjust ambition, planned and partly executed by his predecessor, the good qualities of his heart, which these acts seem to evince, may ultimately tend much more to the prosperity and happiness of his people.

Catharine II. the empress of all the Russias, was born May 2, 1729, and ascended the throne July 9th, 1762, upon the deposition and death of her husband. She was married to that prince while he was duke of Holstein Gottorp, Sept. 1, 1745; and died Nov. 9, 1796.

Paul I. present emperor of Russia, was born Oct. 1, 1754. He has been twice married, and by his present consort, who was princess of Wirtemberg, has issue:

1. Alexander, born Dec. 23, 1777, married to the princess Louisa of Baden, May 21, 1793.
2. Constantine, born May 8, 1779, married to the princess of Saxe Cobourg, February 14, 1796.
3. Alexander Powlowna, born in Aug. 1783.
4. Helena, born Dec. 24, 1784.
5. A princess, born in March, 1786.
6. Another princess, born in May, 1788.
7. Another princess, born in 1792.

SCOTLAND AND ITS ADJACENT ISLES.

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

SITUATION AND EXTENT.] The islands of Shetland lie north-east of the Orcaades, or Orkney-islands, between 60 and 61 degrees of north latitude, and form part of the shire of Orkney.

The Orcaades lie north of Dungsby-head, between 59 and 60 degrees of north latitude; divided from the continent by a tempestuous strait, called Pentland Frith, 24 miles long and 12 broad.

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

CLIMATE.] There is very little difference in the climate of these islands, the air being keen, piercing, and salubrious; so that many of the natives live to a great age. In the Shetland and Orkney islands they see to read at midnight in June and July; and during four of the summer months, they have frequent communications, both for business and curiosity, with each other, and with the continent; the rest of the year, however, they are almost inaccessible, through fogs, darkness, and storms. It is a certain fact, that a Scotch fisherman was imprisoned in May, for publishing the account of the prince and princess of Orange being raised

to the throne of England, the preceding November; and he would probably have been hauged, had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a ship.

CHIEF ISLANDS AND TOWNS. } The largest of the Shetland Islands, which are forty-six in number (though many of them are uninhabited), is Mainland, which is 60 miles in length, and 20 in breadth. Its principal town is Larwick, which contains 300 families; the whole number of families in the island not exceeding 500. Skalloway is another town, where the remains of a castle are still to be seen; and it is the seat of a presbytery. On this island the Dutch begin to fish for herrings at mid-summer, and their fishing-season lasts six months.

The largest of the Orkney islands, which are about thirty in number (though several of them are unpeopled), is called Pomona. Its length is 33 miles, and its breadth, in some places, nine. It contains nine parish churches, and four excellent harbours.

The Isle of Mull, in the Hebrides, is twenty-four miles long, and in some places almost as broad. It contains two parishes, and a castle called Duart, which is the chief place in the island. The other principal western islands are Lewis, or Harries (for they both form but one island), which belongs to the shire of Ross, and is 100 miles in length, and 13 or 14 in breadth; its chief town is Stornaway. Sky, belonging to the shire of Inverness, is 40 miles long, and, in some places, 30 broad; fruitful and well peopled. Bute, which is about ten miles long, and three or four broad, is famous for containing the castle of Rothesay, which gave the title of duke to the eldest sons of the kings of Scotland, as it now does to the prince of Wales. Rothesay is likewise a royal burgh; and the islands of Bute and Arran form the shire of Bute. The isles of Ila and Jura are part of Argyleshire, and contain together about 370 square miles; but they have no towns worthy notice. North Uist contains an excellent harbour, called Lochmaddy, famous for herring-fishing. Iona, once the seat and sanctuary of western learning, and the burying-place of many kings of Scotland, Ireland, and Norway, is still famous for its reliques of sanctimonious antiquity, as shall be hereafter mentioned. Some authors have been at great pains to describe the island of St. Kilda, or Hirt, for no other reason, that I can discover, but because it is the remotest of all the north-west islands, and very difficult of access; for it does not contain above thirty-five families.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, POPULATION, LANGUAGE, AND RELIGION. } The inhabitants of Shetland and Orkney were formerly subject to the Normans, who conquered them in 1099, a few years after they landed in England under William the Conqueror. In the year 1263 they were in possession of Magnus of Norway, who sold them to Alexander king of Scots, by whom they were given as fiefs to a nobleman of the name of Speire. After this, they were claimed by, and became subject to, the crown of Denmark. Christian I. in the reign of James III. conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland, as a marriage portion with his daughter Margaret; and all future pretensions were entirely ceded on the marriage of James VI. of Scotland with Anne of Denmark. The isles of Shetland and Orkney form a stewartry, or shire, which sends a member to parliament. At present the people in general differ little from the Lowlanders of Scotland; except that their manners are more simple; and their minds less cultivated. Men of fortune there have improved their estates wonderfully of late years, and have introduced into their families many elegancies and luxuries. They build their dwelling and other houses in a modern

taste, and are remarkable for the fineness of their linen. As to the common people, they live upon butter, cheese, fish, sea and land fowl (of which they have great plenty), particularly geese; and their chief drink is whey, which they have the art to ferment, so as to give it a vinous quality. In some of the northern islands, the Norwegian, which is called the Norse language, is still spoken. Their vast intercourse with the Dutch, during the fishing season, renders that language common in the Shetland and Orkney islands. The people there are as expert as the Norwegians in seizing the nests of sea fowls, which build in the most frightful precipices and rocks. Their temperance preserves them from many diseases. They cure the scurvy and the jaundice, to which they are subject, with the powder of snail-shells and scurvy-grass, of which they have plenty. Their religion is protestant, and according to the discipline of the church of Scotland; and their civil institutions are much the same with those of the country to which they belong.

Nothing can be affirmed with certainty as to the population of these three divisions of islands. We have the most undoubted evidences of history, that, about 400 years ago, they were much more populous than they are now: for the Hebrides themselves were known often to send 10,000 fighting men into the field, without prejudice to their agriculture. At present their numbers are said not to exceed 48,000. The people of the Hebrides are clothed and live like the Scotch Highlanders, who shall hereafter be described. They are similar in persons, constitutions, customs, and prejudices; but with this difference, that the more polished manners of the Lowlanders are every day gaining ground in the Highlands. Perhaps the descendants of the ancient Caledonians, in a few years, will be discernible only in the Hebrides.

Those islands alone retain the ancient usages of the Celts, as described by the oldest and best authors; but with a strong tincture of the feudal constitution. Their shanachies or story-tellers supply the place of the ancient bards, so famous in history; and are the historians, or rather genealogists, as well as poets, of the nation and family. The chief is likewise attended, when he appears abroad, with his musician, who is generally a bagpiper, and dressed in the manner of the English minstrels of former times, but, as it is said, much more sumptuously*. Notwithstanding the contempt into which that music is fallen, it is almost incredible with what care and attention it was cultivated among these islanders so late as the beginning of the present century. They had regular colleges and professors, and the students took degrees according to their proficiency. Many of the Celtic rites, some of which were too barbarous to be retained or even mentioned, are now abolished. The inhabitants, however, still preserve the most profound respect and affection for their several chieftains, notwithstanding all the pains that have been taken by the British legislature to break those connections which experience has shown to be so dangerous to government. The common people are but little better lodged than the Norwegians and Laplanders; though they certainly fare better; for they have oatmeal, plenty of fish and fowl, cheese, butter, milk, and whey; and also mutton, beef, goat, kid, and venison. They indulge themselves, like their forefathers, in a romantic poetical turn; and the agility of both sexes in the exercises of the field, and in dancing to their favourite music, is remarkable.

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

The reader would not pardon an author, who, in treating of this subject, should omit that remarkable mantology, or gift of prophecy, which distinguishes the inhabitants of the Hebrides under the name of *second sight*. It would be equally absurd to attempt to disprove the reality of the instances of this kind that have been related by reputable authors, as to admit all that has been said upon the subject. The adepts of the second sight pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather presentations, either really or typically, which swim before their eyes, of certain events that are to happen in the compass of 24 or 48 hours. I do not, however, from the best information, observe that any two of those adepts agree as to the manner and form of those revelations, or that they have any fixed method for interpreting their typical appearances. The truth seems to be, that those islanders, by indulging themselves in lazy habits, acquire visionary ideas, and overhear their imaginations, till they are presented with those phantasms, which they mistake for fatidical or prophetic manifestations. They instantly begin to prophesy; and it would be absurd to suppose, that, amidst many thousand predictions, some did not happen to be fulfilled; and these being well attested, give a sanction to the whole.

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

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

SOIL, MINES, AND QUARRIES.] Though it is not in the power of natural philosophy to account for the reason, yet it is certain that the soil, both of the northern and western islands belonging to Scotland, has suffered an amazing alteration. Many of these islands have evidently been the habitations of the Druids, whose temples are still visible in most of them; and those temples were surrounded by groves, though little or no timber now grows in the neighbourhood. The stumps of former trees however are discernible, as are many vestiges of grandeur, even since the admission of the Christian religion; which prove the decrease of the riches, power, and population of the inhabitants. Experience daily shows, that, if the soil of the northern or western islands till of late was barren, cold, and uncomfortable, it was owing to their want of culture; for such spots of them as are now cultivated, produce corn, vegetables, and garden-stuff, more than sufficient for the inhabitants; and even fruit-trees are now brought to maturity. Tin, lead, and silver mines, marble, slate, free-stone, and even quarries of marble, have been found upon these islands. They are not destitute of fine fresh water, nor of lakes and rivulets that abound with excellent trout. At the same time it must be owned, that the present face of the soil is bare, and unornamented with trees, excepting a few that are reared in gardens.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] These are all in their infancy in those islands. The reader can easily suppose that their staple commodities consist of fish, especially herrings, which are the best in the world, and, when properly cured, are equal even to those of the Dutch. They carry on likewise a considerable trade in down and feathers; and their sheep afford them wool, which they manufacture into coarse cloths; and linen manufactures begin to make a progress in these islands. They carry their black cattle alive to the adjacent parts of Scotland, where they are disposed of in sale or barter; as are large quantities of their mutton, which they salt in the hide. Upon the whole, application and industry, with some portion of public encouragement, are only wanting to render these islands at once ornamental and beneficial to the mother country, as well as to their inhabitants.

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

RARITIES AND CURIOSITIES. } These islands exhibit many pre-
ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL. } nant proofs, in their churches, the
 vestiges of old forts, and other buildings, both sacred and civil, of what has been already observed, that they were formerly more populous than they are now. The use and construction of some of those works are not easily accounted for at present. In a gloomy valley belonging to Hoy, one of the western islands, is a kind of hermitage, cut out of a stone called a dwarf stone, 36 feet long, 18 broad, and nine thick; in which is a square hole, about two feet high for an entrance, with a stone of the same size for a door. Within this entrance is the resemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the stone, big enough for two men to lie on: at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. It would be endless to recount the various vestiges of the Druidical temples remaining in these islands, some of which have required prodigious labour, and are stupendous erections, of the same nature as the famous Stonehenge near Salisbury; others seem to be memorials of particular persons or actions, consisting of one large stone standing upright; some of them have been sculptured, and others have served as sepulchres, and are composed of stones cemented together. Barrows, as they are called in England, are frequent in these islands; and the monuments of Danish and Norwegian fortifications might long employ an able antiquary to describe. The gigantic bones, found in many burial places here, give room to believe that the former inhabitants were of larger size than the present. It is likewise probable, from some ancient remains, particularly catacombs, and nine silver fibulae or clasps,

found at Stennis, one of the Orkneys, that the Romans were well acquainted with these parts.

The cathedral of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys, is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St. Magnus, but now converted into a parish church. Its roof is supported by 14 pillars on each side, and its steeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four large pillars. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white polished stone, embossed and elegantly flowered.

The Hebrides are still more distinguished than the Orkney or Shetland isles for their remains of antiquity; and it would far exceed the bounds allotted to this head, were we even to mention every noted monument found upon them, dedicated to civil, religious, or warlike purposes. We cannot, however, avoid taking particular notice of the celebrated isle of Iona, called St. Columba-Kill. Not to enter into the history or origin of the religious erections upon this island, it is sufficient to say, that it seems to have served as a sanctuary for St. Columba; and other holy men of learning, while Ireland, England, and Scotland, were desolated by barbarism. It appears that the northern pagans often landed here, and paid no regard to the sanctity of the place. The church of St. Mary, which is built in the form of a cathedral, is a beautiful fabric. It contains the bodies of some Scotch, Irish, and Norwegian kings, with some Gaëlic inscriptions. The tomb of Columba, who lies buried here, is uninscribed. The steeple is large, the cupola 21 feet square, the doors and windows are curiously carved, and the altar is of the finest marble. Innumerable are the inscriptions of ancient customs and ceremonies, that are discernible upon this island, and which give countenance to the well-known observation, that, when learning was nearly extinct on the continent of Europe, it found a refuge in Scotland, or rather in these islands.

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

But some of the most astonishing appearances in nature have remained undescribed, and, till lately, unobserved even by the natives of these islands;—a discovery reserved for the inquisitive genius of Mr. Banks, now Sir Joseph Banks, who, in relating his voyage through the Hebrides, anno 1772, says: "We were no sooner arrived, than we were struck with a scene of magnificence which exceeded our expectations, though founded, as we thought, upon the most sanguine foundations: the whole of that end of the island (viz. Staffa, a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth) supported by ranges of natural pillars, mostly above fifty feet high, standing in natural colonnades, according as the bays or points of land formed themselves: upon a firm basis of solid unformed rock, above these, the stratum which reaches to the soil or surface of the island, varied in thickness as the island itself formed into hills or valleys; each hill, which hung over the columns below, forming an ample pediment; some of these, above sixty feet in thickness from the base to the point, formed, by the sloping of the hill on each side, almost in the shape of those used in architecture.

“ Compared to this, what are the cathedrals or palaces built by man? mere models or playthings; imitations as diminutive, as his works will always be, when compared to those of nature. Where is now the boast of the architect? Regularity, the only part in which he fancied himself to exceed his mistress, Nature, is here found in her possession: and here it has been for ages undescribed. Proceeding farther to the N. W. you meet with the highest ranges of pillars, the magnificent appearance of which is past all description: here they are bare to their very bases, and the stratum below them is also visible.” Mr. Banks particularises sundry other appearances in this and a neighbouring island, which is wholly composed of pillars without any stratum. In some parts of Staffa, instead of being placed upright, the pillars were observed to lie on their sides, each forming a segment of a circle; but the most striking object in this field of scenery is Fingal’s Cave, which Mr. Banks describes in the following manner: — “ With our minds full of such reflections, we proceeded along the shore, treading upon another *Giants’ Causeway*, every stone being regularly formed into a certain number of sides and angles; till, in a short time, we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the most magnificent, I suppose, that has ever been described by travellers. The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than such a space, supported on each side by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of those which have been broken off in order to form it; between the angles of which, a yellow stalagmitic matter has exuded, which serves to define the angles precisely, and at the same time vary the colour, with a great deal of elegance; and to render it still more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; so that the farthest extremity is very plainly seen from without; and the air within being agitated with the flux and reflux of the tide, is perfectly dry and wholesome, free entirely from the damp of vapours, with which natural caverns in general abound.”

Mr. Pennant, who also made a voyage to these islands in the same year, had a glance of Staffa, in his passage from Iona to Mull, but was prevented by stormy weather from approaching it. “ On the west,” says he, “ appears the beautiful groupe of the Treashunish isles. Nearest lies Staffa, a new *Giants’ Causeway*, rising amidst the waves, but with columns of double the height of that in Ireland; glossy and resplendent, from the beams of the eastern sun.” And in the isle of Sky, a considerable way northward, he resumes the subject: “ We had in view a fine series of genuine basaltic columns, resembling the *Giants’ Causeway*; the pillars were above twenty feet high, consisting of four, five, and six angles, but mostly of five. At a small distance from these, on the slope of a hill, is a tract of some roods entirely formed of the tops of several series of columns, even and close set, forming a reticulated surface of amazing beauty and curiosity. This is the most northern basaltes I am acquainted with; the last of four in the British dominions, all running

* The dimensions of the cave are thus given by Mr. Banks:

Length of the cave from the arch without	371 Feet.
From the pitch of the arch	250.
Breadth of ditto at the mouth	53
At the further end	20
Height of the arch at the mouth	117
At the end	70
Height of an outside pillar	39
Of one at the north-west corner	54
Depth of water at the mouth	18
At the bottom	9

from south to north, nearly in a meridian: the Giants' Causeway appears first; Staffa, &c. succeeds; the rock Humbla about twenty leagues farther, and finally, those columns of Sky; the depth of the ocean, in all probability, conceals the vast link of this chain."

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

SCOTLAND.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

MILES.	DEGREES,	
Length 300	} between	54 and 59 North latitude.
Breadth 190		1 and 6 West longitude.

NAME.] THE Celtæ or Gauls are supposed to have been the original inhabitants of this kingdom. The Scots, a Scythian tribe, invaded it about the beginning of the fourth century, and having conquered the Picts, the territories of both were called Scotland; and the word Scot is no other than a corruption of Scuyth, or Scythian, being originally from that immense country, called Scythia by the ancients. It is termed, by the Italians, Scotia; by the Spaniards, Escotia; by the French, Ecoffe; and Scotland by the Scots, Germans, and English.

BOUNDARIES.] Scotland, which contains an area of 27,794 square miles, is bounded on the south by England, and on the north, east, and west, by the Deucaledonian, German, and Irish seas, or more properly, the Atlantic ocean.

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

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

Shires.	Sheriffdoms and other Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Edinburgh (429*)	Mid Lothian	Edinburgh, W. long. 3. N. lat. 56. Musselburgh, Leith, and Dalkeith.

* The numbers show the proportion of militia as proposed to be raised in each shire, when that scheme was laid before parliament in 1775.

t by man? works will he boast of himself to and here it you meet of which is he stratum other ap-composed d of being each form-is following proceeded y stone bes- es; till, in gnificant, I mind can ported on s of those e angles of define the great deal is lighted seen from flux of the ump of va- same year, it was pre- vest," says Nearest lies t with co-splendent, a consider-view a fine Causeway; ve, and six on the slope of several surface of saltes I am ll running

Shires.	Sheriffdoms and other Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
2 Haddington (121)	East Lothian - - - - }	Dunbar, Haddington, and North Berwick.
3 Merse, anciently Berwick * (114)	The Merches, and Lauderdale - - - - }	Dunse and Lauder.
4 Roxborough (165)	Tiviotdale, Lidfdale, Eskdale and Eufdale }	Jedburgh, Kelfo, and Melrofs.
5 Selkirk - - (19)	Ettrick Forest - - - - }	Selkirk.
6 Peebles - - (42)	Tweedale - - - - - }	Peebles.
7 Lanerk - - (388)	Clydefdale - - - - - }	Glasgow, W. lon. 4. 5. N. lat. 55. 52. Hamilton, Lanerk, and Rutherglen.
8 Dumfries - (188)	Nithfdale, Anandale - }	Dumfries, Annan.
9 Wigtown - (190)	Galloway, West part - }	Wigtown, Stranraer, and Whitehorn.
10 Kircudbright (100)	Galloway, East part - }	Kircudbright.
11 Air - - - - (280)	Kyle, Carrick, and Cunningham - - - }	Air, Kilmarnock, Irwin, Maybole, Stewarton, & Saltcots.
12 Dumbarton (66)	Lenox - - - - - }	Dumbarton.
13 Bute (34) and	Bute, Arran, and Caithness - - - - - }	Rothfay.
14 Caithness - (105)		Wick, N. lat. 58. 40. and Thurfo.
15 Renfrew - - (126)	Renfrew - - - - - }	Renfrew, Paisley, Greenock, and Port Glasgow.
16 Stirling - - - (76)	Stirling - - - - - }	Stirling and Falkirk.
17 Linlithgow - (80)	West Lothian - - - - }	Linlithgow, Burroughstonness, & Queen's ferry.
18 Argyle - - - (314)	Argyle, Cowal, Knapdale, Kintire, and Lorn; with part of the Western Isles, particularly Ila, Jura, Mull, Wift, Teleri, Coly and Lismore - - - - - }	Inverary, Dunstaffnage, Killonmer, & Cambeltown.
19 Perth - - - - (570)	Perth, Athol, Gowry, Broadalbin, Monteth, Strathern, Stormont, Glenfield, and Raynock }	Perth, Scone, Dumblane, Blair, and Dunkeld.
20 Kincardin - (109)	Merns - - - - - (109) }	Bervie, Stonehive, and Kincardin.

* Berwick, on the north side of the Tweed, belonged formerly to Scotland, and gave name to a county in that kingdom; but it is now formed into a town and county of itself, in a political sense distinct from England and Scotland, having its own privileges.

Towns.	Shires.	Sheriffdoms and other Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
Haddington, North Berwick, and Lauder.	21 Aberdeen - (551)	Mar, Buchan, Garioch, and Strathbogie - -	Old Aberdeen, W. lon. 1. 40. N. lat. 57. 22. New Aberdeen, Frasersburgh, Peterhead, Kintore, Strathbogie, Inverary, and Old Meldrum.
W. lon. 4. 5. 55. 52. Haverlaner, and Glen.	22 Inverness - (282)	Aird, Strathglass, Sky, Harris, Badenoch, Lochaber, & Glenmoriston - - - -	Inverness, Inverlochy, Fort Augustus, Boileau.
Annandale, Stranraer, Whitehorn.	23 Nairne (27) and 24 Cromartie - - (24)	Western part of Murray and Cromartie	Nairne, Cromartie.
Light. Inverarnock, Invermaybole, Stearn, & Saltcotes.	25 Fife - - - (387)	Fife - - - - -	St. Andrew's, Cowper, Falkland, Kirkaldy, Innerkythen, Ely, Burnt Island, Dumfermline, Dyfart, Anstruther, & Aberdour.
lat. 58. 40. Perth.	26 Forfar - - - (326)	Forfar, Angus - - -	Montrose, Forfar, Dundee, Arbroth, and Brechin.
Perth, Paisley, Perth, and Port Wemyss.	27 Bamff - - - (182)	Bamff, Strathdobern, Boyne, Euzy, Balveny, Strathawin, & part of Buchan - -	Bamff and Cullen.
Perth and Falkirk.	28 Sutherland (100)	Strathnaver and Sutherland - - - - -	Strathay and Dornoch.
Perth, Burroughs, & Queen's.	29 Clackmannan (31) and 30 Kinross - - - (23)	Fife part - - - - -	Culross, Clackmannan, Alloa, and Kinross.
Dunstaffnage, Killin, & Perth.	31 Ross - - - - (201)	Easter & Wester Ross, Isles of Lewis, Lochbroom, Lochcarren, Ardmeanach, Redcastle, Ferrintosh, Strathpeffer, and Ferrindonald - - -	Taine, Dingwall, Fortrose, Rosemarkie, and New Kello.
Perth, Dumfries, Blair, and Perth.	32 Elgin - - - (145)	Murray and Strathspay	Elgin and Forres.
Perth, Perth, and Perth.	33 Orkney - - (183)	Isles of Orkney and Shetland - - - - -	Kirkwall, W. lon. 3. N. lat. 50. Skalloway, near the Meridian of London. N. lat. 61.

In all thirty-three shires, which choose thirty representatives to sit in the parliament of Great Britain; Bute and Caithness choosing alternately, as do Nairne and Cromartie, and Clackmannan and Kinross,

Scotland, and Perth and county of its own pri-

The royal boroughs which choose representatives, are,

Edinburgh		Innerkythen, Dumfermlin,	}
Kirkwall, Wick, Dornoch,		Queensferry, Culrofs, and	
Dingwall, and Tayne . . .		Stirling	
Fortrose, Inverness, Nairne,		Glasgow, Renfrew, Rutherglen,	
and Forres		and Dumbarton	
Elgin, Cullen, Bamff, Inverary,		Haddington, Dunbar, N. Ber-	
and Kintore		wick, Lauder, and Jedburgh	
Aberdeen, Bervie, Montrose,		Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow,	
Aberbrothe, and Brechin . .		and Lanerk	
Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cowper,		Dumfries, Sanquehar, Annan,	
and St. Andrew's		Lochmaban, and Kircudbright	
Crail, Kilrenny, Anstruther East		Wigtown, New Galloway,	
and West, and Pittenweem		Stranraer, and Whitehorn . .	
Dysart, Kirkaldy, Kinghorne,		Air, Irwin, Rothfay, Cambel-	
and Burnt Island		town, and Inverary	

CLIMATE, SOIL, AIR, AND WATER.] In the northern parts, daylight, at midsummer, lasts eighteen hours and five minutes; and the day and night in winter are in the same proportion. The air of Scotland is more temperate than could be expected in so northerly a climate. This arises partly from the variety of its hills, valleys, rivers, and lakes, but still more, as in England, from the vicinity of the sea, which affords those warm breezes, that not only soften the natural keenness of the air, but, by keeping it in perpetual agitation, render it pure and healthful, and prevent those epidemic distempers that prevail in many other countries. In the neighbourhood of some high mountains, however, which are generally covered with snow, the air is keen and piercing for about nine months in the year. The soil in general is not so fertile as that of England; and in many places less fitted for agriculture than for pasture. At the same time, there are particular plains and valleys of the most luxuriant fertility. The finer particles of earth, incessantly washed down from the mountains, and deposited in these valleys, afford them a vegetative nourishment; which is capable of carrying the strongest plants into perfection; though experience has proved, that many vegetables and hortulane productions do not come so soon to maturity in this country as in England. There is, indeed, a great variety of soils in Scotland, the face of which is agreeably diversified by a charming intermixture of natural objects. The vast inequalities of the ground, if unfavourable to the labours of the husbandman, are particularly pleasing to a traveller, and afford those delightful situations for country houses, of which many of the Scottish nobility and gentry have so judiciously availed themselves. It is their situation, more than any expensive magnificence, that occasions the seats of the dukes of Argyle and Athol, of lord Hopetoun, and many others, to fix the attention of every traveller. The water in Scotland, as every where else, depends on the qualities of the soil through which it passes. Water passing through a heavy soil is turbid and noxious; but, filtrating through sand or gravel, is clear, light, and salutary to the stomach. This last is in general the case in Scotland, where the water is better than that of more southern climates, in proportion as the land is worse.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains in Scotland are the Grampian hills, which run from east to west, from near Aberdeen, to Cowal in Argyleshire, almost the whole breadth of the kingdom. Another

chain of mountains, called the Pentland-hills, runs through Lothian, and joins those of Tweeddale. A third, called Lammer-Muir, rises near the eastern coast, and runs westward through the Merse. Besides these continued chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Tiviot Hills on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, which, from their conical figure, sometimes go by the Celtic word, *Laws*. Many of them are stupendously high, and of beautiful forms, but too numerous to be particularised here.

RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.] The largest river in Scotland is the Forth, which rises in Monteith near Callendar, and passing by Stirling, after a number of beautiful mæanders, discharges itself near Edinburgh into that arm of the German sea, to which it gives the name of Frith of Forth. Second to the Forth is the Tay, which issues out of Loch Tay, in Broadalbin, and, running south-east, passes the town of Perth, and falls into the sea at Dundee. The Spey, which is called the most rapid river in Scotland, issues from a lake of the same name in Badenoch, and, running from south-west to north-east, falls into the sea near Elgin; as do the rivers Dee and Don, which run from west to east, and disembogue themselves at Aberdeen. The Tweed rises on the borders of Lanerkshire, and, after many beautiful serpentine turnings, discharges itself into the sea at Berwick, where it serves as a boundary between Scotland and England, on the eastern side. The Clyde is a large river on the west of Scotland, has its rise in Annandale, runs north-west through the valley of that name, and, after passing by Lanerk, Hamilton, the city of Glasgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton, and Greenock, falls into the Frith of Clyde, opposite to the isle of Bute. Besides these capital rivers, Scotland contains many of an inferior size, well provided with salmon, trout, and other fish, which equally enrich and beautify the country. Several of these rivers have the name of *esk*, which is the old Celtic word for water. The greatest improvement for inland navigation that has been attempted in that part of Great-Britain, was undertaken, at a very considerable expense, by a society of public-spirited gentlemen, for joining the rivers Forth and Clyde together; by which a communication has been opened between the east and west seas, to the advantage of the whole kingdom.

The lakes of Scotland (there called *Lochs*) are too many to be particularly described. Those called Loch Tay, Loch Lomond, Loch-Nefs, Loch-Au, and one or two more, present us with such picturesque scenes as are scarcely equalled in Europe, if we except Ireland. Several of these lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, and contain plenty of fresh-water fish. The Scotch sometimes give the name of a loch to an arm of the sea; for example, Loch Fyn, which is 60 miles long, and four broad, and is famous for its excellent herrings. The loch of Spinie, near Elgin, is remarkable for its number of swans and cygnets, which often darken the air with their flights; owing, as some think, to the plant *olorina*, which grows in its waters, with a straight stalk, and a cluster of seeds at the top. Near Loch-Nefs is a hill almost two miles perpendicular, on the top of which is a lake of cold fresh water, about 30 fathoms in length, too deep ever yet to be fathomed, and which never freezes; whereas, but 17 miles from thence, the lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. The ancient province of Lochaber receives that name from being the mouth of the lochs, by means of which the ancient Caledonians, the genuine descendants of the Celts, were probably enabled to preserve themselves independent on, and unmixed with, the Lowlanders. Besides these rivers and lochs, and others too numerous to mention, the coasts of Scotland are in many parts indented with large, bold, navigable bays or arms of the sea, as the bay of Glesluce and Wigtown

bay; sometimes they are called Friths, as the Solway Frith, which separates Scotland from England on the west; the Frith of Forth, Murray Frith, and those of Cromarty and Dornoch.

The face of Scotland, even where it is most uninviting, presents us with the most incontrovertible evidences of its having formerly abounded with timber. The deepest mosses, or morasses, contain large logs of wood; and their waters being impregnated with turpentine, have a preserving quality, as appears by the human bodies which have been discovered in those mosses. The *Sylva Caledonia*, or Caledonian forest, the remains of which are now thought to be Ettrick wood, in the south of Scotland, is famous in antiquity for being the retreat of the Caledonian wild boars; but such an animal is not now to be seen in Scotland. Several woods, however, still remain in that country; and many attempts have been made for reducing them into charcoal, for the use of furnaces and founderies; but lying at a great distance from water-carriage, though the work succeeded perfectly in the execution, they were found impracticable to be continued. Fir trees grow in great perfection almost all over Scotland, and form beautiful plantations. The Scotch oak is excellent in the Highlands, where some woods reach 20 or 30 miles in length, and four or five in breadth; but, through the inconveniency already mentioned, without being of much emolument to the proprietors.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Though Scotland does not at present boast of its gold mines, yet it is certain that it contains such, or at least that Scotland formerly afforded a considerable quantity of that metal for its coinage. James V. and his father contracted with certain Germans for working the mines of Crawford-Moor: and it is an undoubted fact, that, when James V. married the French king's daughter, a number of covered dishes, filled with coins of Scotch gold, were presented to the guests by way of desert. The civil wars and troubles which followed, under his daughter, in the minority of his grandson, drove those foreigners, the chief of whom was called Cornelius, from their works, which since that time have never been resumed. Some small pieces of gold have been found in those parts, washed down by the floods. It likewise appears by the public records, that those beautiful coins, struck by James V. called bonnet-pieces, were fabricated of gold found in Scotland, as were other medals of the same metal.

Several landlords in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead-mines, which are said to be very rich, and to produce large quantities of silver; but we know of no silver-mines that are worked at present. Some copper-mines have been found near Edinburgh; and many parts of Scotland, in the east, west, and northern counties, produce excellent coal of various kinds, large quantities of which are exported, to the vast emolument of the public. Lime-stone is here in great plenty, as is free-stone; so that the houses of the better sort are constructed of the most beautiful materials. The indolence of the inhabitants of many places of Scotland, where no coal is found, prevented them from supplying that defect by plantations of wood: and the peat-mosses being in many parts, of the north especially, almost exhausted, the inhabitants are put to great difficulties for fuel: however, the rage for plantations of all kinds, that now prevails, will soon remedy that inconveniency.

Lapis lazuli is said to be dug up in Lanerksshire; alum-mines have been found in Banffshire; crystal, variegated pebbles, and other transparent stones, which admit of the finest polish for seals, are found in various parts; as are talc, flint, sea-shells, potter's clay, and fuller's earth. The stones which the country-people call elf-arrow-heads, and to which they assign a supernatural origin and use, were probably the flint heads of arrows used

by the Caledonians and ancient Scots. No country produces greater plenty of iron ore, both in mines and stones, than Scotland; of which the proprietors now begin to reap the profits, in their founderies, as at Carron, and other metalline manufactures.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. } It is certain that the soil of Scotland may be rendered, in many parts, nearly as fruitful as that of England. It is even said that some tracts of the low countries at present exceed in value English estates of the same extent, because they are so far less exhausted and worn out than those of the southern parts of the island; and agriculture is now perhaps as well understood, both in theory and practice, among many of the Scotch landlords and farmers, as it is in any part of Europe.

Such is the mutability of things, and the influence of commerce, that a very considerable part of the landed property has lately (perhaps happily for the public) fallen into new hands. The merchants of Glasgow, who are the life and soul of that part of the kingdom, while they are daily introducing new branches of commerce, are no less attentive to the progress of agriculture, by which they do their country in particular, and the whole island in general, the most essential service. The active genius of these people extends even to moors, rocks, and marshes, which, being hitherto reckoned useless, were consequently neglected, but are now brought to produce certain species of grain or timber, for which the soil is best adapted.

But the fruits of skill and industry are chiefly perceivable in the counties lying upon the river Forth, called the Lothians, where agriculture is thoroughly understood, and the farmers, who generally rent from 3 to 500*l.* per ann. are well fed, well clothed, and comfortably lodged. The reverse, however, may be observed of a very considerable part of Scotland, which still remains in a state of nature, and where the landlords, ignorant of their real interest, refuse to grant such leases as would encourage the tenant to improve his own farm. In such places, the husbandmen barely exist upon the gleanings of a scanty farm, seldom exceeding 20 or 30*l.* per ann. the cattle are lean and small, the houses mean beyond expression, and the face of the country exhibits the most deplorable marks of poverty and oppression. Indeed, from a mistaken notion of the landed people in general, the greatest part of the kingdom lies naked and exposed, for want of such hedge-rows and plantings as adorn the country of England. They consider hedges as useless and cumbersome, as occupying more room than what they call stone inclosures, which, except in the Lothians already mentioned, are generally no other than low paltry walls, of loose stones huddled up without lime or mortar, which yield a bleak and mean appearance.

The soil in general produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hay, and pasture. In the southern counties the finest garden fruits, particularly apricots, nectarines, and peaches, are said to fall little, if at all, short of those in England; and the same may be said of the common fruits. The uncultivated parts of the Highlands abound in various kinds of salubrious and pleasant-tasted berries; though it must be owned that many extensive tracts are covered with a strong heath. The sea-coast produces the alga-marina, dulce or dulish, a most wholesome nutritive weed, in great quantities, and other marine plants, which are eaten for nourishment or pleasure.

The fishes on the coast of Scotland are much the same with those of the islands and countries already described; but the Scots have improved in their fisheries as much as they have in their manufactures and agricult-

ture; for societies have been formed, which have carried that branch of national wealth to a perfection that never was before known in that country; and bid fair to emulate the Dutch themselves in curing as well as catching their fish. In former times, the Scots seldom ventured to fish above a league's distance from the land; but they now ply in the deep waters as boldly and successfully as any of their neighbours. Their salmons, which they can send more early, when prepared, to the Levant and southern markets than the English and Irish can, are of great service to the nation, as the returns are generally made in specie, or beneficial commodities.

This country contains few or no kinds either of wild or domestic animals, that are not common with their neighbours. The red-deer and the roe-buck are found in the Highlands; but their flesh is not comparable to English venison. Hares, and all other animals for game, are here plentiful; as are the grouse and heath-cock, which is a most delicious bird, as likewise are the capperkaily, and the ptarmigan, which is of the pheasant kind; but these birds are scarce even in the Highlands, and, when discovered, are very shy. The numbers of black cattle that cover the hills of Scotland towards the Highlands, and sheep that are fed upon the beautiful mountains of Tweedale, and other parts of the south, are almost incredible, and formerly brought large sums into the country; the black cattle especially, which, when fattened on the southern pastures, have been reckoned superior to English beef. It is to be hoped, however, that this trade is now on its decline, by the vast increase of manufactures, whose demand for butcher's meat must lessen the exportation of cattle into England. Some are of opinion, that a sufficient stock, by proper methods, may be raised to supply both markets, to the great emolument of the nation.

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

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } The population of Scotland is ge-
MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } nerally fixed at about a million and a
half of souls. This calculation rests merely upon vague conjectures, as I know of no attempt that has been made to support even its probability. If we form an estimate upon any known principle, the inhabitants of Scotland are far more numerous. It is to be regretted that some public encouragement has not been given to bring this matter nearer to a certainty, which might be done by the returns of the clergy from their several parishes. The only records at present that can be appealed to, are those of the army; and, by the best information, they make the number of soldiers furnished by Scotland, in the war which began in 1755, to amount to 80,000 men. We are, however, to observe, that about 60,000 of these were raised in the islands and Highlands, which form by far the least populous part of Scotland. It belongs, therefore, to political calculation to compute whether the population of Scotland does not exceed two millions, as no country in the world, exclusive of the army, sends abroad more of its inhabitants. If we consult the most an-

cient and creditable histories, the population of Scotland, in the thirteenth century, must have been excessive, as it afforded so many thousands to fall by the swords of the English, without any sensible decrease (so far as I can find) of the inhabitants.

The people of Scotland are generally raw-boned; and a kind of characteristic feature, that of high cheek-bones, reigns in their faces; they are lean, but clean-limbed, and can endure incredible fatigues. Their adventurous spirit was chiefly owing to their laws of succession, which invested the elder brother, as head of the family, with the inheritance, and left but a very scanty portion for the other sons. This obliged the latter to seek their fortunes abroad, though no people have more affection for their native soil than the Scots have in general. It is true, this disparity of fortune among the sons of one family prevails in England likewise; but the resources which younger brothers have in England are numerous, compared to those of a country so narrow, and so little improved either by commerce or agriculture, as Scotland was formerly.

An intelligent reader may easily perceive that the ridiculous family-pride, which is perhaps not yet entirely extinguished in Scotland, was owing to the feudal institutions which prevailed there in all the horrors of blood and barbarity. The family differences, especially of the Highlanders, familiarised them to blood and slaughter; and the death of an enemy, however effected, was always a subject of triumph. These passions did not live in the breasts of the common people only; for they were authorized and cherished by their chieftains, many of whom were men who had seen the world, were conversant in the courts of Europe, masters of polite literature, and amiable in all the duties of civil and social life. Their kings, excepting some of them who were endued with extraordinary virtues, were considered in little other light than commanders of their army in time of war; for in time of peace their civil authority was so little felt, that every clan or family, even in the most civilised parts of Scotland, looked upon its own chieftain as its sovereign. These prejudices were confirmed even by the laws, which gave those petty tyrants a power of life and death upon their own estates; and they generally executed their hasty sentences in four and twenty hours after the party was apprehended. The pride which those chieftains had of outvying each other in the number of their followers, created perpetual animosities, which seldom or never ended, without bloodshed; so that the common people, whose best qualification was a blind devotion to the will of their master, and the aggrandisement of his name, lived in a state of continual hostility.

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

From what has been said, it appears that the ancient modes of living among the Scotch nobility and gentry are as far from being applicable to the present time, as the forms of a Roman senate are to that of a papist conclave; and no nation, perhaps, ever underwent so quick and so sudden a transition of manners.

The peasantry have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined; but no people can form their tempers better than they do to their stations. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their passions, to behave submissively to their Superiors, and live within the bounds of the most

rigid economy. Hence they save their money and their constitutions, and few instances of murder, perjury, robbery, and other atrocious vices, occur at present in Scotland. They seldom enter singly upon any daring enterprize; but when they act in concert, the secrecy, sagacity, and resolution, with which they carry on any desperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the strongest temptations arising from their poverty, is still more extraordinary. Their mobs are managed with all the caution of conspiracies; witness that which put Porteus to death in 1736, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midst of 20,000 people; and though the agents were well known, and some of them tried, with a reward of 500*l.* annexed to their conviction, yet no evidence could be found sufficient to bring them to punishment. The fidelity of the Highlanders of both sexes, under a still greater temptation, to the young pretender, after his defeat at Culloden, could scarcely be believed, were it not well attested.

They affect a fondness for the memory and language of their forefathers beyond perhaps any people in the world; but this attachment is seldom or never carried into any thing that is indecent or disgustful, though they retain it abroad as well as at home. They are fond of ancient Scotch dishes, such as the haggis, the sheep's head singed, the fish in sauce, the chicken broth, and minced collops. These dishes, in their original dressing, were savoury and nutritive for keen appetites; but the modern improvements that have been made in the Scotch cookery have rendered them agreeable to the most delicate palates.

The inhabitants of those parts of Scotland, who live chiefly by pasture, have a natural vein for poetry; and the beautiful simplicity of the Scotch tunes is relished by all true judges of nature. Love is generally the subject; and many of the airs have been brought upon the English stage, with variations, under new names, but with this disadvantage, that, though rendered more conformable to the rules of music, they are mostly altered for the worse, being stript of their original simplicity, which, however irregular, is the most essential characteristic, is so agreeable to the ear, and has such powers over the human breast. Those of a more lively and merry strain have had better fortune, being introduced into the army in their native dress, by the fife, an instrument for which they are remarkably well suited. It has been ridiculously supposed that Rizzio, the unhappy Italian secretary of Mary queen of Scots, reformed the Scotch music. This is a falsehood invented by his country, in envy to the Scots. Their finest tunes existed in their church music, long before Rizzio's arrival; nor does it appear that Rizzio, who was chiefly employed by his mistress in foreign dispatches, ever composed an air during the short time he lived in Scotland; but were there no other evidences to confute this report, the original character of the music itself is sufficient.

The lower people in Scotland are not so much accustomed as the English are to clubs, dinners, and other convivial entertainments; but when they partake of them, for that very reason they seem to enjoy them more completely. One institution there is, at once social and charitable, and that is, the contributions raised for celebrating the weddings of people of an inferior rank. Those festivities partake of the ancient Saturnalia; but though the company consists promiscuously of the high and the low, the entertainment is as decent as it is jovial. Each guest pays according to his inclination or ability, but seldom under a shilling a head, for which they have a wedding dinner and dancing. When the parties happen to be servants in respectable families, the contributions are so liberal that they often establish the young couple in the world,

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

Dancing is a favourite amusement in this country; but little regard is paid to art or gracefulness: the whole consists in agility, and in keeping time to their own tunes, which they do with great exactness. One of the peculiar diversions practised by the gentlemen, is the *Goff*, which requires an equal degree of art and strength; it is played with a bat and a ball; the latter is smaller and harder than a cricket ball; the bat is of a taper construction, till it terminates in the part that strikes the ball, which is loaded with lead and faced with horn. The diversion itself resembles that of the *Mall*, which was common in England in the middle of the last century. An expert player will send the ball an amazing distance at one stroke; each party follows his ball upon an open heath, and he who strikes it in fewest strokes into a hole, wins the game. The diversion of *Curling* is likewise, I believe, peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat stones, often from twenty to two hundred pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common stand to a mark at a certain distance; and whoever is nearest the mark is the victor. These two may be called the standing winter and summer diversions in Scotland. The natives are expert at all the other diversions common in England, *cricket* excepted, of which they have no notion; the gentlemen considering it as too athletic and mechanical.

[LANGUAGE AND DRESS.] I place these two articles under the same head, because they had formerly an intimate relation to each other, both of them being evidently Celtic. The highland plaid is composed of a woollen stuff, sometimes very fine, called *tartan*. This consists of various colours, forming stripes which cross each other at right angles; and the natives value themselves upon the judicious arrangement, or what they call sets, of those stripes and colours, which, where skillfully managed, produce a pleasing effect to the eye. Above the shirt, the Highlander wears a waistcoat of the same composition with the plaid, which commonly consists of twelve yards in width, and which they throw over the shoulder into very near the form of a Roman toga, as represented in ancient statues; sometimes it is fastened round the middle with a leathern belt, so that part of the plaid hangs down before and behind like a petticoat, and supplies the want of breeches. This they call being dressed in a *phellig*, but which the Lowlanders call a *kilt*, and which is probably the same word with Celt. Sometimes they wear a kind of petticoat of the same variegated stuff, buckled round the waist; and this they term the *phellig*, which seems to be of Milesian extraction. Their

Stockings are likewise of tartan, tied below the knee with tartan garters formed into tassels. The poorer people wear upon their feet brogues made of untanned or undressed leather; for their heads a blue flat cap is used, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. From the belt of the phelbeg hung generally their knives and a dagger, which they called a dirk, and an iron pistol, sometimes of fine workmanship, and curiously inlaid with silver. The introduction of the broad sword of Andrea Ferrara, a Spaniard (which was always part of the Highland dress), seems to be no earlier than the reign of James III. who invited that excellent workman to Scotland. A large leathern purse, richly adorned with silver, hanging before them, was always part of a Highland chieftain's dress.

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

The attachment of the Highlanders to this dress rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to the government. Many efforts had been made by the legislature, after the rebellion in 1715, to disarm them, and oblige them to conform to the Low-country dresses. The disarming scheme was the most successful; for when the rebellion in 1745 broke out, the common people had scarcely any other arms than those which they took from the king's troops. Their overthrow at Culloden rendered it no difficult matter for the legislature to force them into a total change of their dress. Its convenience, however, for the purposes of the field, is so great, that some of the Highland regiments still retain it. Even the common people have of late resumed the use of it; and, for its lightness and the freedom it gives to the body, many of the Highland gentlemen wear it in the summer time.

The dress of the higher and middle ranks of the Low-country differs little or nothing from the English; but many of the peasantry still retain the bonnet, for the cheapness and lightness of the wear. The dress of the women of all ranks is much the same in both kingdoms, but not so as to their neatness, and the cleanliness of the female servants.

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

PUNISHMENTS.] These are pretty much the same in Scotland as in England, only that of beheading is performed by an instrument called the Maiden; the model of which, it is well known, was brought from Halifax in England, to Scotland, by the regent, earl Morton; and it was first used for the execution of himself.

RELIGION.] Ancient Scottish historians, with Bede and other writ-

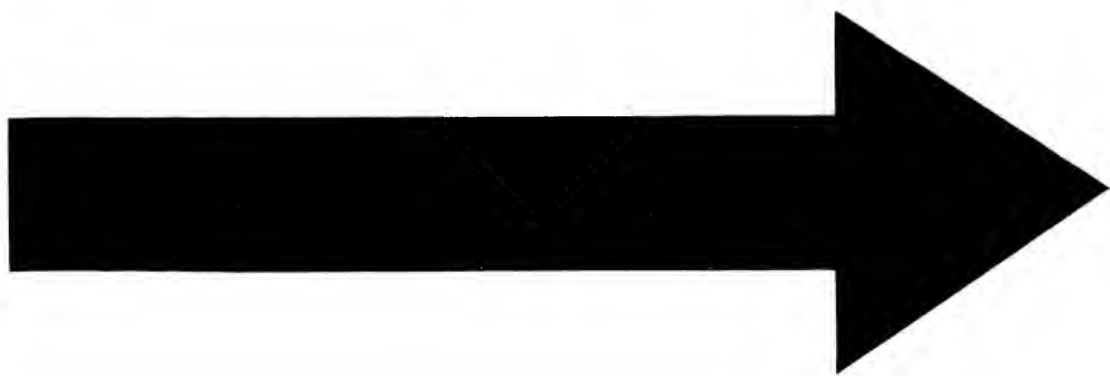
ers, generally agree that christianity was first taught in Scotland by some of the disciples of St. John the Apostle, who fled to this northern corner to avoid the persecution of Domitian, the Roman emperor; though it was not publicly professed till the beginning of the third century, when a prince, whom Scotch historians call Donald the First, his queen, and several of his nobles, were solemnly baptised. It was farther confirmed by emigrations from South Britain, during the persecutions of Aurelius and Dioclesian, when it became the established religion of Scotland; under the management of certain learned and pious men, named Culdees, who seemed to have been the first regular clergy in Scotland; and were governed by overseers or bishops chosen by themselves, from among their own body, and who had no pre-eminence of rank over the rest of their brethren.

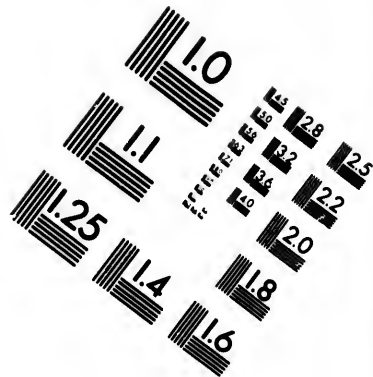
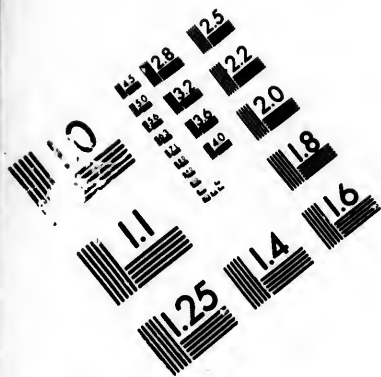
Thus, independent of the church of Rome, christianity seems to have been taught, planted, and finally confirmed in Scotland as a national church, where it flourished in its native simplicity, till the arrival of Palladius, a priest sent by the bishop of Rome in the fifth century, who found means to introduce the modes and ceremonies of the Romish church, which at length prevailed, and Scotland became involved in that darkness which for ages overspread Europe; though its dependence upon the pope was very slender, when compared to the blind subjection of many other nations.

The Culdees, however, long retained their original manners, and remained a distinct order, notwithstanding the oppression of the Romish clergy, so late as the age of Robert Bruce in the 14th century, when they disappeared. But it is worthy of observation, that the opposition to popery in this island, though it ceased in Scotland upon the extinction of the Culdees, was in the same age revived in England by John Wickliffe, a man of parts and learning, who was the forerunner, in the work of reformation, to John Hufs and Jerom of Prague, as the latter were to Martin Luther and John Calvin. But though the doctrines of Wickliffe were nearly the same with those propagated by the reformers in the 16th century, and the age seemed greatly disposed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for that great revolution; and the finishing blow to popery in England was reserved to the age of Henry VIII.

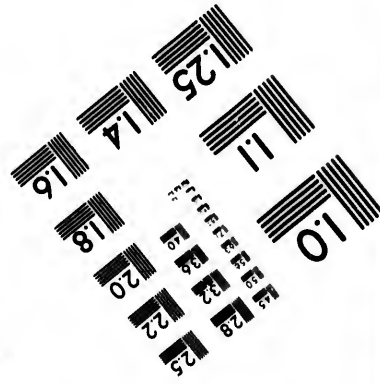
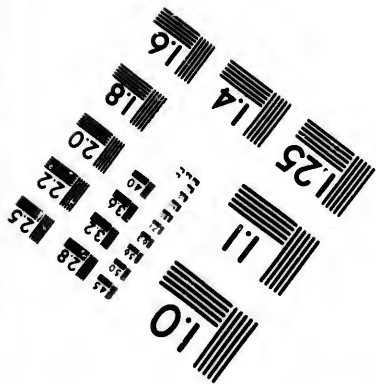
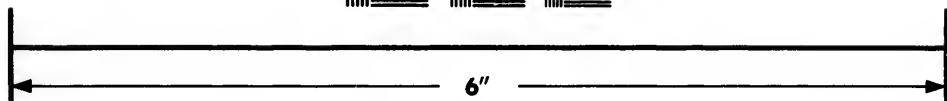
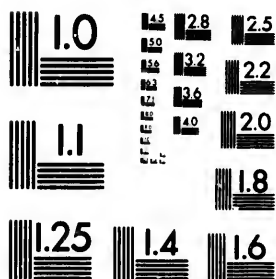
Soon after that important event took place in England, when learning, arts, and sciences, began to revive in Europe, the absurdities of the church of Rome, as well as the profligate lives of her clergy, did not escape the notice of a free and inquiring people, but gave rise to the reformation in Scotland. It began in the reign of James V. made great progress under that of his daughter Mary, and was at length completed through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, and in a degree was the apostle of Scotland. It was natural for his brethren to imagine, that, upon the abolition of the Roman catholic religion, they were to succeed to the revenues of that clergy. The great nobility, who had parcelled out those possessions for themselves, did not at first discourage this notion; but no sooner had Knox succeeded in his designs, which through the fury of the mob destroyed some of the finest ecclesiastical buildings in the world, than the parliament, or rather the nobility, monopolised all the church livings, and most scandalously left the reformed clergy to live almost in a state of beggary; nor could all their efforts produce any great struggle or alteration in their favour.

The nobility and great landholders left the doctrine and discipline of





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

The bounds of this work do not admit of entering at large upon the doctrinal and æconomical part of the church of Scotland. It is sufficient to say that its first principle is a parity of ecclesiastical authority among all its presbyters; that it agrees in its censures with the reformed churches abroad in the chief heads of opposition to popery; but that it is modelled principally after the Calvinistical plan established at Geneva. This establishment, at various periods, proved so tyrannical over the laity, by having the power of the greater and lesser excommunication, which were attended by a forfeiture of estate, and sometimes life, that the kirk sessions, and other bodies, have been abridged of all their dangerous powers over the laity, who were extremely jealous of their being revived. It is said, that even that relique of popery, the obliging fornicators of both sexes to sit upon what they call a repenting stool, in the church, and in full view of the congregation, begins to wear out; it having been found, that the Scotch women, on account of that penance, were the greatest infanticides in the world. In short, the power of the Scotch clergy is at present very moderate, or at least very moderately exercised; nor are they accountable for the extravagancies of their predecessors. They have been, ever since the Revolution, firm adherents to civil liberty, and the house of Hanover, and acted with remarkable intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. They dress without clerical robes: but some of them appear in the pulpit in gowns, after the Geneva form, and bands. They make no use of set forms in worship, but are not prohibited that of the Lord's Prayer. The rents of the bishops, since the abolition of episcopacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to pious purposes. A thousand pounds a year is always sent by his majesty for the use of protestant schools erected by act of Parliament in North Britain, and the western isles; and the Scotch clergy, of late, have planned out funds for the support of their widows and orphans. The number of parishes in Scotland are eight hundred and ninety, of which thirty-one are collegiate churches, that is, where the cure is served by more than one minister.

The highest ecclesiastical authority in Scotland is the general assembly, which we may call the ecclesiastical parliament of Scotland. It consists of commissioners, some of whom are laymen, under the title of ruling elders, from presbyteries, royal burghs, and universities. A presbytery consisting of less than twelve ministers sends two ministers and one ruling elder; if it contains between twelve and eighteen ministers, it sends three, and one ruling elder; if it contains between eighteen and twenty-four ministers, it sends four ministers and two ruling elders; but if the presbytery has twenty-four ministers, it sends five ministers and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh sends one ruling elder, and Edinburgh two; whose election must be attested by the respective kirk sessions of their own burghs. Every university sends one commissioner, usually a minister of their own body. These commissioners are chosen yearly, six weeks before the meeting of the assembly. The ruling elders are often of the first quality of the country.

The king presides by his commissioner (who is always a nobleman) in this assembly, which meets once a year; but he has no voice in their deliberations. The order of their proceedings is regular, though the number of members often creates a confusion, which the moderator, who is chosen by them to be as it were speaker of the house, has not sufficient authority to prevent. Appeals are brought from all the other ecclesiastical courts in Scotland to the general assembly; and no appeal lies from its determination in religious matters.

Provincial synods are next in authority to the general assembly. They are composed of a number of the adjacent presbyteries, over whom they have a power; and there are fifteen of them in Scotland; but their acts are reversible by the general assembly.

Subordinate to the synods, are presbyteries, of which there are sixty-nine in Scotland, each consisting of a number of contiguous parishes. The ministers of these parishes, with one ruling elder chosen half yearly out of every session, compose a presbytery. These presbyteries meet in the head town of that division, but have no jurisdiction beyond their own bounds, though within these they have cognizance of all ecclesiastical causes and matters. A chief part of their business is the ordination of candidates for livings, in which they are regular and solemn. The patron of a living is bound to nominate or present in six months after a vacancy; otherwise the presbytery fills the place *jure devoluti*; but that privilege does not hold in royal burghs.

A kirk session is the lowest ecclesiastical judicatory in Scotland, and its authority does not extend beyond its own parish. The members consist of the ministers, elders, and deacons. The deacons are laymen, and act nearly as churchwardens do in England, by having the superintendency of the poor, and taking care of other parochial affairs. The elder, or, as he is called, the ruling elder, is a place of great parochial trust, and he is generally a lay-person of quality or interest in the parish. The elders are supposed to act in a kind of co-ordinacy with the minister, and to be assisting to him in many of his clerical duties, particularly in catechising, visiting the sick, and at the communion table.

The office of ministers, or preaching presbyters, includes the offices of deacons and ruling elders; they alone can preach, administer the sacraments, catechise, pronounce church censures, ordain deacons and ruling elders, assist at the imposition of hands upon other ministers, and moderate or preside in all ecclesiastical judicatories.

It has already been observed, that the established religion of Scotland is presbyterian, that it was formerly of a rigid nature, and partook of all the austerities of Calvinism, and of too much of the intolerance of popery: but at present it is mild and gentle; and the sermons and other theological writings of many of the modern Scotch divines are equally distinguished by good sense and moderation. In the Lowlands there are a great number of seceding congregations. They maintain their own preachers, though scarcely any two congregations agree either in principle or practice with each other. We do not, however, find that they oppose the civil power; or at least the instances are rare and inconsiderable: and perhaps many of these *secessions* are lawful, or to be justified on account of the great abuses of patronage, by which many parishes have unworthy or incapable ministers imposed upon them, as is the case in many places in England.

A different set of dissenters, in Scotland, consists of the episcopalians, a few quakers, many baptists, and other sectaries, who are denominated

from their preachers. Episcopacy, from the time of the Restoration in 1660, to that of the Revolution in 1688, was the established religion of Scotland; and would probably have continued so, had not the bishops, who were in general very weak men, and creatures of the duke of York, afterwards James VII. and II. refused to recognise king William's title. The partisans of that unhappy prince retained the episcopal religion; and king William's government was rendered so unpopular in Scotland, that, in queen Anne's time, the episcopalians were more numerous in some parts than the presbyterians; and their meetings, which they held under the act of toleration, as well attended. A Scotch episcopalian thus becoming another name for a Jacobite, they received some checks after the rebellion in 1715; but they recovered themselves so well, that, at the breaking out of the rebellion in 1745, they became again numerous; after which the government found means to invalidate the acts of their clerical order. Their meetings, however, still subsist, but thinly. In the mean while, the decline of the nonjurors is far from having suppressed episcopacy in Scotland; the English bishops supply them with clergy qualified according to law, whose chapels are chiefly filled by the English, and such Scotch hearers of that persuasion as have places under the government.

The defection of some great families from the cause of popery, and the extinction of others, have rendered its votaries inconsiderable in Scotland. They are chiefly confined to the northern parts, and the islands: and though a violent opposition was lately raised against them, fearing their liberties were about to be enlarged, they appear to be as quiet and inoffensive as protestant subjects.

Scotland, during the time of episcopacy, contained two archbishoprics, St. Andrew's and Glasgow; and twelve bishoprics, Edinburgh, Dunkeld, Aberdeen, Murray, Brechin, Dumblain, Roth, Caithness, Orkney, Galloway, Argyle, and the Isles.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] For this article we may refer to the literary history of Europe for 1400 years past. The western parts and isles of Scotland produced St. Patrick, the celebrated apostle of Ireland; and many others since, whose names would make a long article. The writings of Adamnanus, and other authors who lived before and at the time of the Norman invasion, which are come to our hands, are specimens of their learning. Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, most unquestionably held a correspondence by letters with the kings of Scotland, with whom he formed a famous league; and employed Scotchmen in planning, settling, and ruling his favourite universities, and other seminaries of learning in France, Italy, and Germany. It is an undoubted truth, though a seeming paradoxical fact, that Barbour, a Scotch poet, philosopher, and historian, though prior in time to Chaucer, having flourished in the year 1368, wrote, according to the modern ideas, as pure English as that bard; and his versification is perhaps more harmonious. The destruction of the Scotch monuments of learning and antiquity has rendered their early annals lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin style of Buchanan's history is equal in classical purity to that of any modern productions. The letters of the Scotch kings to the neighbouring princes are incomparably the finest compositions of the times in which they were written, and are free from the barbarisms of those sent them in answer. This has been considered as a proof that classical learning was more cultivated at the court of Scotland, than at any other in Europe.

The discovery of the logarithms, a discovery which in point of inge-

nulty and utility may vie with any that has been made in modern times, is the indisputable right of Napier of Merchiston. And since his time, the mathematical sciences have been cultivated in Scotland with great success. Keil, in his physico-mathematical works, to the clearness of his reasoning has added the colouring of a poet; which is the more remarkable, not only as the subject is little susceptible of ornament, but as he wrote in an ancient language. Of all writers on astronomy, Gregory is allowed to be one of the most perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the companion and the friend of sir Isaac Newton, was endowed with all that precision and force of mind, which rendered him peculiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man to the level of ordinary apprehensions, and for diffusing that light through the world, which Newton had confined within the sphere of the learned. His Treatise on Fluxions is regarded by the best judges in Europe, as the clearest account of the most refined and subtle speculations on which the human mind ever exerted itself with success. While Maclaurin pursued this new career, a geometrician no less famous distinguished himself in the sure but almost deserted track of antiquity. This was the late Dr. Simpson, so well known over Europe for his illustration of the ancient geometry. His Elements of Euclid, and, above all, his Conic Sections, are sufficient of themselves to establish the scientific reputation of his native country.

This, however, does not rest on the character of a few mathematicians and astronomers: the fine arts have been called sisters, to denote their affinity. There is the same connection between the sciences, particularly those which depend on observation. Mathematics, and physics, properly so called, were, in Scotland, accompanied by the other branches of study to which they are allied. In medicine particularly, the names of Pitcairn, Arbuthnot, Monro, Smellie, Whytt, Cullen, and Gregory, hold a distinguished place.

Nor have the Scots been unsuccessful in cultivating the belles lettres. Foreigners who inhabit warmer climates, and conceive the northern nations incapable of tenderness and feeling, are astonished at the poetic genius and delicate sensibility of Thomson.

But of all literary pursuits, that of rendering mankind more virtuous and happy, which is the proper object of what is called *morals*, ought to be regarded with peculiar honour and respect. The philosophy of Dr. Hutcheson, not to mention other works more subtle and elegant, but less convincing and less instructive, deserves to be read by all who would know their duty, or who would wish to practise it. Next to Locke's Essay on the Human Understanding, it is perhaps the best dissection of the human mind that has appeared in modern times; and it is likewise the most useful supplement to that Essay.

It would be endless to mention all the individuals who have distinguished themselves in the various branches of literature; particularly as those who are alive (some of them in high esteem for historical composition) dispute the palm of merit with the dead, and cover their country with laurels, which neither envy can blast, nor time can destroy.

[UNIVERSITIES.] The universities of Scotland are four, viz. St. Andrews*,

* St. Andrews has a Chancellor, two Principals, and eleven Professors in

Greek,
Humanity,
Hebrew,
Logic,

Moral Philosophy,
Natural Philosophy,
Mathematics,
Civil History,

Church History,
Divinity,
Medicine.

founded in 1411,—Glasgow *, 1454,—Aberdeen †, 1477,—and Edinburgh ‡, 1582.

It is with pleasure we inform our readers, that a considerable progress has been made in the erection of a new university at Edinburgh, to which our most gracious sovereign has been a very liberal benefactor. This edifice promises to be a noble monument of national taste and spirit.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES } PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, naturally claims the first place in this division. The castle, before the use of artillery, was deemed to be impregnable. It was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whose territory reached to the Frith of Forth, and who gave his name to Edinburgh, as it certainly did not fall into the hands of the Scots till the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the castle; and a more inconvenient situation for a capital can scarcely be conceived; the High-street, which is on the ridge of a hill, lying east and west; and the lanes running down its sides north and south. In former times, the town was surrounded by water, excepting towards the east; so that, when the French landed in Scotland during the regency of Mary of Guise, they gave it the name of Lislebourg. This situation suggested the idea of building very lofty houses divided into stories, each of which contains a suite of rooms, generally large and commodious, for the use of a family; so that the High-street of Edinburgh, which is chiefly of hewn stone, broad, and well paved, makes a most august appearance, especially as it rises a full mile in a direct line and gradual ascent from the palace of Holyrood-house on the east, and is terminated on the west by the rude majesty of its castle, built upon a lofty rock, inaccessible on all sides, except where it joins to the city. The castle not only overlooks the city, its environs, gardens, the new town, and a fine rich neighbouring country, but commands a most extensive prospect of the river Forth, the shipping, the opposite coast of Fife, and

* Glasgow has a Chancellor, Rector, Dean of Faculty, Principal, and fourteen Professors in

Greek,	Moral Philosophy,	Divinity,
Humanity,	Natural Philosophy,	Civil and Scotch Law,
Hebrew,	Mathematics,	Medicine,
Oriental Languages,	Practical Astronomy,	Anatomy.
Logic,	History,	

† Aberdeen has properly two Colleges, viz King's College, and Marischal College. King's College has a chancellor, Rector, Principal, and seven Professors in

Greek,	Philosophy,	Civil Law,
Humanity,	Divinity,	Medicine.
Oriental Languages,		

Marischal College has a Chancellor, Rector, Principal, and seven Professors in

Greek,	Natural Philosophy,	Divinity,
Oriental Languages,	Mathematics,	Medicine.
Moral Philosophy and Logic,		

‡ Edinburgh has a Patron, Principal, and Professors in

Divinity,	Mathematics,	Materia Medica,
Church History,	Civil History,	Inst. of Physic and Medicine,
Greek,	Natural History,	Practice of Medicine,
Humanity,	Scotch Law,	Chemistry,
Hebrew,	Civil Law,	Anatomy,
Logic,	Law of Nature and Nations,	Midwifery.
Moral Philosophy,	Rhetoric and Belles Lettres,	
Natural Philosophy,	Botany,	

even some hills at the distance of 40 or 50 miles, which border upon the Highlands. This crowded population, however, was so extremely inconvenient, that the English, who seldom went farther into the country, returned with the deepest impression of Scotch nastiness, which became proverbial. The castle has some good apartments, a tolerable train of artillery, and has not only a large magazine of arms and ammunition, but contains the regalia, which were deposited here under the most solemn legal instruments of their never being removed from thence. All that is known at present of those regalia, is contained in the instrument which was taken at the time of their being deposited, where they are fully described.

Facing the castle, as I have already observed, at a mile's distance, stands the abbey, or rather palace, of Holy-rood-house. The inner quadrangle of this palace, begun by James V. and finished by Charles I. is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan and under the direction of sir William Bruce, a Scotch gentleman of family, and one of the greatest architects of that age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilasters; and the inside contains magnificent apartments for the duke of Hamilton, who is hereditary keeper of the palace, and for other noblemen. Its long gallery contains figures, some of which are from portraits, but all of them painted by modern artists, of the kings of Scotland down to the time of the Revolution. James VII. when duke of York, intended to have made great improvements about this palace; for at present nothing can be more uncomfortable than its situation, at the bottom of bleak, unimproved crags and mountains, with scarcely a single tree in its neighbourhood. The chapel belonging to the palace, as it stood when repaired and ornamented by that prince, is thought to have been a most elegant piece of Gothic architecture. It had a very lofty roof, and two rows of stone galleries, supported with curious pillars. It was the conventual church of the old abbey. Its inside was demolished and rifled of all its rich ornaments, by the fury of the mob at the Revolution, which even broke into the repositories of the dead, and discovered a vault, till that time unknown, which contained the bodies of James V. his first queen, and Henry Darnley. The walls and roof of this ancient chapel gave way and fell down on the 2d and 3d of December, 1768, occasioned by the enormous weight of a new stone roof, laid over it some years before, which the walls were unable to support.

The hospital, founded by George Herriot, goldsmith to James VI. commonly called Herriot's Work, stands to the south-west of the castle, in a noble situation. It is the finest and most regular specimen which Inigo Jones (who went to Scotland as architect to queen Anne, wife of king James VI.) has left us of his Gothic manner, and far exceeding any thing of that kind to be seen in England. One Balcanquhille, a divine, whom Herriot left his executor, is said to have prevailed upon Jones to admit some barbarous devices into the building, particularly the windows, and to have insisted that the ornaments of each should be somewhat different from those of the others. It is, notwithstanding, upon the whole, a delightful fabric, and adorned with gardens not inelegantly laid out. It was built for the maintenance and education of poor children belonging to the citizens and tradesmen of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magistrates.

Among the other public edifices of Edinburgh, before the Revolution, was the college, which claims the privileges of an university, founded by king James VI. and by him put under the direction of the magistrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. Little can be

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said of its buildings, which were calculated for the sober literary manners of those days; they are, however, improvable, and may be rendered elegant. What is of far more importance, it is supplied with excellent professors in the several branches of learning; and its schools for every part of the medical art are reckoned equal to any in Europe. This college is provided with a library, founded by one Clement Little, which is said to have been of late greatly augmented; and a museum belonging to it was given by sir Andrew Balfour, a physician. It contains several natural and some literary curiosities, which one would little expect to find at Edinburgh.

The Parliament Square, or, as it is there called, Close, was formerly the most ornamental part of this city: it is formed into a very noble quadrangle, part of which consists of lofty buildings: and in the middle is a fine equestrian statue of Charles II. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament-house, though not so large, is better proportioned than Westminster-hall; and its roof, though executed in the same manner, has been by good judges held to be superior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a single judge, called the lord ordinary, presides by rotation: in a room near it, sit the other judges; and adjoining are the public offices of the law, exchequer, chancery, shrievalty, and magistracy of Edinburgh; and the valuable library of the lawyers. This equals any thing of the kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, and was at first entirely founded and furnished by lawyers. The number of printed books it contains is amazing; and the collection has been made with exquisite taste and judgment. It contains likewise the most valuable manuscript remains of the Scotch history, chartularies, and other papers of antiquity, with a series of medals. Adjoining the library, is the room where the public records are kept; but both it, and that which contains the library, though lofty in the roof, are miserably dark and dismal. It is said that preparations are now carrying on, for lodging both the books and papers in rooms far better suited to their importance and value.

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

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, such as the exchange, public offices, its hospitals, bridges, and the like, demonstrate the vast improvement of the taste of the Scots in their public works. Parallel to the city of Edinburgh, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and others, have almost completed a new town, upon a plan which does honour to the present age. The streets and squares are laid out with the utmost regularity, and the houses are built with stone, in an elegant taste, with all the conveniences that render those of England so delightful and commodious. The fronts of some are superbly finished, displaying at the same time the judgment of the builder, and the public spirit of the proprietor.

Between the old and the new town lies a narrow bottom or vale, which, agreeably to the original plan, was to have been formed into a sheet of water, bordered by a terras walk, and the ascent towards the new town covered with pleasure gardens, shrubberies, &c. But this elegant design

fell to nothing, through the narrow ideas of the magistrates, who finding greater benefits by letting the ground to inferior tradesmen upon building leases, this spot, formed by nature as an agreeable opening to a crowded city, became a nuisance to those gentlemen who had been so liberal in ornamenting the buildings upon the summit. A decision of the house of lords (in which a certain great luminary of the law, equally distinguished for his taste and good sense, heartily concurred) put a stop to these mean erections. At the west or upper end of this vale, the castle, a solid rock not less than twenty stories high, looks down with awful magnificence. The eastern extremity is bounded by a striking object of art, a lofty bridge, the middle arch being ninety feet high, which joins the new buildings to the city, and renders the descent on each side the vale (there being no water in this place) more commodious for carriages. I am the more particular in describing this place, that the reader may form some idea of its pleasant situation, standing on an eminence, with a gentle declivity on each side, in the heart of a rich country; the view southward, that of a romantic city, its more romantic castle, and distant hills rising to an amazing height; while the prospect northward gives full scope to the eye, delights the imagination, and fills the mind with such ideas as the works of nature alone can inspire. One agreeable prospect, however, is still wanting, a handsome clean inn or tavern, with a genteel coffee-room, towards the side that overlooks the Forth; and which might easily be accomplished by subscription, and, from the great resort of travellers, could not fail to bring a profitable return.

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

Edinburgh is governed by a lord provost, four bailies, a dean of guild, and a treasurer, annually chosen from the common-council. Every company, or incorporated trade, chooses its own deacon; and here are 14; namely, surgeons, goldsmiths, skinners, furriers, hammer-men, wrights or carpenters, masons, tailors, bakers, butchers, cordwainers, weavers, fullers, and bonnet-makers. The lord provost is colonel of the town-guard, a military institution to be found in no part of his majesty's dominions but in Edinburgh; they serve for the city-watch, and patrol the streets, are useful in suppressing small commotions, and attend the execution of sentences upon delinquents. They are divided into three companies, and wear a uniform; they are immediately commanded by three officers under the name of captains. Besides this guard, Edinburgh raises sixteen companies of trained bands, which serve as militia. The revenues of the city consist chiefly of that tax which is now common in most of the bodies corporate in Scotland, of two Scotch pennies, amounting in the whole to two-thirds of a farthing, laid on every Scotch pint of ale (containing two English quarts) consumed within the precincts of the city. This is a most judicious impost, as it renders the poorest people insensible of the burthen. Its product, however, has been sufficient to defray the expense of supplying the city with excellent water, brought in leaden pipes from the distance of four miles; of erecting re-

servoires, enlarging the harbour of Leith, and completing other public works, of great expence and utility.

Leith, though near two miles distant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh; being under the same jurisdiction. It contains nothing remarkable but the remains of two citadels (if they are not the same), which were fortified and bravely defended by the French, under Mary of Guise, against the English, and afterwards repaired by Cromwell. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble seats, which are daily increasing: some of them yield to none in England; but they are too numerous to be particularised here. I can, however avoid mentioning the earl of Abercorn's, a short way from the city, the duke of Buccleugh's house at Dalkeith, that of the marquis of Lothian at Newbottle, and Hopetoun-house, so called from the name of its owner. About four miles from Edinburgh is Roslin, not far from a very Gothic chapel, esteemed one of the most curious pieces of antiquity in Europe; founded in the year 1440, by William St. Clair, prince of Orkney, and duke of Oldenburgh.

Glasgow, in the shire of Lanerk, situated on a gentle declivity sloping towards the river Clyde, 44 miles west of Edinburgh, is, for population, commerce, and riches, the second city of Scotland, and, considering its size, the first in Great Britain, and perhaps in Europe, as to elegance, regularity, and the beautiful materials of its buildings. The streets cross each other at right angles, and are broad, straight, well paved, and consequently clean. The houses make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five stories high; and many of them, towards the centre of the city, are supported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. Some of the modern-built churches are in the finest style of architecture: and the cathedral is a stupendous Gothic building, hardly to be paralleled in that kind of architecture. It contains three churches, one of which stands above another, and is furnished with a very fine spire springing from a tower; the whole being reckoned a masterly and matchless fabric. It was dedicated to St. Mungo, or Kentigern, who was bishop of Glasgow in the 6th century. The cathedral is upwards of 600 years old, and was preserved from the fury of the rigid reformers by the resolution of the citizens. The town-house is a lofty building, and has very noble apartments for the magistrates. The university is esteemed the most spacious and best built of any in Scotland, and is at present in a thriving state. In the city are several well-endowed hospitals; and it is particularly well supplied with large and convenient inns, proper for the accommodation of strangers of any rank. They have lately built a handsome bridge across the river Clyde; but our bounds do not allow us to particularise that, and the other public-spirited undertakings of this city, carrying on by the inhabitants, who do honour to the benefits arising from their vast commerce, both foreign and internal, which they carry on with amazing success. In Glasgow are seven churches, and eight or ten meeting-houses for sectaries of various denominations. The number of its inhabitants has been estimated at 50,000.

Aberdeen bids fair to be the third town in Scotland for improvement and population. It is the capital of a shire, to which it gives its name, and contains two towns, New and Old Aberdeen. The former is the shire town, and evidently built for the purpose of commerce. It is a large well-built city, and has a good quay, or tide-harbour: in it are three churches, and several episcopal meeting-houses, a considerable degree of foreign commerce and much shipping, a well-frequented university,

and above 12,000 inhabitants. Old Aberdeen, near a mile distant, though almost joined to the new by means of a long village, has no dependence on the other; it is a moderately large market town, but has no haven. In each of these two places there is a well-endowed college, both together being termed the university of Aberdeen, although quite independent of each other.

Perth, the capital town of Perthshire, lying on the river Tay, trades to Norway and the Baltic; is finely situated, has an improving linen manufactory, and lies in the neighbourhood of one of the most fertile spots in Great Britain, called the *Carse of Gowry*. Dundee, by the general computation, contains about 10,000 inhabitants; it lies near the mouth of the river Tay; it is a town of considerable trade, exporting much linen, grain, herrings, and peltry, to sundry foreign parts; and has three churches. Montrose, Aberbrothick, and Brechin, lie in the same county, of Angus: the first has a great and flourishing foreign trade, and the manufactures of the other two are in an improving state.

It may be necessary again to remind the reader, that I write with great uncertainty with regard to the population of Scotland, on account of its improving state. I have rather under than over-rated the number of inhabitants in the towns I have mentioned. Edinburgh certainly contains more than 60,000 souls, which is the computation to which I all along conform myself; but the influx of people, and the increase of matrimony in proportion to that of property, must create great alterations for the better, and few for the worse, because the inhabitants who are disposed to industry may always find employment. This uncertainty is the reason why I omit a particular description of Dumfries, Air, Greenock, Paisley, Stirling, and about fifty other burghs and towns of very considerable trade in Scotland. But great allowances are to be made, on the other hand, for the large emigrations of many to England, America, the West and East Indies, for new settlements.

The ancient Scots valued themselves upon trusting to their own valour, and not to fortifications, for the defence of their country. This was a maxim more heroic perhaps than prudent, as they have often experienced; and, indeed, at this day, their forts would make but a sorry figure, if regularly attacked. The castles of Edinburgh, Stirling, and Dumbarton, formerly thought places of great strength, could not hold out 48 hours, if besieged by 6000 regular troops with proper artillery. Fort William, which lies in the West Highlands, is sufficient to bridle the inhabitants of that neighbourhood; as are Fort George and Fort Augustus, in the north and north-west: but none of them can be considered as defences against a foreign enemy.

I shall not pretend to enter upon a description of the noble edifices that, within the course of this and the last century, have been erected for private persons in Scotland, because they are so numerous that to particularise them exceeds the bounds of my plan. It is sufficient to say, that many of them are equal to some of the most superb buildings in England and foreign countries: and the reader's surprise at this will cease, when he is informed that the genius of no people in the world is more devoted to architecture than that of the nobility and gentry of Scotland; and that there is no country in Europe, on account of the cheapness of materials, where it can be gratified at so moderate an expense. This may likewise account for the stupendous Gothic cathedrals, and other religious edifices, which anciently abounded in Scotland: but at the time of the Reformation they were mostly demolished

by a furious and tumultuous mob, who, in these practices, received too much countenance from the reforming clergy, exasperated at the long and sore sufferings they had endured from the popish party.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The Roman and other anti-
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } quities found in Scotland have
of themselves furnished matter for large volumes. The stations of the Roman legions, their castella, their pretentures or walls reaching across the island, have been traced with great precision by antiquaries and historians; so that, without some fresh discoveries, an account of them could afford no instruction to the learned, and but little amusement to the ignorant; because at present they can be discovered only by critical eyes. Some mention of the chief, however, may be proper. The course of the Roman wall (or, as it is called by the country people, *Graham's Dyke*, from a tradition that a Scottish warrior of that name first broke over it), between the Clyde and Forth, which was first marked out by Agricola, and completed by Antoninus Pius, is still discernible, as are several Roman camps in the neighbourhood*. Agricola's camp, at the bottom of the Grampian hills, is a striking remain of Roman antiquity. It is situated at Ardoch, in Perthshire, and is generally thought to have been the camp occupied by Agricola, before he fought the bloody battle, so well recorded by Tacitus, with the Caledonian king Galgacus, who was defeated. Some writers think that this remain of antiquity at Ardoch was, on account of the numerous Roman coins and inscriptions found near it, a Roman castellum or fort. Be that as it will, it certainly is the most entire and best preserved of any Roman antiquity of that kind in North Britain, having no less than five rows of ditches and six ramparts on the south side; and of the four gates which lead into the area, three are very distinct and plain, viz. the *prætoria*, *décumana*, and *dextra*.

The Roman temple, or building in the form of the Pantheon at Rome, or of the dome of St. Paul's at London, stood upon the banks of the river Carron in Stirlingshire, but has been lately barbarously demolished by a neighbouring Goth, for the purpose of mending a mill-pond. Its height was twenty-two feet, and its external circumference at the base was eighty-eight feet; so that upon the whole it was one of the most complete Roman antiquities in the world. It is thought to have been built by Agricola, or some of his successors, as a temple to the god *Terminus*, as it stood near the pretenture which bounded the Roman empire in Britain to the north. Near it are some artificial conical mounds of earth, which still retain the name of *Duni-pace*, or *Duni-*

* Near the western extremity of this wall, at Duntocher in Dumbartonshire, a countryman, in digging a trench on the declivity of a hill upon which are seen the remains of a Roman fort, turned up several uncommon tiles, which exciting the curiosity of the peasantry in that neighbourhood, it was not long before they broke in upon an entire subterraneous building, from which they dug out a cart-load of these materials. A gentleman, who was then upon a journey through that part of Scotland, found means, upon the second day, to stop all farther proceedings, in hopes that some public-spirited persons would, by taking off the surface, explore the whole without demolishing it. The tiles are of seven different sizes; the smallest being seven, and the largest twenty-one inches square. They are from two to three inches in thickness, of a reddish colour, and in a perfectly sound condition. The lesser ones composed several rows of pillars, which form a labyrinth of passages about eighteen inches square; and the larger tiles being laid over the whole, serve as a roof to support the earth above which is found to be two feet in depth. The building is surrounded by a subterraneous wall of hewn stone. The bones and teeth of animals, with a footy kind of earth were found in the passages; from which some have conjectured this building to have been occupied as a hot-bed for the use of the neighbouring garrison.

pacis; which serve to evidence that there was a kind of solemn compromise between the Romans and the Caledonians, that the former should not extend their empire farther to the northward.

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

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

Two Pictish monuments, as they are thought to be, of a very extraordinary construction, were lately standing in Scotland; one of them at Abernethy in Perthshire, the other at Brechin in Angus; both of them are columns, hollow in the inside, and without the stair-case; that of Brechin is the most entire, being covered at the top with a spiral roof of stone, with three or four windows above the cornice: it consists of sixty regular courses of hewn free-stone, laid circularly, and regularly tapering towards the top. If these columns are really Pictish, that people must have had among them architects that far exceeded those of any coeval monuments to be found in Europe, as they have all the appearance of an order; and the building is neat, and in the Roman style of architecture. It is, however, difficult to assign them to any but the Picts, as they stand in their dominions; and some sculptures upon that at Brechin denote it to be of Christian origin. It is not indeed impossible that these sculptures are of a later date. Besides these two pillars, many other Pictish buildings are found in Scotland, but not of the same taste.

The vestiges of erections by the ancient Scots themselves are not only curious but instructive, as they regard many important events of their history. That people had amongst them a rude notion of sculpture, in which they transmitted the actions of their kings and heroes. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, four or five ancient obelisks are still to be seen, called the Danish stones of Aberlemno. They are erected as commemorations of the Scotch victories over that people; and are adorned with bas-reliefs of men on horseback, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics, not intelligible at this day, but minutely described by Mr. Gordon. Many other historical monuments of the Scots may be discovered on the like occasions: but it must be acknowledged that the obscurity of their sculptures has opened a field of boundless and frivolous conjectures, so that the interpretations of many of them are often fanciful. It would, however, be unpardonable, if I should neglect to mention the stone near the town of Forreth, or Fortrose, in Murray, which far surpasses all the others in magnificence and grandeur; and is (says Mr. Gordon) perhaps one of the most stately monuments of that kind in Europe. It rises about 23 feet in height above ground, and is, as I am credibly informed, no less than 12 or 15 feet below; so that the whole height is at least 35 feet, and its breadth near 5. It is all one single and entire stone; great variety of

figures in relief are carved thereon, and some of them still distinct and visible; but the injury of the weather has obscured those towards the upper part." Though this monument has been generally looked upon as Danish, yet I have little doubt of its being Scotch, and that it was erected in commemoration of the final expulsion of the Danes out of Murray, where they held their last settlement in Scotland, after the defeat they received from Malcolm, a few years before the Norman invasion.

At Sandwick, in Ross-shire, is a very splendid ancient obelisk, surrounded at the base with large, well-cut flag stones, formed like steps. Both sides of the column are covered with various enrichments, in well-finished carved work. The one face presents a sumptuous cross, with a figure of St. Andrew on each hand, and some uncouth animals and flowerings underneath. The central division on the reverse exhibits a variety of curious figures, birds, and animals.

The ruins of the cathedral of Elgin are very striking; and many parts of that fine building have still the remains of much grandeur and dignity in them. The west door is highly ornamented; there is much elegance in the carvings, and the whole edifice displays very elaborate workmanship.

Among the remains of ancient castles, may be mentioned Kildrumy castle in the north of Scotland, which was formerly a place of great strength and magnificence, and often used as an asylum to noble families in periods of civil war. Inverurie castle, the ancient seat of the earl-marschals of Scotland, is also a large and lofty pile, situated on a steep bank of the river; two very high towers bound the front, and, even in their decaying state, give the castle an air of much grandeur and antiquity. Vast rows of venerable trees, inclosing the adjoining garden, add to the effect of the decayed buildings. Near the town of Huntly are the ruins of Huntly castle. On the avenue that leads to it, are two large square towers, which had defended the gateway. The castle seems to be very old, and a great part of it is demolished; but there is a massy building of a more modern date, in which some of the apartments, and in particular their curious ceilings, are still in tolerable preservation. They are painted with a great variety of subjects, in small divisions, in which are contained many emblematical figures.

Besides these remains of Roman, Pictish, Danish, and Scottish antiquities, many Druidical monuments and temples are discernible in the northern parts of Scotland, as well as in the isles, where we may suppose that paganism took its last refuge. They are easily perceived by their circular forms; but though they are equally regular, yet none of them are so stupendous as the Druidical erections in South Britain. There is in Perthshire a barrow which seems to be a British erection, and the most beautiful of the kind perhaps in the world. It exactly resembles the figure of a ship with the keel uppermost. The common people call it Ternay, which some interpret to be *terre navis*, the ship of earth. It seems to be of the most remote antiquity, and perhaps was erected to the memory of some British prince, who acted as auxiliary to the Romans; for it lies near Auchterarder, not many miles distant from the great scene of Agricola's operations.

The traces of ancient volcanoes are not unfrequent in Scotland. The hill of Finehaven is one instance; and the hill of Bergonium, near Dunstaffage castle, is another, yielding vast quantities of pumices or scorias of different kinds, many of which are of the same species with those of the Icelandic volcanoes. Among other natural curiosities of this coun-

try, mention is made of a heap of white stones, most of them clear like crystal, together with great plenty of oyster and other sea shells; they are found on the top of a mountain called Skorna-Lappich, in Ross-shire, twenty miles distant from the sea. Slains, in Aberdeenshire, is said to be remarkable for a petrifying cave, called the Dropping Cave, where water oozing through a spongy porous rock at the top, quickly consolidates after it drops to the bottom. Other natural curiosities belonging to Scotland have their descriptions and histories; but they generally owe their extraordinary qualities to the credulity of the vulgar, and vanish when they are skilfully examined. Some caverns that are to be found in Fifeshire, and are probably natural, are of extraordinary dimensions, and have been the scenes of inhuman cruelties.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] In these respects Scotland has, for some years past, been in a very improving state. Without entering into the disputed point, how far Scotland was benefited by its union with England, it is certain that the expedition of the Scots to take possession of Darien, and to carry on the East and West India trade, was founded upon true principles of commerce, and (so far as it went) executed with a noble spirit of enterprise. The miscarriage of that scheme, after receiving the highest and most solemn sanctions, is a disgrace to the annals of that reign in which it happened; as the Scots had then a free, independent, and unconnected parliament. We are to account for the long languor of the Scottish commerce, and many other misfortunes which that country sustained, by the disgust the inhabitants conceived on that account, and some invasions of their rights afterwards, which they thought inconsistent with the articles of union. The entails and narrow settlements of family estates, and some remains of the feudal institutions, might contribute to the same effect.

Mr. Pelham, when at the head of the administration in England, after the extinction of the rebellion in 1745, was the first minister who discovered the true value of Scotland, which then became a more considerable object of governmental inquiry than ever. All the benefits received by that country, for the relief of the people from their feudal tyranny, were effected by that great man. The bounties and encouragements granted to the Scots, for the benefit of trade and manufactures, during his administration, made them sensible of their own importance. Mr. Pitt, a succeeding minister, pursued Mr. Pelham's wise plan, and justly boasted in parliament, that he availed himself of the courage, good sense, and spirit of the Scots, in carrying on the most extensive war that ever Great Britain was engaged in. Let me add, to the honour of the British government, that the Scots have been suffered to avail themselves of all the benefits of commerce and manufactures they can claim, either in right of their former independency, the treaty of union, or posterior acts of parliament.

This is manifest from the extensive trade they lately carried on with the British settlements in America and the West Indies, and with all the nations to which the English themselves trade; so that the increase of their shipping within these thirty years past has been very considerable. The exports of those ships are composed chiefly of Scottish manufactures, fabricated from the produce of the soil, and the industry of its inhabitants. In exchange for these, they import tobacco, rice, cotton, sugar, and rum, from the British plantations; and from other countries, their products, to the immense saving of their nation. The prosperity of Glasgow and its neighbourhood has been greatly owing to the connection and trade with Virginia and the West Indies.

The fisheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coasts, for they have a great concern in the whale-fishery carried on upon the coast of Spitsbergen; and their returns are valuable, as the government allows them a bounty of 40s. for every ton of shipping employed in that article. The late improvement of their fisheries, which I have already mentioned, and which are daily increasing, opens inexhaustible funds of wealth; their cured fish being, by foreigners, and the English planters in America, preferred to those of Newfoundland.

The busses, or vessels employed in the great herring fishery on the western coasts of Scotland, are fitted out from the north-west parts of England, the north of Ireland, as well as the numerous ports of the Clyde and neighbouring islands. The grand rendezvous is at Campbeltown, a commodious port of Argyleshire, facing the north of Ireland, where sometimes 300 vessels have been assembled. They clear out on the 12th of September, and must return to their different ports, by the 13th of January. They are also under certain regulations respecting the number of tons, men, nets, &c. the whole being judiciously calculated to promote the best of national purposes, its strength, and its commerce. But though the political existence of Great-Britain depends upon the number and bravery of her seamen, this noble institution has hitherto proved ruinous to many of those who have embarked in it, and, unless vigorously supported, must fail of attaining its object.

To encourage this fishery, a bounty of 50s. per ton was granted by parliament; but, whether from the insufficiency of the fund appropriated for this purpose, or any other cause, the bounty was withheld from year to year, while in the mean time the adventurers were not only sinking their fortunes, but also borrowing to the utmost limits of their credit. The bounty has since been reduced from 50 to 30s. with the strongest assurances of its being regularly paid when due. Upon the strength of these promises they have again embarked in the fishery; and it is to be wished that no consideration whatever may tend to withdraw an inducement so requisite to place their fishery on a permanent footing.

The benefits of these fisheries are perhaps equalled by manufactures carrying on at land; particularly that of iron at Carron, in Stirlingshire.

Their linen manufactory, notwithstanding a strong rivalry from Ireland, is in a flourishing state. The thread manufacture of Scotland is equal, if not superior, to any in the world; and the lace fabricated from it has been deemed worthy of royal wear and approbation. It has been said, some years ago, that the exports from Scotland to England and the British plantations, in linen, cambrics, checks, Osnaburghs, inkle, and the like commodities, amounted annually to 400,000*l.* exclusive of their home consumption; and there is reason to believe that the sum is considerably larger at present. The Scots are likewise making very promising efforts for establishing woollen manufactures; and their exports of caps, stockings, mittens, and other articles of their own wool, begin to be very considerable. The Scots, it is true, cannot pretend to rival the English in their finer cloths; but they make at present some broad-cloth proper for the wear of people of fashion in an undress, and in quality and fineness equal to what is commonly called Yorkshire cloth. Among the other late improvements of the Scots, we are not to forget the vast progress they have made in working the mines, and smelting the ore of their country. Their coal trade to England is well

known; and of late they have turned even their stone to account, by their contracts for paving the streets of London. If the great trade in cattle, which the Scots carried on of late with the English, is now diminished, it is owing to the best of national causes, that of an increase of home consumption.

The trade carried on by the Scots with England, is chiefly from Leith, and the eastern ports of the nation; but Glasgow was the great emporium for the American commerce, before the commencement of the unhappy breach with the colonies. The late junction of the Forth to the Clyde will render the benefits of trade mutual to both parts of Scotland. In short, the more that the seas, the situation, the soil, the harbours, and rivers of this country, come to be known, the better adapted it appears for all the purposes of commerce, both foreign and domestic.

With regard to other manufactures, not mentioned, some of them are yet in their infancy. The town of Paisley alone employs an incredible number of hands in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and striped lawns, which are a reasonable and elegant wear. Sugar-houses, glass-works of every kind, delft-houses, and paper-mills, are erected everywhere. The Scotch carpeting makes neat and lasting furniture; and some essays have been lately made, with no inconsiderable degree of success, to carry that branch of manufacture to as great perfection as in any part of Europe. After all that has been said, many years will be required before the trade and improvements in Scotland can be brought to maturity. In any event they never can give umbrage to the English, as the interests of the two people are, or ought to be, the same.

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

REVENUES.] See England.

COINS.] In the reign of Edward II. of England, the value and denominations of coins were the same in Scotland as in England. Towards the reign of James II. a Scotch shilling answered to about an English sixpence; and about the reign of queen Mary of Scotland, it was not more than an English groat. It continued diminishing in this manner till after the union of the two crowns under her son James VI. when the vast resort of the Scotch nobility and gentry to the English court occasioned such a drain of specie from Scotland, that by degrees a Scotch shilling fell to the value of one twelfth of an English shilling,

and their pennies in proportion. A Scotch penny is now very rarely to be found; and they were succeeded by bodles, which were double the value of a Scotch penny, and are still current, but are daily wearing out. A Scotch halfpenny was called a *babie*; some say, because it was first stamped with the head of James III. when he was a babe or baby; but perhaps it is only a corruption of two French words *bas piece*, signifying a low piece of money. The same observation that we have made of the Scotch shilling, holds of their pounds or marks; which are not coins, but denominations of sums. In all other respects, the currency of money in Scotland and England is the same, as very few people now reckon by the Scotch computation.

ORDER OF THE THISTLE.] This is a military order instituted, as the Scotch writers assert, by their king Achaius, in the ninth century, upon his making an offensive and defensive league with Charlemagne, king of France; or, as others say, on account of his victory over Athelstan, king of England, when he vowed in the kirk of St. Andrew, that he and his posterity should ever bear in their ensigns the figure of that cross on which the saint suffered. It has been frequently neglected, and as often resumed. It consists of the sovereign and 12 companions, who are called Knights of the Thistle, and have on their ensign this significant motto, *Nemo me impune lacesset*, "None shall safely provoke me."

LAWS AND CONSTITUTION.] The ancient constitution and government in Scotland has been highly applauded, as excellently adapted to the preservation of liberty; and it is certain, that the power of the king was greatly limited, and that there were many checks in the constitution upon him, which were well calculated to prevent his assuming or exercising a despotic authority. But the Scottish constitution of government was too much of the aristocratic kind to afford to the common people that equal liberty which they had a right to expect. The king's authority was sufficiently restrained; but the nobles, chieftains, and great landholders, had it too much in their power to tyrannise over and oppress their tenants, and the common people.

The ancient kings of Scotland, at their coronation, took the following oath, containing three promises, *viz.*

"In the name of Christ, I promise these three things to the Christian people my subjects: First, that I shall give order, and employ my force and assistance, that the church of God, and the christian people, may enjoy true peace during our time under our government. Secondly, I shall prohibit and hinder all persons, of whatever degree, from violence and injustice. Thirdly, in all judgments I shall follow the prescriptions of justice and mercy, to the end that our clement and merciful God may show mercy unto me and to you."

The parliament of Scotland anciently consisted of all who held any portion of land, however small, of the crown, by military service. This parliament appointed the time of its own meetings and adjournments, and committees to superintend the administration during the intervals of parliament; it had a commanding power in all matters of government; it appropriated the public money, ordered the keeping of it, and called for the accounts; it armed the people, and appointed commanders; it named and commissioned ambassadors; it granted and limited pardons; it appointed judges and courts of judicature; it named officers of state and privy-counsellors; it annexed and alienated the revenues of the crown, and restrained grants by the king. The king of Scotland had no negative voice in parliament; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public business of importance,

without the advice and approbation of parliament. The prerogative of the king was so bounded, that he was not even intrusted with the executive part of the government. And so late as the minority of James IV. who was contemporary with, and son-in-law to, Henry VII. of England, the parliament pointed out to him his duty, as the first servant of his people; as appears by the act still extant. In short, the constitution was rather aristocratical than monarchical. The abuse of these aristocratical powers, by the chieftains and great landholders, gave the king, however, a very considerable interest among the lower ranks; and a prince who had sense and address to retain the affections of his people, was generally able to humble the most overgrown of his subjects; but when, on the other hand, a king of Scotland, like James III. showed a disrespect to his parliament, the event was commonly fatal to the crown. The kings of Scotland, notwithstanding this paramount power in the parliament, found means to weaken and elude its force; and in this they were assisted by the clergy, whose revenues were immense, and who had very little dependence upon the pope, and were always jealous of the powerful nobility. This was done by establishing a select body of members, who were called *the lords of the articles*. These were chosen out of the clergy, nobility, knights, and burgeses. The bishops, for instance, chose eight peers, and the peers eight bishops; and these sixteen jointly chose eight barons (or knights of the shire), and eight commissioners for burghs; and to all these were added eight great officers of state, the chancellor being president of the whole.

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

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

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

verdict. The feudal customs, even at the time of the Restoration, were so prevalent, and the rescue of a great criminal was commonly so much apprehended, that seldom above two days passed between the sentence and execution.

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

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

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

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

The privy-council of Scotland, before the Revolution, had, or assumed, inquisitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now sunk in the parliament and privy-council of Great Britain; and the civil and criminal causes in Scotland are chiefly cognisable by two courts of judicature.

The first is that of the college of justice, which was instituted by James V. after the model of the French parliament, to supply an ambulatory committee of parliament, who took to themselves the names of the lords of council and session, which the present members of the college of justice

still retain. This court consists of a president and fourteen ordinary members, besides extraordinary ones named by the king, who may sit and vote, but have no salaries and are not bound to attendance. This court may be called a standing jury in all matters of property that lie before them. The civil law is their directory in all matters that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. It has been often matter of surprize, that the Scots were so tenacious of the forms of their courts, and the essence of their laws, as to reserve them by the articles of the Union. This, however, may be easily accounted for, because those laws and forms were essential to the possession of estates and lands, which in Scotland are often held by modes incompatible with the laws of England. The lords of council and session act likewise as a court of equity; but their decrees are (fortunately perhaps for the subject) reversible by the British house of lords, to which an appeal lies. The supreme criminal judge was named the Justiciar, and the court of judiciary succeeded to his power.

The justice-court is the highest criminal tribunal in Scotland; but in its present form it was instituted so late as the year 1672, when a lord-justice-general, removable at the king's pleasure, was appointed. This lucrative office still exists in the person of one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court are the justice-clerk and five other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of session. In this court the verdict of a jury condemns or acquits; but, as I have already hinted, without the necessity of their being unanimous.

Besides these two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the Union, have a court of exchequer. This court has the same power, authority, privilege, and jurisdiction, over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of exchequer in England has over the revenue there; and all matters and things competent to the court of exchequer of England relating thereto, are likewise competent to the exchequer of Scotland. The judges of the exchequer in Scotland exercise certain powers which formerly belonged to the treasury, and are still vested in that of England.

The court of admiralty in Scotland was, in the reign of Charles II. by act of parliament, declared to be a supreme court, in all causes competent to its own jurisdiction: and the lord high admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and justice-general upon the seas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the same; and upon fresh waters and navigable rivers, below the first bridge, or within flood-mark; so that nothing competent to its jurisdiction can be meddled with, in the first instance, but by the lord high admiral and judges of his court. Sentences passed in all inferior courts of admiralty may be brought again before his court: but no appeal lies from it to the lords of the session, or any other judicatory, unless in cases not maritime. Causes are tried in this court by the civil law, which in some cases is likewise the common law of Scotland, as well as by the laws of Oleron, Wisby, and the Hanse-Towns, and other maritime practices and decisions common upon the continent. The place of lord-admiral of Scotland is little more than nominal; but the salary annexed to it is reckoned worth 1000l. a year; and the judge of the admiralty is commonly a lawyer of distinction, with considerable perquisites pertaining to his office.

The college or faculty of advocates, which answers to the English inns of court, may be called the seminary of Scotch lawyers. They are within themselves an orderly court, and their forms require great precision and examination to qualify its candidates for admission. Subordinate to them is a body of inferior lawyers, or, as they may be called, attorneys, who call themselves writers to the signet, because they alone can subscribe

the writs that pass the signet; they likewise have a by government for their own regulation. Such are the different law-courts that are held in the capital of Scotland: we shall pass to those that are inferior.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The institution of coroners is as old as the reign of Malcolm II. the great legislator of Scotland, who lived before the Norman invasion of England. They took cognizance of all breaches of the king's peace; and they were required to have clerks to register depositions and matters of fact, as well as verdicts of jurors: the office, however, is at present much diffused in Scotland.

From the above short view of the Scotch laws and institutions, it is plain that they were radically the same with those of the English. The latter allege, indeed, that the Scots borrowed the contents of their *Regiam Majestatem*, their oldest law-book, from the work of Glanville, who was a judge under Henry II. of England. The Scots, on the other hand,

say that Glanville's work was copied from their *Regiam Majestatem*, even with the peculiarities of the latter, which do not now, and never did, exist in the laws of England.

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

The conformity between the practice of the civil law of Scotland, and that in England, is remarkable. The English law-reports are of the same nature with the Scotch practice; and their acts of *federunt* answer to the English rules of court; the Scottish wadsets and reversions, to the English mortgages and defeasances; their pouding of goods, after letters of horning, is much the same as the English executions upon outlawries; and an appeal against the king's pardon, in cases of murder, by the next of kin to the deceased, is admitted in Scotland as well as in England. Many other usages are the same in both kingdoms. I cannot, however, dismiss this head without one observation, which proves the similarity between the English and Scotch constitutions, which I believe has been mentioned by no author. In old times, all the freeholders in Scotland met together in presence of the king, who was seated on the top of a hillock, which, in the old Scottish constitution, is called the Moot, or Mute-hill; all national affairs were here transacted; judgments given, and differences ended. This Moot-hill I apprehend to be of the same nature as the Saxon Folcmote, and to signify no more than the hill of meeting.

HISTORY.] Though the writers of ancient Scotch history are too fond of system and fable, yet it is easy to collect, from the Roman authors, and other evidences, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by different people. The Caledonians were probably the first inhabitants; the Picts undoubtedly were the Britons who were forced northwards by the Belgic Gauls, about fourscore years before the descent of Julius Cæsar, and who, settling in Scotland, were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, that were driven northwards by the Romans. The Scots most probably were a nation of adventurers from the ancient Scythia, who had served in the armies on the continent, and, as has been already hinted, after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country. The tract lying southward of the Forth appears to have been inhabited by the Saxons, and by the Britons, who formed the kingdom of Alcnith, the capital of which was Dumbarton; but all these people in process of time were subdued by the Scots.

It does not appear that the Caledonians, the ancient Celtic inhabitants of Scotland, were attacked by any of the Roman generals before Agricola, anno 79. The name of the prince he fought with was Galdus, by Tacitus named Galgacus; and the history of that war is not only transmitted with great precision, but corroborated by the remains of the Roman encampments and forts, raised by Agricola in his march toward Dunkeld, the capital of the Caledonians. The brave stand made by Galdus against that great general, does honour to the valour of both people; and the sentiments of the Caledonian, concerning the freedom and independency of his country, appear to have warmed the noble historian with the same generous passion. It is plain, however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola to conceal some part of this war; for though he makes his countrymen victorious, yet they certainly returned southward, to the province of the Horesti, which was the county of Fife, without improving their advantage.

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

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

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

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

About the year 796, the Scots were governed by Achaus, a prince so much respected, that his friendship was courted by Charlemagne,

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

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Canmore, from two Gaëlic words which signify a *large head*, but most probably from his great capacity, was the eighty-sixth king of Scotland, from Fergus I. the supposed founder of the monarchy; the forty-seventh from its restorer, Fergus II. and the twenty-second from Kenneth III. who conquered the kingdom of the Picts. Every reader who is acquainted with the tragedy of Macbeth, as written by the inimitable Shakspeare, who keeps close to the facts delivered by historians, can be no stranger to the fate of Malcolm's father, and his own history, previous to his mounting the throne in the year 1057. He was a wise and a magnanimous prince, and in no respect inferior to his cotemporary the Norman conqueror, with whom he was often at war. He married Margaret, daughter to Edward, surnamed the Outlaw, son to Edmund Ironside, king of England. By the death of her brother Edgar Atheling, the Saxon right to the crown of England devolved upon the posterity of that princess, who was one of the wisest and worthiest women of the age; and her daughter Maud was accordingly married to Henry I. of England. Malcolm, after a glorious reign, was killed, with his son, treacherously, it is said, at the siege of Alnwick, by the besieged.

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

Notwithstanding the endeavours of some historians to conceal what they cannot deny, I mean the glories of this reign, it yet appears that David was one of the greatest princes of that age, whether we regard him as a man, a warrior, or a legislator. The noble actions he performed in the service of his niece, the empress Maud, in her competition with king Stephen for the English crown, give us the highest idea of his virtues, as they could be the result only of duty and principle. To him Henry II. the mightiest prince of his age, owed his

crown; and his possessions in England, joined to the kingdom of Scotland, placed David's power nearly on an equality with that of England, when confined to this island. His actions and adventures, and the resources he always found in his own courage, prove him to have been a hero of the first rank. If he appeared to be too lavish to churchmen, and in his religious endowments, we are to consider these were the only means by which he could then civilise his kingdom: and the code of laws I have already mentioned to have been drawn up by him, do his memory immortal honour. They are said to have been compiled under his inspection by learned men, whom he assembled from all parts of Europe in his magnificent abbey of Melros. He was succeeded by his grandson Malcolm IV. and he by William, surnamed, from his valour, The Lion. William's son, Alexander II. was succeeded, in 1249, by Alexander III. who was a good king. He married, first, Margaret, daughter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had Alexander, the prince who married the earl of Flanders's daughter; David, and Margaret who married Hangowan, or, as some call him, Eric, son to Magnus IV. king of Norway, who bore to him a daughter named Margaret, commonly called the Maiden of Norway; in whom king William's whole posterity failed; and the crown of Scotland returned to the descendants of David earl of Huntingdon, brother to king Malcolm IV and king William.

This detail has been given, because it is connected with great events. Upon the death of Alexander III. John Baliol, who was great-grandson to David earl of Huntingdon by his eldest daughter Margaret, and Robert Bruce (grandfather to the great king Robert Bruce) grandson to the same earl of Huntingdon by his youngest daughter Isabel, became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The laws of succession, which were not so well established in Europe as they are at present, rendered the case very difficult. Both parties were almost equally matched in interest; but after a confused interregnum of some years, the great nobility agreed in referring the decision to Edward I. of England, the most politic and ambitious prince of his age. He accepted the office of arbiter: but having long had an eye to the crown of Scotland, he revived some obsolete absurd claims of its dependency upon that of England; and finding that Baliol was disposed to hold it by that disgraceful tenure, Edward awarded it to him; but afterwards dethroned him, and treated him as a slave, without Baliol's resenting it.

After this, Edward used many endeavours to annex the crown of Scotland to his own, which were often defeated; and though Edward for a short time made himself master of Scotland, yet the Scots were ready to revolt against him on every favourable opportunity. Those of them who were so zealously attached to the independency of their country, as to be resolved to hazard every thing for it, were indeed but few, compared to those in the interest of Edward and Baliol, which was the same: and for some time they were obliged to temporise. Edward availed himself of their weakness and his own power. He accepted of a formal surrender of the crown of Baliol, to whom he allowed a pension, but detained him in England; and sent every nobleman in Scotland whom he in the least suspected, to different prisons in or near London. He then forced the Scots to sign instruments of their submission to him, and most barbarously carried off or destroyed all the monuments of their history, and the evidence of their independency and particularly the famous fatidical or prophetic stone, which is still to be seen in Westminster Abbey.

These severe proceedings, while they rendered the Scots sensible of their slavery, revived in them the ideas of their freedom; and Edward finding their spirits were not to be subdued, endeavoured to caress them, and affected to treat them on a footing of equality with his own subjects, by projecting an union, the chief articles of which have since taken place between the two kingdoms. The Scotch patriots treated this project with disdain, and united under the brave William Wallace, the truest hero of his age, to expel the English. Wallace performed actions that entitled him to eternal renown, in executing this scheme. Being however no more than a private gentleman, and his popularity daily increasing, the Scotch nobility, among whom was Robert Bruce, the son of the first competitor, began to suspect that he had an eye upon the crown, especially after he had defeated the earl of Surry, Edward's vice-roy of Scotland, in the battle of Stirling, and had reduced the garrisons of Berwick and Roxburgh, and was declared by the states of Scotland their protector. Their jealousy operated so far, that they formed violent cabals against the brave Wallace. Edward, upon this, once more invaded Scotland, at the head of the most numerous and best disciplined army England had ever seen; for it consisted of 80,000 foot, 3000 horse-men completely armed, and 4000 light armed; and was attended by a fleet to supply it with provisions. These, besides the troops who joined him in Scotland, formed an irresistible body: Edward, however, was obliged to divide it, reserving the command of 40,000 of his best troops to himself. With these he attacked the Scotch army under Wallace at Falkirk, while their disputes ran so high, that the brave regent was deserted by Cumming, the most powerful nobleman in Scotland, and at the head of the best division of his countrymen. Wallace, whose troops did not exceed 30,000, being thus betrayed, was defeated with vast loss, but made an orderly retreat; during which he found means to have a conference with Bruce, and to convince him of his error in joining with Edward. Wallace still continued in arms, and performed many gallant actions against the English; but was betrayed into the hands of Edward, who most ungenerously put him to death at London, as a traitor. Edward died as he was preparing to renew his invasion of Scotland with a still more desolating spirit of ambition, after having destroyed 100,000 of her inhabitants.

Bruce died soon after the battle of Falkirk, but not before he had inspired his son, who was a prisoner at large about the English court, with the glorious resolution of vindicating his own rights, and his country's independency. He escaped from London, and with his own hand killed Cumming, for his attachment to Edward; and after collecting a few patriots, among whom were his own four brothers, he assumed the crown, but was defeated by the English (who had a great army in Scotland) at the battle of Methven. After his defeat, he fled with one or two friends to the western isles and parts of Scotland, where his fatigues and sufferings were as inexpressible, as the courage with which he and his few friends bore them (the lord Douglas especially) was incredible. Though his wife and daughters were sent prisoners to England, where the best of his friends and two of his brothers were put to death, yet such was his persevering spirit, that he recovered all Scotland, excepting the castle of Stirling, and improved every advantage that was given him by the dissipated conduct of Edward II. who raised an army more numerous and better appointed than that of his father, to make a total conquest of Scotland. It is said that it consisted of 100,000 men, though this has been supposed to be an exaggerated com-

putation: however, it is admitted that the army of Bruce did not exceed 30,000; but all of them veterans, who had been bred up in a detestation of tyranny.

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

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

The glory of the Scots may be said to have been in its zenith under Robert I. who was succeeded by his son David II. He was a virtuous prince; but his abilities, both in war and peace, were eclipsed by his brother-in-law and enemy, Edward III. of England, whose sister he married. Edward, who was as eager as any of his predecessors to effect the conquest of Scotland, espoused the cause of Baliol, son to Baliol the original competitor. His progress was at first amazingly rapid; and he and Edward defeated the royal party in many bloody battles; but Baliol was at last driven out of his usurped kingdom by the Scotch pa-

* That the Scots of those days were better acquainted with Mars than the Muses, may be seen from a scoffing ballad made on this memorable victory, which begins as follows:

Maydens of England fore may you mourn,
For your lemans zou have lost at Bannockburn.
With heve a low!
What ho! ween'd the king of England,
Sofoon to have won all Scotland?
With rummy low.

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tricts. David had the misfortune to be taken prisoner by the English at the battle of Durham; and, after continuing above eleven years in captivity, paid 100,000 marks for his ransom; and died in peace, without issue, in the year 1371.

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

James the first of that name, upon his return to Scotland, discovered great talents for government, enacted many wise laws, and was beloved by the people. He had received an excellent education in England during the reigns of Henry IV. and V. where he saw the feudal system refined from many of the imperfections which still adhered to it in his own kingdom; he determined therefore to abridge the overgrown power of the nobles, and to recover such lands as had been unjustly wrested from the crown during his minority and the preceding reigns; but the execution of these designs cost him his life; he being murdered in his bed by some of the chief nobility in 1437, and the forty-fourth year of his age.

A long minority succeeded; but James II. would probably have equalled the greatest of his ancestors both in warlike and civil virtues, had he not been suddenly killed by the accidental bursting of a cannon, in the thirteenth year of his age, as he was besieging the castle of Roxburgh, which was defended by the English.

Suspicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to females, and many of the errors of a feeble mind, are visible in the conduct of James III. and his turbulent reign was closed by a rebellion of his subjects, being slain in battle in 1488, aged thirty-five.

His son, James IV. was the most accomplished prince of the age: he was naturally generous and brave: he loved magnificence, he delighted in war, and was eager to obtain fame. He encouraged and protected the commerce of his subjects, so that they greatly increased in riches; and the court of James, at the time of his marriage with Henry VII.'s daughter, was splendid and respectable. Even this alliance could not cure him of his family distemper, a predilection for the French, in whose cause he rashly entered, and was killed, with the flower of his nobility, by the English, in the battle of Flodden, anno 1513, and the fortieth of his age.

The minority of his son, James V. was long and turbulent: and when he grew up, he married two French ladies; the first being daughter to the king of France, and the latter of the house of Guise. He instituted the court of session, enacted many salutary laws, and greatly promoted the trade of Scotland, particularly the working of the mines. At this time the balance of power was so equally poised between the contending princes of Europe, that James's friendship was courted by the pope,

the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle Henry VIII. of England, from all whom he received magnificent presents. But James took little share in foreign affairs; he seemed rather to imitate his predecessors in their attempts to humble the nobility: and the doctrines of the reformation beginning to be propagated in Scotland, he permitted, at the instigation of the clergy, a religious persecution; though it is generally believed, that, had he lived longer, he would have seized all the church revenues, in imitation of Henry. Having rather slighted some friendly overtures made to him by the king of England, and thereby given great umbrage to that prince, a war at length broke out between them. A large army, under the command of the duke of Norfolk, entered Scotland, and ravaged the country north of the Tweed. After this short expedition, the English army retired to Berwick. Upon this the king of Scotland sent ten thousand men to the western borders, who entered England at Solway Frith; and he himself followed them at a small distance, ready to join them upon occasion. He soon after gave great offence to the nobility and the army, by imprudently depriving their general, lord Maxwell, of his commission, and conferring the command on Oliver Sinclair, a private gentleman, who was his favourite. The army were so much disgusted with this alteration, that they were ready to disband, when a small body of English horse appeared, not exceeding five hundred. A panic seized the Scots, who immediately took to flight, supposing themselves to be attacked by the whole body of the English army. The English horse, seeing them flee with such precipitation, closely pursued them, and slew great numbers, taking prisoners seven lords, two hundred gentlemen, and eight hundred soldiers, with twenty-four pieces of ordnance. This disaster so much affected king James, that it threw him into a fit of illness, of which he soon after died, on the 14th of December, 1542.

His daughter and successor, Mary, was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, her misconduct, and her misfortunes, are alike famous in history. It is sufficient here to say, that, during her minority, and while she was wife to Francis II. of France, the reformation advanced in Scotland; that, being called to the throne of her ancestors while a widow, she married her own cousin-german, the lord Darnley, whose untimely death has given rise to so much controversy. The consequence of her husband's death, and of her marriage with Bothwell, who was considered as his murderer, was an insurrection of her subjects, from whom she fled into England, where she was ungenerously detained a prisoner for eighteen years, and afterwards, on motives of state policy, beheaded by queen Elizabeth in 1587, in the forty-sixth year of her age.

Mary's son, James VI. of Scotland, succeeded, in right of his blood from Henry VII. upon the death of queen Elizabeth, to the English crown, after showing considerable abilities in the government of Scotland. This union of the two crowns, in fact, destroyed the independency, as it impoverished the people, of Scotland: for, the seat of government being removed to England, their trade was checked, their agriculture neglected, and their gentry obliged to seek for situations in other countries. James, after a splendid but troublesome reign over his three kingdoms, left them, in 1625, to his son, the unfortunate Charles I. That prince, by his despotic principles and conduct, induced both his Scottish and English subjects to take up arms against him; and, indeed, it was in Scotland that the sword was first drawn a-

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gainst Charles. But when the royal party was totally defeated in England, the king put himself into the power of the Scottish army: they at first treated him with respect, but afterwards delivered him up to the English parliament, on condition of their paying 400,000 pounds to the Scots, which was said to be due to them for arrears. However, the Scots afterwards made several bloody but unsuccessful attempts to restore his son, Charles II. That prince was finally defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worcester, 1651, after which, to the time of his restoration, the commonwealth of England and the protector gave law to Scotland.

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

ENGLAND.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

MILES.		DEGREES.	
Length	380	between	50 and 56 North latitude.
Breadth	300		2 East and 6-20 West longitude.

Great Britain contains 79,712 square miles, with 119 inhabitants to each.

CLIMATE AND BOUNDARIES. } THE longest day in the northern parts contains 17 hours and 30 minutes; and the shortest in the southern near eight hours. It is bounded on the North by that part of the island called Scotland; on the East by the German Ocean; on the West by St. George's Channel; and on the South by the English Channel, which parts it from France, and contains 49,450 square miles.

The situation, by the sea washing it on three sides, renders England liable to a great uncertainty of weather, so that the inhabitants on part of the sea-coasts are often visited by agues and fevers. On the other hand, it prevents the extremes of heat and cold, to which other places, lying in the same degree of latitude, are subject; and it is, on that account, friendly to the longevity of the inhabitants in general, especially those who live on a dry soil. To this situation likewise we are to ascribe that perpetual verdure for which England is remarkable, occasioned by refreshing showers and the warm vapours of the sea.

NAME AND DIVISIONS, } Antiquaries are divided with regard to ANCIENT AND MODERN. } the etymology of the word *England*; some derive it from a Celtic word, signifying a level country; but I prefer the common etymology, of its being derived from Anglen, a province now subject to his Danish majesty, which furnished a great part of the original Saxon adventurers into this island. In the time of the Romans,

the whole island went by the name of *Britannia*. The word *Brit*, according to Mr. Camden, signified painted or stained; the ancient inhabitants being famous for painting their bodies: other antiquaries, however, do not agree in this etymology. The western tract of England, which is almost separated from the rest by the rivers Severn and Dee, is called Wales, or the *land of strangers*, because inhabited by the Belgic Gauls, who were driven thither by the Romans, and were strangers to the old natives.

When the Romans provinciated England, they divided it into,
1. *Britannia Prima*, which contained the southern parts of the kingdom.

2. *Britannia Secunda*, containing the western parts, comprehending Wales. And

3. *Maxima Cæsariensis*, which reached from the Trent as far northward as the wall of Severus, between Newcastle and Carlisle, and sometimes as far as that of Adrian in Scotland, between the Forth and Clyde.

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

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

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

KINGDOMS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
1. Kent, founded by Hengist in 475, and ended in 823	Kent	Canterbury
2. South Saxons, founded by Ella in 491, and ended in 600	Suffex Surry	Chichester Southwark
3. East Angles, founded by Uffa in 575, and ended in 793	Norfolk Suffolk Cambridge, with The Isle of Ely Cornwall Devon	Norwich Bury St. Edmonds Cambridge Ely Launceston Exeter
4. West Saxons, founded by Cerdic in 512, and ended in 1060	Dorset Somerset Wilts Hants Berks Lancaster York	Dorchester Bath Salisbury Winchester Abingdon Lancaster York
5. Northumberland, founded by Ida in 574, and ended in 792	Durham Cumberland Westmorland Northumberland and Scotland, to the Frith of Edinburgh	Durham Carlisle Appleby Newcastle

KINGDOMS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.	
6. East Saxons, founded by Erche-win in 527, and ended in 746	Essex - - - - -	London	
	Middlesex, and part of Hertford - - - - -		
	Hertford - - - - -		
	The other part of Hertford	Hertford	
	Gloucester - - - - -	Gloucester	
	Hereford - - - - -	Hereford	
	Worcester - - - - -	Worcester	
	Warwick - - - - -	Warwick	
	Leicester - - - - -	Leicester	
	Rutland - - - - -	Oakham	
	Northampton - - - - -	Northampton	
	7. Mercia, founded by Cridda in 582, and ended in 874	Lincoln - - - - -	Lincoln
		Huntingdon - - - - -	Huntingdon
		Bedford - - - - -	Bedford
Buckingham - - - - -		Aylebury	
Oxford - - - - -		Oxford	
Stafford - - - - -		Stafford	
Derby - - - - -		Derby	
Salop - - - - -		Shrewsbury	
Nottingham - - - - -		Nottingham	
Chester - - - - -		Chester	

It is the more necessary to preserve these divisions, as they account for different local customs, and many very essential modes of inheritance, which to this day prevail in England, and which took their rise from different institutions under the Saxons. Since the Norman invasion, England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, excepting Middlesex and Cheshire, are comprehended in six circuits, or annual progresses of the judges, for administering justice to the subjects who are at a distance from the capital. The circuits are :

CIRCUITS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
I. Home circuit	Essex - - - - -	Chelmsford, Colchester, Harwich, Malden, Saffron-Walden, Bocking, Braintree, and Stratford.
	Hertford - - - - -	
	Kent - - - - -	
	Surry - - - - -	
	Suffex - - - - -	Chichester, Lewes, Rye, East Grinstead, Hastings, Horsham, Midhurst, Shoreham, Arundel, Winchelsea, Battel, Brightelmstone, and Petworth.

CIRCUITS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.	
	Bucks - - - -	Aylesbury, Buckingham, High Wickham, Great Marlow, Stoney-Stratford, and Newport Pagnel.	
	Bedford - - - -	Bedford, Ampthill, Wooburn, Dunstable, Luton, and Biggleswade.	
	Huntingdon - -	Huntingdon, St. Ives, Kimbolton, Godmanchester, St. Neot's, Ramsey, and Yaxley.	
	Cambridge - - -	Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, Royston, and Wisbich.	
II. Norfolk circuit - - -	Suffolk - - - -	Bury, Ipswich, Sudbury, Leostoff, part of Newmarket, Aldborough, Bungay, Southwold, Brandon, Halesworth, Mildenhall, Beccles, Framlingham, Stowmarket, Woodbridge, Lavenham, Hadley, Long Melford, Stratford, and Easterbergholt.	
	Norfolk - - - -	Norwich, Thetford, Lynn, Yarmouth.	
	Oxon - - - - -	Oxford, Banbury, Chippin-Norton, Henley, Burford, Whitney, Dorchester, Woodstock, and Thame.	
	Berks - - - - -	Abingdon, Windfor, Reading, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, Maidenhead, Farringdon, Wantage, and Oakingham.	
	Gloucester - - -	Gloucester, Tewksbury, Cirencester, part of Bristol, Camden, Stow, Berkley, Dursley, Lechdale, Tetbury, Sudbury, Wotton, and Marshfield.	
	III. Oxford circuit - - -	Worcester - - - -	Worcester, Evesham, Droitwich, Bewdley, Stourbridge, Kidderminster, and Pershore.
		Monmouth - - - -	Monmouth, Chepstow, Abergavenny, Caerleon, and Newport.
	Hereford - - - -	Hereford, Leominster, Weobley, Ledbury, Kynetton, and Ross.	
	Salop - - - - -	Shrewsbury, Ludlow, Bridgnorth, Wenlock, Bishop's Castle, Whitchurch, Oswestry, Wem, and Newport.	
	Stafford - - - -	Stafford, Litchfield, Newcastle under Line, Wolverhampton, Rugeley, Burton, Uttoxeter, and Stone.	
	Warwick - - - -	Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, Stratford upon Avon, Tamworth, Aulcester, Nuneaton, and Atherton.	
IV. Midland circuit - - -	Leicester - - - -	Leicester, Melton-Mowbray, Ashby-de-la-Zouch, Bosworth, and Harborough.	

VI
North
circuit
* In

CIRCUITS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.	
Midland circuit, continued.	Derby	Derby, Chesterfield, Wirksworth, Ashbourne, Bakewell, Balfover, and Buxton.	
	Nottingham	Nottingham, Southwell, Newark, East and West Retford, Mansfield, Tuxford, Worktop, and Blithe.	
	Lincoln	Lincoln, Stamford, Boston, Grant-ham, Croyland, Spalding, New-Sleaford, Great Grimsby, Gainf-borough, Louth, and Horncastle.	
	Rutland	Oakham, and Uppingham.	
	Northampton	Northampton, Peterborough, Da-ventry, Higham-Ferrers, Brack-ley, Oundle, Wellingborough, Thrapston, Towcester, Rocking-ham, Kettering, and Rothwell.	
	Hants	Winchester, Southampton, Portf-mouth, Andover, Basingstoke, Christchurch, Petersfield, Lyming-ton, Ringwood, Rumsey, Alresford and Newport, Yarmouth and Cowes, in the Isle of Wight.	
	Wilts	Salisbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Malmesbury, Wilton, Chippenham, Calne, Cricklade, Trowbridge, Brad-ford, and Warminster.	
	Dorset	Dorchester, Lyme, Sherborne, Shaftes-bury, Poole, Blandford, Bridport, Weymouth, Melcombe, Wareham, and Winburn.	
	V. Western circuit.	Somerset	Bath, Wells, Bristol in part, Taunton, Bridgewater, Ilchester, Minehead, Milbourn-Port, Glastonbury, Wel-lington, Dulverton, Dunster, Watch-et, Yeovil, Somerton, Axbridge, Chard, Bruton, Shepton - Mallet, Croscomb, and Froome.
		Devon	Exeter, Plymouth, Barnstable, Bid-deford, Tiverton, Honiton, Dart-mouth, Tavistock, Topsham, Oke-hampton, Ashburton, Crediton, Moulton, Torrington, Totness, Ax-minster, Plympton, and Ilfracomb.
Cornwall		Launceston, Falmouth, Truro, Salt-ash, Bodmyn, St. Ives, Padstow, Tregony, Fowey, Penryn, Kelling-ton, Leskeard, Lestwithiel, Helfton, Penzance, and Redruth.	
VI. Northern circuit*.	York	York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Rich-mond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaster, Whit-	

* In the Lent or Spring assizes, the Northern circuits extend only to York and

CIRCUITS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Northern circuit, continued.	Durham	Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard-Castle, Darlington, Hartlepool, and Awkland.
	Northumberland	Newcastle, Tinmouth, North Shields, Morpeth, Alnwick, and Hexham.
	Lancaster . . .	Lancaster, Manchester, Preston, Liverpool, Wigan, Rochdale, Warrington, Bury, Ormskirk, Hawkhead, and Newton.
	Westmorland . .	Appleby, Kendal, Lonsdale, Kirby-Stephen, Orton, Ambleside, Burton, and Milthorpe.
	Cumberland . .	Carlisle, Penrith, Cockermouth, Whitehaven, Ravenglas, Egremont, Kewick, Workington, and Jerby.

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

Counties, exclusive of the circuits.	Middlesex	London, first meridian, north lat. 51. 31. Westminster, Uxbridge, Brentford, Chelsea, Highgate, Hampstead, Kensington, Hackney, and Hampton-Court.
	Chester	Chester, Nantwich, Macclesfield, Malpas, Norwich, Middlewich, Sandbach, Congleton, Knutsford, Frodsham, and Haulton.

CIRCUITS OF WALES.

North East circuit . .	Flint	Flint, St. Asaph, and Holywell.
	Denbigh	Denbigh, Wrexham, and Ruthen.
	Montgomery	Montgomery, Llanvylin, and Welch-Pool.
North West circuit . .	Anglesea	Beaumaris, Holyhead, and Newburgh.
	Caernarvon	Bangor, Conway, Caernarvon, and Pullhilly.
	Merioneth	Dolgelly, Bala, and Haleigh.
South-East circuit . .	Radnor	Radnor, Prestean, and Knighton.
	Brecon	Brecknock, Built, and Hay.
	Glamorgan	Llandaff, Cardiff, Cowbridge, Neath, and Swansea.

Lancaster; the assizes at Durham, Newcastle, Appleby, and Carlisle, being held only in the autumn, and distinguished by the appellation of the *long circuit*.

CIRCUITS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.	
South-West circuit - -	Pembroke - - -	St. David's, Haverfordwest, Pembroke, Tenby, Fiscard, and Milfordhaven.	
	Cardigan - - -		Cardigan, Aberistwith, and Llanbadarn-vawer.
	Caermarthen - -		Caermarthen, Kidwelly, Llanidlovery, Landilobawr, Langharn, and Lanelthy.

IN ENGLAND.

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

W A L E S.

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

S C O T L A N D.

33 Shires - - - - -	30 knights.
37 Cities and Boroughs - - - - -	15 burgessees.

Total - 558

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

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

urbs, proves it to be a city. Some cities are also counties, as before mentioned.

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER.] The soil of England and Wales differs in each county, not so much from the nature of the ground, though that must be admitted to occasion a very considerable alteration, as from the progress which the inhabitants of each county have made in the cultivation of lands and gardens, the draining of marshes, and many other local improvements, which are here carried to a much greater degree of perfection than they are perhaps in any other part of the world; if we except China. To enter upon particular specimens and proofs of these improvements, would require a large volume. All that can be said, therefore, is, in general, that if no unkindly season happen, England produces corn not only sufficient to maintain her own inhabitants, but to bring large sums of ready money for her exports.

The soil of England seems to be particularly adapted for rearing timber; and the plantations of trees round the houses of noblemen and gentlemen, and even of peasants, are delightful and astonishing at the same time. Some have observed a decay of that oak timber which anciently formed the great fleets that England put to sea; but as no public complaints of this kind have been heard, it may be supposed that great stores are still in reserve; unless it may be thought that our shipyards have lately been partly supplied from America or the Baltic.

As to air, little can be added to what has been already said concerning the climate*. In many places it is certainly loaded with vapours wafted from the Atlantic ocean by westerly winds; but they are ventilated by winds and storms, so that in this respect England is, to foreigners, and people of delicate constitutions, more disagreeable than unwholesome. It cannot, however, be denied that in England the weather is so excessively capricious and unfavourable to certain constitutions, that many of the inhabitants are induced to fly to foreign countries, in hopes of obtaining a renovation of their health.

After what we have observed on the English air, the reader may form some idea of its seasons, which are so uncertain, that they admit of no description. Spring, summer, autumn, and winter, succeed each other; but in what month their different appearances take place, is very undetermined. The spring begins sometimes in February, and sometimes in April. In May the face of the country is often covered with hoarfrost instead of blossoms. The beginning of June is sometimes as cold as the middle of December; yet at other times the thermometer rises in that month as high as it does in Italy. Even August has its vicissitudes of heat and cold; and, upon an average, September, and next to it October, are the two most agreeable months in the year. The natives

* The climate of England has more advantages than are generally allowed it, if we admit the opinion of king Charles the Second upon this subject, which is corroborated by that of sir William Temple: and it may be observed, that they were both travellers. "I must needs add one thing," says sir William, in his *Miscellanea*, part ii. p. 114, edit. 8vo. 1690, "in favour of our climate, which I heard the king say, and I thought new and right, and truly like a king of England, that loved and esteemed his own country. It was in reply to some company that were reviling our climate, and extolling those of Italy and Spain, or at least of France. He said, "He thought that was the best climate where he could be abroad in the air with pleasure, or at least without trouble or inconvenience, the most days in the year, and the most hours in the day; and this he thought he could be in England, more than in any country he knew in Europe." "And I believe," adds sir William, "it is true, not only of the hot and the cold, but even among our neighbours in France and the Low Countries themselves, where the heats or the colds, and changes of seasons, are less treatable (or moderate) than they are with us."

sometimes experience all the four seasons within the compass of one day, cold, temperate, hot, and mild weather. This inconstancy, however, is not attended with the effects that might be naturally apprehended. A fortnight, or at most three weeks, generally make up the difference with regard to the maturity of the fruits of the earth; and it is hardly ever observed that the inhabitants suffer by a hot summer. Even the greatest irregularity, and the most unfavourable appearance of the seasons, are not, as in other countries, attended with famine, and very seldom with scarcity. Perhaps this, in a great measure, may be owing to the vast improvements of agriculture; for when scarcity has been complained of, it generally, if not always, proceeded from the excessive exportations of grain, on account of the drawback and the profit of the returns.

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

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, } The industry of the English is such, as
 AND MOUNTAINS. } to supply the absence of those favours which nature has so lavishly bestowed upon some foreign climates, and in many respects even to exceed them. No nation in the world can equal the cultivated parts of England in beautiful scenes. The variety of high-lands and low-lands, the former gently swelling, and both of them forming the most luxuriant prospects, the corn and meadow grounds, the intermixtures of inclosures and plantation, the noble seats, comfortable houses, cheerful villages, and well-stocked farms, often rising in the neighbourhood of populous towns and cities, decorated with the most vivid colours of nature, are objects of which an adequate idea cannot be conveyed by description. The most barren spots are not without their verdure; but nothing can give us a higher idea of the English industry, than observing that some of the pleasantest counties in the kingdom are naturally the most barren, but rendered fruitful by labour. Upon the whole, it may be safely affirmed, that no country in Europe equals England in the beauty of its prospects, or the opulence of its inhabitants.

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

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers in England add greatly to its beau-

ty as well as its opulence. The Thames rises on the confines of Gloucestershire, a little S. W. of Cirencester; and, after receiving the many tributary streams of other rivers, it passes to Oxford, then by Abingdon, Wallingford, Reading, Marlow, and Windsor. From thence to Kingston, where formerly it met the tide, which, since the building of Westminster-bridge, is said to flow no higher than Richmond; from whence it flows to London, and after dividing the counties of Kent and Essex, it widens in its progress, till it falls into the sea at the Nore, from whence it is navigable for large ships to London-bridge. It was formerly a reproach to England among foreigners, that so capital a river should have so few bridges; those of London, and Kingston being the only two it had, from the Nore to the last-mentioned place, for many ages. This inconveniency was in some measure owing to the dearthness of materials for building stone bridges, but perhaps more to the fondness which the English, in former days, had for water-carriage, and the encouragement of navigation. The great increase of riches, commerce, and inland trade, is now multiplying bridges; and the world cannot parallel, for commodiousness, architecture, and workmanship, those lately erected at Westminster and Black Friars. Battersea, Putney, Kew, Richmond, Walton, and Hampton court, have now bridges likewise over the Thames, and others are projecting by public-spirited proprietors of the grounds on both sides.

The river Medway, which rises near Tunbridge, falls into the Thames at Sheerness, and is navigable for the largest ships as far as Chatham. The Severn, reckoned the second river for importance in England, and the first for rapidity, rises at Plinlimmon-hill in North Wales; becomes navigable at Welsh-pool; runs east to Shrewsbury; then turning south, visits Bridgnorth, Worcester, and Tewkesbury; where it receives the Upper Avon; after having passed Gloucester, it takes a south-west direction; is, near its mouth, increased by the Wye and Ustre, and discharges itself into the Bristol Channel, near King-road, where lie the great ships which cannot get up to Bristol. The Trent rises in the Moorlands of Staffordshire, and running south-east by Newcastle-under-Line, divides that county into two parts; then turning north-east on the confines of Derbyshire, visits Nottingham, running the whole length of that county to Lincolnshire, and being joined by the Ouse and several other rivers towards the mouth, obtains the name of the Humber, falling into the sea south-east of Hull.

The other principal rivers in England are the Ouse (a Gaëlic word signifying *water* in general) which falls into the Humber, after receiving the waters of many other rivers. Another Ouse rises in Bucks, and falls into the sea near Lynn in Norfolk. The Tyne runs from west to east through Northumberland, and falls into the German sea at Tinnmouth, below Newcastle. The Tees runs from west to east, dividing Durham from Yorkshire, and falls into the German sea below Stockton. The Tweed runs from west to east, on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the German sea at Berwick. The Eden runs from south to north through Westmorland and Cumberland, and passing by Carlisle, falls into Solway Frith below that city. The Lower Avon runs west through Wiltshire to Bath, and then dividing Somersetshire from Gloucestershire, runs to Bristol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Derwent runs from east to west through Cumberland, and passing by Cockermouth, falls into the Irish sea a little below. The Ribble runs from east to west through Lancashire, and passing by Preston, discharges itself into the Irish sea. The Mersey runs

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from the south-east to the north-west through Cheshire, and then dividing Cheshire from Lancashire, passes by Liverpool, and falls into the Irish sea a little below that town; and the Dee rises in Wales, and divides Flintshire from Cheshire, falling into the Irish channel below Chester.

The lakes of England are few; though it is plain from history and antiquity, and indeed, in some places, from the face of the country, that meres and fens have been frequent in England, till drained and converted into arable land. The chief lakes remaining are Soham mere, Wittlesea mere, and Ramsey mere, in the isle of Ely, in Cambridgeshire. All these meres in a rainy season are overflowed, and form a lake of 40 or 50 miles in circumference. Winander mere lies in Westmorland, and some small lakes in Lancashire go by the name of Derwent waters.

FORESTS.] The first Norman kings of England, partly for political purposes, that they might the more effectually enslave their new subjects, and partly from the wantonness of power, converted immense tracts of ground into forests for hunting; and these were governed by laws peculiar to themselves, so that it was necessary, about the time of passing the Magna Charta, to form a code of the forest-laws; and Justices in Eyre, so called from their sitting in the open air, were appointed to see them observed. By degrees those vast tracts were disforested; and the chief forests, properly so called, remaining out of no fewer than 60, are those of Windsor, New Forest, the Forest of Dean, and Sherwood Forest. These forests produced formerly great quantities of excellent oak, elm, ash, and beech, besides walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds of wood. In ancient times England contained large woods, if not forests, of chestnut trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber for the purposes of building, as appears from many great houses still standing, in which the chestnut beams and roofs remain still fresh and undecayed, though some of them are above 600 years old.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Among the mineral: the tin mines of Cornwall deservedly take the lead. They were known to the Greeks and Phœnicians, the latter especially, some ages before the Christian æra; and since the English have found a method of manufacturing their tin into plates and white iron, they are of immense benefit to the nation. An ore called mundic is found in the beds of tin, which was very little regarded, till, above 70 years ago, sir Gilbert Clark discovered the art of manufacturing it; and it is said now to bring in 150,000 a year, and to equal in goodness the best Spanish copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis calaminaris for making brass. Those tin works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the stannary laws; and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. The number of Cornish miners are said to amount to 100,000. Some gold has likewise been discovered in Cornwall, and the English lead is impregnated with silver. The English coined silver is particularly known by roses, and that of Wales by the prince's cap of feathers. Devonshire, and other counties of England, produce marble; but the best kind, which resembles Egyptian granite, is excessively hard to work. Quarries of freestone are found in many places. Northumberland and Cheshire yield alum and salt pits. The English fuller's earth is of such consequence to the clothing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under severe penalties. Pit and sea-coal is found in many counties of England; but the city of London, to encourage the nursery of seamen, is chiefly supplied from the pits of Northumberland;

and the bishopric of Durham. The cargoes are shipped at Newcastle and Sunderland, and the exportation of coals to other countries is very considerable. The mines of Northumberland alone send every year upwards of 600,000 chaldron of coals to London; and 1500 vessels are employed in carrying them to that harbour along the eastern coast of England.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. This is so copious a subject, and such improvements have been made in gardening and agriculture, ever since the best printed accounts we have seen, that much must be left to the reader's own observation and experience. The corn trade of England has already been noticed; but nothing can be said with any certainty concerning the quantities of wheat, barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, oats, and other grain, growing in the kingdom. Excellent institutions for the improvement of agriculture are now common in England; and their members are so public-spirited as to print periodical accounts of their discoveries and experiments, which serve to show that agriculture and gardening may be carried to a much higher state of perfection than they are in at present. The publisher of the Bath society upon the subject of agriculture are well known; and such has been the attention of the nation to this important object, that his present majesty has been pleased, August 31, 1793, by letters patent under the great seal, to constitute a board for the encouragement of agriculture, and internal improvement. The proper cultivation of the soil is an object so peculiarly interesting to the community at large, that those who most assiduously attend to it, are perhaps to be accounted the most meritorious citizens of their country.

Honey and saffron are natives of England. It is almost needless to mention to the most uninformed reader, in what plenty the most excellent fruits, apples, pears, plums, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooseberries, raspberries, and other hortulan productions, grow here; and what quantities of cider, perry, metheglin, and the like liquors, are made in some counties. The cider of Devon and Herefordshire, when kept, and made of proper apples, and in a particular manner, is often preferred, by judicious palates, to French white wine. It is not enough to mention those improvements, did we not observe that the natives of England have made the different fruits of the world their own, sometimes by simple culture, but often by hot-beds, and other means of forcing nature. The English pine apples are delicious, and now plentiful. The same may be said of other natives of the East and West Indies, Persia, and Turkey. The English grapes are pleasing to the taste; but their flavour is not exalted enough for making of wine; and indeed wet weather injures the flavour of all the other fine fruits raised here. Our kitchen gardens abound with all sorts of greens, roots, and fallads, in perfection; such as artichokes, asparagus, cauliflowers, cabbages, coleworts, broccolis, peas, beans, kidney beans, spinach, beets, lettuce, celery, endive, turnips, carrots, potatoes, mushrooms, leeks, onions, and shallots.

Woad for dying is cultivated in Bucks and Bedfordshire, as hemp and flax are in other counties. In nothing, however, have the English been more successful than in the cultivation of clover, cinquefoil, trefoil, saintfoin, lucern, and other meliorating grasses for the soil. It belongs to a botanist to recount the various kinds of useful and salutary herbs, shrubs, and roots, that grow in different parts of England. The soil of Kent, Essex, Surry, and Hampshire, is most favourable to the difficult and tender culture of hops, which are now become a very considerable article of trade.

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With regard to ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, I shall begin with the quadrupeds. The English oxen are large and fat; but some prefer for the table the smaller breed of the Scotch and Welch cattle, after grazing in English pastures. The English horses are the best in the world, whether we regard their spirit, strength, swiftness, or docility. Incredible have been the pains taken, by all ranks, for improving the breed of this favourite and noble animal; and the success has been answerable; for they now unite all the qualities and beauties of Indian, Persian, Arabian, Spanish, and other foreign horses. The irresistible spirit and weight of the English cavalry render them superior to all others in war; and an English hunter will perform incredible things in a fox or stag-chase. Those which draw carriages in the streets of London are often particularly beautiful. The exportation of horses has of late become a considerable article of commerce. The breed of asses and mules begins likewise to be improved and encouraged in England.

The English sheep are of two kinds; those that are valuable for their fleece, and those that are proper for the table. The former are very large, and their fleeces constitute the original staple commodity of England. In some counties the inhabitants are as curious in their breed of rams, as in those of their horses and dogs; and in Lincolnshire particularly, it is no uncommon thing for one of these animals to sell for 50*l*. It must, however, be owned, that those large fat sheep are very rank eating. It is thought that in England twelve millions of fleeces are shorn annually, which, at a medium of 2*s*. a fleece; makes 1,200,000*l*. The other kind of sheep which are fed upon the downs, such as those of Banstead, Bagshot-heath, and Devonshire, where they have what the farmers call the short bite, is little if at all inferior in flavour and sweetness to venison.

The English mastiffs and bull-dogs are said to be the strongest and fiercest of the canine species in the world; but either from the change of soil, or feeding, they degenerate in foreign climates. James I. of England, by way of experiment, turned out two English bull dogs upon one of the fiercest lions in the Tower, and they soon conquered him. The mastiff, however, has all the courage of the bull-dog, without its ferocity, and is particularly distinguished for his fidelity and docility. All the different species of dogs that abound in other countries, for the field as well as domestic uses, are to be found in England.

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

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

Few countries are better supplied than England with river and sea-fish. Her rivers and ponds contain plenty of salmon, trout, eels, pike,

perch, smelts, carp, tench, barbel, gudgeons, roach, dace, grey mullet, bream, plaice, flounders, and craw-fish, besides a delicate lake-fish, called char, which is found in some fresh-water lakes of Wales and Cumberland, and, as some say, no where else. The sea-fish are cod, mackerel, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchard, skate, soles. The john-dory, found towards the western coast, is reckoned a great delicacy, as is the red mullet. Several other fish are found on the same coast. As to shell-fish, they are chiefly oysters, the propagation of which, upon their proper banks, requires a peculiar culture. Lobsters, crabs, shrimps, and scallops, one of the most delicious of shell-fishes, cockles, wilks, periwinkles, and muscles, with many other small shell-fish, abound in the English sea. The whales chiefly visit the northern coast; but great numbers of porpoises and seals appear in the channel.

With regard to reptiles, such as adders, vipers, snakes, and worms; and insects, such as ants, gnats, wasps, and flies, England is pretty much upon a par with the rest of Europe; and the difference, if any, becomes more proper for natural history than geography.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } The exemption of the English constitution from the despotic powers exercised in foreign nations, not excepting republics, is one great reason why it is very difficult to ascertain the number of inhabitants in England; and yet it is certain that this might occasionally be done, by parliament, without any violation of public liberty, and probably soon will take place. With regard to political calculations, they must be very fallible, when applied to England. The prodigious influx of foreigners who settle in the nation, the emigrations of inhabitants to America and the islands, their return from thence, and the great number of hands employed in shipping, are all of them matters that render any calculation extremely precarious. Upon the whole, it seems probable that England is more populous than the estimators of her inhabitants are willing to allow. The war with France and Spain, before the American, annually employed about 200,000 Englishmen, exclusive of Scotch and Irish, by sea and land; and its progress carried off, by various means, very near that number. The decay of population was indeed sensibly felt, but not so much as it was during the wars in queen Anne's reign, though not half of the numbers were then employed in the sea and land service.

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

After what has been premised, it would be presumptuous to pretend to ascertain the number of inhabitants in England and Wales: but, in my own private opinion, there cannot be fewer than 7,000,000.

Englishmen, in their persons, are generally well-sized, regularly fea-

tured, commonly fair rather than otherwise, and florid in their complexions. It is, however, to be presumed that the vast number of foreigners that are intermingled and intermarried with the natives, have given a cast to their persons and complexions, different from those of their ancestors 150 years ago. The women, in their shape, features, and complexion, appear so graceful and lovely, that England may be termed the native country of female beauty. But beside the external graces so peculiar to the women in England, they are still more to be valued for their prudent behaviour, thorough cleanliness, and a tender affection for their husbands and children, and all the engaging duties of domestic life.

Of all the people in the world, the English keep themselves the most cleanly. Their nerves are so delicate, that people of both sexes are sometimes forcibly, nay mortally, affected by imagination; inasmuch that, before the practice of inoculation for the small-pox took place, it was thought improper to mention that loathsome disease by its true name in any polite company. This over-sensibility has been considered as one of the sources of those singularities which so strongly characterise the English nation. They sometimes magnify the slightest appearances into calamities, and bring the most distant dangers immediately home to themselves; and yet, when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater resolution or constancy of mind. They are fond of clubs and convivial associations: and when these are kept within the bounds of temperance and moderation, they prove the best cure for those mental evils, which are so peculiar to the English, that foreigners have pronounced them to be national.

The same observations hold with regard to the higher orders of life, which must be acknowledged to have undergone a remarkable change since the accession of the House of Hanover, especially of late years. The English nobility and gentry of great fortunes now assimilate their manners to those of foreigners, with whom they cultivate a more frequent intercourse than their forefathers did. They do not now travel only as pupils, to bring home the vices of the countries they visit, under the tuition perhaps of a despicable pedant, or family dependent; but they travel for the purposes of society, and at the more advanced ages of life, while their judgments are mature, and their passions regulated. This is the changed society in England, which foreigners now visit as commonly as Englishmen visited them, and the effects of the intercourse become daily more visible, especially as it is not now, as formerly, confined to one sex.

Such of the English noblemen and gentlemen as do not strike into those high walks of life, affect what we call a snug rather than a splendid way of living. They study and understand, better than any people in the world, conveniency in their houses, gardens, equipages, and estates; and they spare no cost to purchase it. It has however been observed, that this turn renders them less communicative than they ought to be: but on the other hand, the few connections they form, are sincere, cheerful, and indissoluble. The like habits descend pretty far into the lower ranks, and are often discernible among tradesmen. This love of snugness and conveniency may be called the ruling passion of the English people, and is the ultimate end of all their application, labours, and fatigues. A good economist, with a brisk run of trade, is generally, when turned of 50, in a condition to retire from business; that is, either to purchase an estate, or settle his money in the funds. He then commonly resides in a comfortable house in the country, often his native county, and expects to be treated on the footing

of a gentleman; but his style of living is always judiciously suited to his circumstances.

The humanity of the English is discovered is nothing more than in the large subscriptions for public charities, raised by all degrees of both sexes. An Englishman feels all the pains which a fellow-creature suffers; and poor and miserable objects are relieved in England with the greatest liberality. The very persons who contribute to those collections are at the same time assessed in proportion to their property for their parochial poor, who have a legal demand for their maintenance; and upwards of three millions sterling is said to be collected yearly in this country for charitable purposes. The institutions, however, of extra-parochial infirmaries, hospitals, and the like, are in some cases reprehensible. The vast sums bestowed in building them, the contracts made by their governors, and even the election of physicians, who thereby, qualified or unqualified, acquire credit, which is the same as profit, very often beget heats and cabals, which are very different from the purposes of disinterested charity, owing to the violent attachments and prepossessions of friends, and too often even to party considerations.

The English listen to the voice of misfortunes in trade, whether real or pretended, deserved or accidental, and generously contribute to the relief of the parties, sometimes even by placing them in a more creditable condition than ever. The lowest-bred of the English are capable of these and the like generous actions: but they often make an ostentatious display of their own merits, which diminishes their value. There is, among the generality of the English of all ranks, an unpardonable preference given to wealth, above most other considerations. Riches, both in public and private, are often thought to compensate for the absence of almost every good quality. This offensive failing arises partly from the people being so much addicted to trade and commerce, the great object of which is gain; and partly from the democratical part of their constitution, which makes the possession of property a qualification for the legislature, and for almost every other species of magistracy, government, honours, and distinctions.

An Englishman, of education and reading, is the most accomplished gentleman in the world: he is, however, shy and reserved in his communications. This unamiable coldness is so far from being affected, that it is a part of their natural constitution. Living learning and genius often meet not with their suitable regard even from the first-rate Englishmen; and it is not unusual for them to throw aside the best productions of literature, if they are not acquainted with the author. While the state distinction of Whig and Tory subsisted, the heads of each party affected to patronise men of literary abilities; but the pecuniary encouragements given them were but very moderate; and the very few who met with preferments in the state, might have earned them by a competent knowledge of business, and that pliability which the dependents in office generally possess. We scarcely have an instance, even in the munificent reign of queen Anne, or of her predecessors, who owed so much to the press, of a man of genius, as such, being made easy in his circumstances. Mr. Addison had about 300*l.* a year of the public money to assist him in his travels; and Mr. Pope, though a Roman catholic, was offered, but did not accept of, the like pension from Mr. Craggs, the whig secretary of state; and it was remarked, that his tory friend and companion, the earl of Oxford, when

sole minister, did nothing for him, but bewail his misfortune in being a papist. Indeed, a few men of distinguished literary abilities, as well as some without, have of late received pensions from the crown; but from the conduct of some of them, it should seem that state and party services have been expected in return.

The unevenness of the English in their conversation is very remarkable: sometimes it is delicate, sprightly, and replete with true wit; sometimes it is solid, ingenious and argumentative; sometimes it is cold and phlegmatic, and borders upon disgust; and all in the same person. In many of their convivial meetings they are very noisy, and their wit is often offensive, while the loudest are the most applauded. This is particularly apt to be the case in large companies; but in smaller and more select parties, all the pleasures of rational conversation and agreeable society are enjoyed in England in a very high degree. Courage is a quality that seems to be congenial to the English nation. Boys, before they can speak, discover that they know the proper guards in boxing with their fists; a quality that perhaps is peculiar to the English, and is seconded by a strength of arm that few other people can exert. This gives the English soldier an infinite superiority in all battles that are to be decided by the bayonet screwed upon the musket. The English courage has likewise the property, under able commanders, of being equally passive as active. Their soldiers will keep up their fire in the mouth of danger; but when they deliver it, it has a most dreadful effect upon their enemies; and in naval engagements they are unequalled. The English are not remarkable for invention, though they are for their improvements upon the inventions of others; and in the mechanical arts they excel all nations in the world. The intense application which an Englishman gives to a favourite study is incredible, and, as it were, abstracts all his other ideas. This creates the numerous instances of mental absence that are to be found in the nation.

All that has been said concerning the English, is to be understood of them in general, as they are at present; for it is not to be dissembled, that every day produces strong indications of great alterations in their manners. The great fortunes made during the late and the preceding wars, the immense acquisitions of territory by the peace of 1763, and, above all, the amazing increase of territorial as well as commercial property in the East Indies, introduced a species of people among the English, who have become rich without industry, and, by diminishing the value of gold and silver, have created a new system of finances in the nation: Time alone can show the event; hitherto the consequence seems to have been unfavourable, as it has introduced among the commercial ranks a spirit of luxury and gaming that is attended with the most fatal effects, and an emulation among merchants and traders of all kinds, to equal or surpass the nobility and the courtiers. The plain frugal manners of men of business, which prevailed so lately as the accession of the present family to the crown, are now disregarded for tasteless extravagance of dress and equipage, and the most expensive amusements and diversions, not only in the capital, but all over the trading towns of the kingdom.

Even the customs of the English have, since the beginning of this century, undergone an almost total alteration. Their ancient hospitality subsists but in few places in the country, or is revived only upon electioneering occasions. Many of their favourite diversions are now disused. Those remaining are operas, dramatic exhibitions, ridottos, and sometimes masquerades in or near London; but concerts of mu-

fic, and card and dancing assemblies, are common all over the kingdom. I have already mentioned stag and fox-hunting, and horse-races, of which many of the English are fond, even to infatuation. Somewhat, however, may be offered by way of apology for those diversions: the intense application which the English give to business, their sedentary lives, and luxurious diet, require exercise; and some think that their excellent breed of horses is increased and improved by those amusements. The English are remarkably cool, both in losing and winning at play; but the former is sometimes attended with acts of suicide. An Englishman will rather murder himself, than bring a sharper, who he knows has fleeced him, to condign punishment, even though warranted by law. Next to horse-racing and hunting, cock-fighting, to the reproach of the nation, is a favourite diversion among the great as well as the vulgar. Multitudes of both classes assemble round the pit at one of those matches, and enjoy the pangs and death of this generous animal; every spectator being concerned in a bet, sometimes of high sums. The athletic diversion of cricket is still kept up in the southern and western parts of England, and is sometimes practised by people of the highest rank. Many other pastimes are common in England; some of them of a very robust nature, such as cudgelling, wrestling, bowls, skittles, quoits, and prison-base; not to mention duck-hunting, foot and ass-races, dancing, puppet-shows, May garlands, and, above all, ringing of bells, a species of music which the English boast they have brought into an art. The barbarous diversions of boxing and prize-fighting, which were as frequent in England as the shows of gladiators in Rome, are now prohibited, though often practised; and all places of public diversion, excepting the royal theatre, are under regulations by act of parliament. Other diversions, which are common in other countries, such as tennis, five, billiards, cards, swimming, angling, fowling, coursing, and the like, are familiar to the English. Two kinds, and those highly laudable, are perhaps peculiar to them; and these are rowing and sailing. The latter, if not introduced, was patronised and encouraged by his present majesty's father, the late prince of Wales, and may be considered as a national improvement. The English are amazingly fond of skating, in which, however, they are not very expert; but they are adventurous in it, often to the danger and loss of their lives. The game-acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diversion, though without answering the purposes of the rich; for the farmers and country people destroy the game in their nests, which they dare not kill with the gun. This monopoly of game, among so free a people as the English, has been considered in various lights.

Dress.] In the dress of both sexes, before the present reign of George III. they followed the French: but that of the military officers partook of the German, in compliment to his late majesty. The English, at present, bid fair to be the dictators of dress to the French themselves, at least with regard to elegance, neatness, and richness of attire. People of quality and fortune, of both sexes, appear, on high occasions, in cloth of gold and silver, the richest brocades, satins, silks, and velvets, both flowered and plain: and it is to the honour of the court, that the foreign manufactures of all these are discouraged. Some of these rich stuffs are said to be brought to as great perfection in England as they are in France, or any other nation. The quantities of jewels that appear on public occasions are incredible, especially since the vast acquisitions of the English in the East Indies. The same nobility, and persons of distinction, on ordinary occasions, dress like creditable citizens,

that is, neat, clean, and plain, in the finest cloth and the best of linen. The full dress of a clergyman consists of his gown, cassock, scarf, beaver-hat and rose, all of black; his undress is a dark-grey frock, and plain linen. The physicians, the formality of whose dress, in large tie perukes, and swords, was formerly remarkable if not ridiculous, begin now to dress like other gentlemen and men of business. Few Englishmen, tradesmen, merchants, and lawyers, as well as men of landed property, are without some passion for the sports of the field; on which occasions, they dress with remarkable propriety in a light frock, narrow-brimmed hat, &c. The people of England love rather to be neat than fine in their apparel; but since the accession of his present majesty, the dresses at court, on particular occasions, are superb beyond description. Few even of the lowest tradesmen, on Sundays, carry about them less than 10*l.* in cloathing, comprehending hat, wig, stockings, shoes, and linen; and even many beggars in the streets appear decent in their dress. In short, none but the most abandoned of both sexes are otherwise; and the appearance of an artisan or manufacturer, in holiday times, is commonly an indication of his industry and morals.

[RELIGION.] Eusebius, and other ancient writers, positively assert, that Christianity was first preached in South Britain by the apostles and their disciples; and it is reasonable to suppose that the success of the Romans opened a way for the triumphs of the gospel of peace. It is certain also, that many of the soldiers and officers in the Roman armies were Christians; and as their legions were repeatedly sent over to England to extend as well as preserve their conquests, it is probable that thus Christianity was diffused among the natives. If any of the apostles visited this country and our heathen ancestors, it was St. Paul, whose zeal, diligence, and fortitude, were abundant. But who was the first preacher, or the precise year and period, the want of records leaves us at a loss; and all the traditions about Joseph of Arimathea and St. Peter's preaching the gospel in Britain, and Simon Zelotes suffering martyrdom here, are romantic fables, and monkish legends. We have good authority to say, that about the year 150, a great number of persons professed the Christian faith here: and, according to archbishop Usher, in the year 182, there was a school of learning to provide the British churches with proper teachers; and from that period it seems as if Christianity advanced its benign and salutary influences among the inhabitants in their several districts. It is unnecessary to repeat what has been said in the Introduction respecting the rise and fall of the church of Rome in Europe. I shall only observe in this place, that John Wickliffe, an Englishman, educated at Oxford in the reign of Edward III. has the honour of being the first person in Europe who publicly called in question, and boldly refuted, those doctrines which had passed for certain during so many ages. The constitution of the church is episcopal, and it is governed by bishops, whose benefices were converted by the Norman conqueror into temporal baronies, in right of which every bishop has a seat and vote in the house of peers. The benefices of the inferior clergy are now freehold; but in many places their tithes are appropriated in favour of the laity. The economy of the church of England has been accused for the inequality of its livings; some of them extending from three hundred to fourteen hundred a year, and many, particularly in Wales, being too small to maintain a clergyman, especially if he has a family, with any tolerable decency; but this seems not easily to be remedied, unless the dignified clergy would adopt and

support the reforming scheme. The crown, as well as private persons, has done great things towards the augmentation of poor livings.

The dignitaries of the church of England, such as deans, prebendaries, and the like, have generally large incomes, some of them exceeding in value those of bishoprics; for which reason the revenues of a rich deanry, or other living, are often annexed to a poor bishopric. At present, the clergy of the church of England, as to temporal matters, are in a most flourishing situation, because the value of their tithes increases with the improvements of lands, which of late have been amazing in England. The sovereigns of England; ever since the reign of Henry VIII. have been called, in public writs, the supreme heads of the church; but this title conveys no spiritual meaning; as it only denotes the regal power to prevent any ecclesiastical differences, or, in other words, to substitute the king in place of the pope before the reformation, with regard to temporalities, and the internal economy of the church. The kings of England never intermeddle in ecclesiastical disputes, unless by preventing the convocation from sitting to agitate them, and are contented to give a sanction to the legal rights of the clergy.

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

* To the following list I have subjoined the sum each see is charged in the king's books; for though that sum is far from being the real annual value of the see, yet it assists in forming a comparative estimate between the revenues of each see and those of another.

ARCHBISHOPRICS.

Canterbury, - - - £.2682 12 2 | York, - - - - £.1610 0 0

BISHOPRICS.

London, - - -	2000 0 0	Chichester, - - -	677 1 3
Durham, - - -	1821 1 3	St. Asaph, - - -	187 11 8
Winchester, - - -	3124 12 8	Salisbury, - - -	1385 5 0
These three bishoprics take precedence		Bangor, - - -	131 16 3
of all others in England; and the		Norwich, - - -	834 11 7
others according to the seniority of		Gloucester, - - -	315 7 3
their consecrations.		Lincoln, - - -	894 18 1
Ely, - - -	2134 18 6	Landaff, - - -	154 14 2
Bath and Wells, - - -	533 1 3	Bristol, - - -	294 11 0
Hereford, - - -	768 11 0	Carlisle, - - -	531 4 9
Rochester, - - -	358 4 0	Exeter, - - -	500 0 0
Litchfield and Coventry, - - -	559 17 3	Peterborough, - - -	474 17 8
Chester, - - -	420 1 8	Oxford, - - -	387 11 0
Worcester, - - -	929 13 3	St. David's, - - -	426 2 1

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ter, Oxford, Peterborough, Bristol; and, in Wales, St. David's, Landaff, St. Asaph, and Bangor.

The archbishop of Canterbury has, by the constitution and laws of England, such extensive powers, that, ever since the death of archbishop Laud (whose character will be hereafter given), the government of England has prudently thought proper to raise to that dignity men of very moderate principles; but they have generally been men of considerable learning and abilities. This practice has been attended with excellent effects, with regard to the public tranquillity of the church, and consequently of the state.

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

The bishops are addressed by the appellation of Your Lordship, styled "Right reverend fathers in God," and take the precedence of all temporal barons. They have all the privileges of peers; and the bishoprics of London, Winchester, Durham, Salisbury, Ely, and Lincoln, require no additional revenues to support their prelates in the rank of noblemen. English bishops are to examine and ordain priests and deacons, to consecrate churches and burying places, and to administer the rite of confirmation. Their jurisdiction relates to the probate of wills; to grant administration of goods to such as die intestate; to take care of perishable goods when no one will administer; to collate to benefices; to grant institutions to livings; to defend the liberties of the church; and to visit their own dioceses once in three years.

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

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

The court of arches is the most ancient consistory of the province of Canterbury; and all appeals in church matters, from the judgment of the inferior courts, are directed to this. The processes run in the name of the judge, who is called dean of the arches; and the advocates who plead in this court must be doctors of the civil law. The court of audience

£. 1610 0 0

-	677	1	3
-	187	11	8
-	1385	5	0
-	131	16	3
-	834	11	7
-	315	7	3
-	894	18	1
-	154	14	4
-	294	11	0
-	531	4	9
-	500	0	0
-	414	17	8
-	381	11	0
-	426	2	4

has the same authority with this, to which the archbishop's chancery was formerly joined. The prerogative court is that wherein wills are proved, and administration taken out. The courts of peculiars, relating to certain parishes, have a jurisdiction among themselves, for the probate of wills, and are therefore exempt from the bishop's courts. The see of Canterbury has no less than fifteen of these peculiars. The court of delegates receives its name from its consisting of commissioners delegated, or appointed by the royal commission; but it is no standing court. Every bishop has also a court of his own, called the consistory court. Every archdeacon has likewise his court, as well as the dean and chapter of every cathedral.

The church of England is now, beyond any other national church, tolerant in its principles. Moderation is its governing character; and in England no religious sect is prevented from worshipping God in that manner which their consciences approve. Some severe laws were, indeed, lately in force against those protestant dissenters who did not assent to the doctrinal articles of the church of England; but these laws were not executed; and, in 1779, religious liberty received a considerable augmentation, by an act which was then passed for granting a legal toleration to dissenting ministers and schoolmasters, without their subscribing any of the Articles of the church of England. Not to enter upon the motives of the reformation under Henry VIII. it is certain that episcopal government, excepting the few years from the civil wars under Charles I. to the restoration of his son, has ever since prevailed in England. The wisdom of acknowledging the king the head of the church, is conspicuous, in discouraging all religious persecution and intolerance; and if religious sectaries have multiplied in England, it is from the same principle that civil licentiousness has prevailed; I mean a tenderness in matters that can affect either conscience or liberty. The bias which the clergy had towards popery in the reign of Henry VIII. and his son, and even so late as that of Elizabeth, occasioned an interposition of the civil power for a farther reformation. Thence arose the *puritans*, so called from their maintaining a singular purity of life and manners. Many of them were worthy, pious men, and some of them good patriots. Their descendents are the modern presbyterians, who retain the same character, and have true principles of civil and religious liberty; but their theological sentiments have undergone a considerable change. Their doctrine, like the church of Scotland, was originally derived from the Geneva plan instituted by Calvin, and tended to an abolition of episcopacy, and to vesting the government of the church in a parity of presbyters. But the modern English presbyterians, in their ideas of church government, differ very little from the independents, or congregationalists, who are so called from holding the independency of congregational churches, without any respect to doctrine; and, in this sense, almost all the *dissenters* in England are now become *independents*. As to points of doctrine, the presbyterians are generally Arminians. Many of their ministers have greatly distinguished themselves by their learning and abilities; and some of their writings are held in high estimation by many of the clergy, and other members of the established church. The same may be said of some of the independent and baptist ministers. The independents are generally Calvinists. The baptists do not believe that infants are proper subjects of baptism; and in the baptism of adults they practise immersion into water. They are divided into two classes, which are styled general baptists, and particular baptists. The general baptists are Arminians, and the particular baptists are Calvinists. The mode-

rate clergy of the church of England treat the protestant dissenters with affection and friendship: and though the hierarchy of their church, and the character of bishops, are capital points in their religion, they consider their differences with the presbyterians, and even with the baptists, as not being very material to salvation; nor indeed do many of the established church think that they are strictly and conscientiously bound to believe the doctrinal parts of the Thirty-nine Articles, which they are obliged to subscribe before they can enter into holy orders. Several of them have of late contended in their writings, that all subscriptions to religious systems are repugnant to the spirit of Christianity, and to reformation. Some doctrines, which were formerly generally considered as too sacred to be opposed, or even examined, are now publicly controverted, particularly the doctrine of the Trinity. Places of worship have been established, in which that doctrine has been openly renounced; and several clergymen have thrown up valuable livings in the church, and assigned their disbelief of that doctrine as the motive of their conduct.

The *Methodists* are a sect of a late institution, and their founder is generally looked upon to be Mr. George Whitfield, a divine of the church of England; but it is difficult to describe the tenets of this numerous sect. They pretend to great fervour and devotion; and their founder thought that the form of ecclesiastical worship, and prayers, whether taken from a common-prayer book, or poured forth extempore, was a matter of indifference: he accordingly made use of both these methods. His followers are rigid observers of the doctrinal articles of the church of England, and profess themselves to be Calvinists. But even the sect of methodists is split among themselves, some of them acknowledging Mr. Whitfield, and others Mr. Wesley, for their leader; not to mention a variety of subordinate sects (some of whom are from Scotland, particularly the *Sandemanians*) who have their separate followers, but very few at London and other places in England. Mr. Whitfield died a few years since; but the places of worship, erected by him near London, are still frequented by persons of the same principles, and they profess a great respect for his memory. Some of the Calvinistic doctrines were opposed by Mr. Wesley and his followers, particularly that of predestination; but they appear still to retain some of them. He erected a very large place of public worship near Moorfields, and had under him a considerable number of subordinate preachers, who submitted to their leader very implicitly, propagate his opinions, and make proselytes throughout the kingdom with great industry. After a very long life, spent in the most strenuous endeavours to do good, and having been blessed in reforming the morals of thousands of the lower ranks of society, he died in 1791.

The *Quakers* are a religious sect which took its rise about the middle of the last century. A summary account of their tenets having been published by themselves, the following is abstracted from it.

“ They believe in one eternal God, the Creator and preserver of the universe, and in Jesus Christ his Son, the Messiah and Mediator of the new covenant.

“ When they speak of the miraculous conception, birth, life, miracles, death, resurrection, and ascension of our Saviour, they use scriptural terms, and acknowledge his divinity.

“ To Christ alone they give the title of the Word of God, and not to the scriptures, although they highly esteem these sacred writings, in subordination to the Spirit from which they were given forth.

" They believe (and it is their distinguishing tenet), that every man coming into the world is endued with a measure of the light, grace, or good spirit of Christ, by which, as it is attended to, he is enabled to distinguish good from evil, and to correct the corrupt propensities of his nature, which mere reason is altogether insufficient to overcome.

" They think the influence of the Spirit, especially necessary, to the performance of worship; and consider as obstructions to pure worship, all forms which divert the attention of the mind from the secret influence of this unction from the Holy One. They think it incumbent on Christians to meet often together, and to wait in silence to have a true sight of their condition bestowed upon them; believing even a single sigh arising from such a sense to be more acceptable to God than any performances, however specious, which originate in the will of man.

" As they do not encourage any ministry but that which is believed to spring from the influence of the Holy Spirit, so neither do they restrain this influence to persons of any condition in life, or to the male sex alone; but as male and female are one in Christ, they allow such of the female sex as are endued with a right qualification for the ministry, to exercise their gifts for the general edification of the church.

" Respecting baptism, and what is termed the Lord's supper, they believe that the baptism with water, administered by John, belonged to an inferior and decreasing dispensation.

" With respect to the other rite, they believe that communion between Christ and his church is not maintained by any external performance; but only by a real participation of his divine nature by faith.

" They declare against oaths and war; abiding literally by Christ's positive injunction, "Swear not at all." From the precepts of the gospel, from the example of our Lord, and from his spirit in their hearts, they maintain that wars and fightings are repugnant to the gospel.

" They disuse the names of the months and days which were given in honour of the heroes or false gods of the heathens; and the custom of speaking to a single person in the plural number, as having arisen also from motives of adulation. Compliments, superfluity of apparel and furniture, outward shows of rejoicing and mourning, and observations of days and times, they esteem to be incompatible with the simplicity and sincerity of a Christian life; and public diversions, gaming, and other vain amusements of the world, they condemn as a waste of time, and diverting the attention of the mind from the sober duties of life.

" This society hath a discipline established among them, the purposes of which are the relief of the poor—the maintenance of good order—the support of the testimonies which they believe it is their duty to bear to the world—and the help and recovery of such as are overtaken in faults.

" It is their decided judgment that it is contrary to the gospel to sue each other at law. They enjoin all to end their differences by speedy and impartial arbitration according to rules laid down. If any refuse to adopt this mode, or, having adopted it, to submit to the award, it is the rule of the society that such be disowned."

It is well known that William Penn, one of this society, founded the province of Pennsylvania, and introduced therein a plan of civil and religious liberty, particularly of the latter, at that time unexampled. The government of the province was at first, and for many years, chiefly in the hands of the quakers; but as persons of other persuasions increased, and became partakers of power, they grew uneasy at the pacific plan of the quakers, and at length succeeding to establish such

modes of defence for their country as did not accord with the principles of the latter, these gradually withdrew themselves from active employments of the state. For some time previous to the late revolution, few of them were found in any other station than that of private citizens; and, during its progress, their refusing to arm exposed them to much suffering, by disfraints levied on them, in order to procure their quota in support of the war.

Many families in England still profess the Roman catholic religion, and its exercise is under very mild and gentle restrictions. Though the penal laws against papists in England appear at first to be severe, yet they are either not executed, or with so much lenity, that a Roman catholic feels himself under few hardships. Legal evasions are found out for the double taxes upon their landed property; and, as they are subject to none of the expenses and troubles (unless voluntary) attending public offices, parliamentary elections, and the like burthens, the English papists are in general in good circumstances as to their private fortunes. Some of the penal laws against them have also lately been repealed, much to the satisfaction of all liberal-minded men, though a vehement outcry was afterwards raised against the measure by ignorance and bigotry. The papists now seem to be convinced that a change of government, instead of bettering, would hurt their situation, because it would increase the jealousy of the legislature, which must undoubtedly expose them daily to greater burthens and heavier penalties. This sensible consideration has of late made the Roman catholics to appear as dutiful and zealous subjects as any his majesty has. Scarcely any English papists, excepting those who were bred or had served abroad, were engaged in the rebellion of the year 1745; and though at home were most carefully observed, few or none of them were found guilty of disloyal practices.

As England has been famous for the variety of its religious sects, so it has also for its *Free-thinkers*; but that term has been applied in very different senses. It has sometimes been used to denote opposers of religion in general, and in particular of revealed religion; but it has also been applied to those who have been far from disbelieving Christianity, and who have only opposed some of those doctrines which are to be found in public creeds and formularies, but which they conceive to be no part of the original Christian system. As to those who are truly *deists* or *infidels*, there is abundant reason to believe that this class of men is much more numerous in some popish countries than in England. Christianity is so much obscured and disfigured by the fopperies and superstitions of the Roman church, that men who think freely are naturally apt to be prejudiced against it, when they see it in so disadvantageous a form: and this appears to be in fact very much the case abroad. But in England, where men have every opportunity of seeing it exhibited in a more rational manner, they have less cause to be prejudiced against it; and therefore are more ready to enter into an examination of the evidence of its divine origin. Nor does it appear that the writings of the deists against Christianity have been of any real disservice to it. On the contrary, they have caused the arguments in its favour to be used with greater force and clearness, and have been the means of producing such defences of it, as all the acuteness of modern infidelity has been unable to overthrow.

[LANGUAGE.] The English language is known to be a compound of almost every other language in Europe, particularly the Saxon, the French, and the Celtic. The Saxon, however, predominates; and the

words that are borrowed from the French, being radically Latin, are common to other nations, particularly the Spaniards and the Italians. To describe it abstractedly, would be superfluous to an English reader; but, relatively, it enjoys all the properties, without many of the defects, of other European languages. It is more energetic, manly, and expressive, than either the French or the Italian; more copious than the Spanish; and more eloquent than the German, or the other northern tongues. It is, however, subject to some considerable provincialities in its accent, there being much difference in the pronunciation of the inhabitants of different counties; but this chiefly affects the lowest of the people; for as to well-educated and well-bred persons, there is little difference in their pronunciation all over the kingdom. People of fortune and education in England, of both sexes, also commonly either speak or understand the French, and many of them the Italian and Spanish; but it has been observed that foreign nations have great difficulty in understanding the few English who talk Latin; which is perhaps the reason why that language is much disused in England, even by the learned professions.

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

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

In speaking of the dark ages, it would be unpardonable to omit the mention of that prodigy of learning and natural philosophy, Roger Bacon, who was the forerunner in science to the great Bacon lord Verulam, as the latter was to sir Isaac Newton. Among the other curious works written by this illustrious man, we find treatises upon grammar, mathematics, physics, the flux and reflux of the British sea, optics, geography, astronomy, chronology, chemistry, logic, metaphysics, ethics, medicine, theology, philology, and upon the impediments of knowledge. He lived under Henry III. and died at Oxford about the year 1294. The honourable Mr. Walpole has preserved the memory of some noble and royal English authors, who have done honour to learning and the Muses; and to his work I must refer. Since the Reformation, England resembles a galaxy of literature*; and it is but doing justice to the memory of cardinal Wolsey, though otherwise a dangerous and

* See the Biographia Britannica.

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

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

His son Charles I. cultivated the polite arts, especially sculpture, painting, and architecture. He was the patron of Rubens, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and other eminent artists; so that, had it not been for the civil wars, he would probably have converted his court and capital into a second Athens; and the collections he made for that purpose, considering his pecuniary difficulties, were stupendous. His favourite, the duke of Buckingham, imitated him in that respect, and laid out the amazing sum of 400,000 pounds upon his cabinet of paintings and curiosities.

The earl of Arundel was another Mæcenas of that age, and greatly distinguished himself by his collection of antiquities, particularly his famous marble inscriptions, called the Arundelian marbles, now preserved at Oxford. Charles and his court had little or no relish for poetry; but such was his generosity in encouraging genius and merit of every kind, that he increased the salary of his poet laureat, the famous Ben Jonson, from 100 marks to 100 pounds per annum, and a tierce of Spanish wine; which salary is continued to this day.

The public encouragement of learning and the arts suffered indeed an eclipse, during the time of the civil wars, and the succeeding inter-

regnum. Many very learned men, however, found their situations under Cromwell, though he was no stranger to their political sentiments, so easy, that they followed their studies, to the vast benefit of every branch of learning; and many works of great literary merit appeared even in those times of distraction. Usher, Walton, Wilkes, Harrington, Wilkins, and a prodigious number of other great names, were unmolested and even favoured by that usurper; and he would also have filled the universities with literary merit, could he have done it with any degree of safety to his government.

The reign of Charles II. was chiefly distinguished by the great proficiency to which it carried natural knowledge, especially by the institution of the Royal Society. The king was a good judge of those studies; and, though irreligious himself, England never abounded more with learned and able divines than in his reign. He loved painting and poetry, but was far more munificent to the former than the latter. The incomparable *Paradise Lost*, by Milton, was published in his reign, but was not read or attended to in proportion to its merit; though it was far from being disregarded so much as has been commonly apprehended. The reign of Charles II. notwithstanding the bad taste of his court in several of the polite arts, by some is reckoned the Augustan age in England, and is dignified with the names of Boyle, Halley, Hooke, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotson, Barrow, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Wycherley, and Otway. The pulpit assumed more majesty, a better style, and truer energy, than it had ever known before. Classic literature recovered many of its native graces; and though England could not, under him, boast of a Jones and a Vandyke, yet sir Christopher Wren introduced a more general regularity than had ever been known before in architecture. Nor was sir Christopher Wren merely distinguished by his skill as an architect *. His knowledge was very extensive; and his discoveries in philosophy, mechanics, &c. contributed much to the reputation of the new-established Royal Society. Some excellent English painters (for Lely and Kneller were foreigners) also flourished in this reign.

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

The names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. and he had a particular esteem for the latter, as he had also for Tillotson and Burnet, though he was far from being liberal to men of genius. Learning flourished, however, in his reign, merely by the excellency of the soil in which it had been planted.

The most uninformed readers are not unacquainted with the improvements which learning, and all the polite arts, received under the auspices of queen Anne, and which put her court at least on a footing with that of Lewis XIV. in its most splendid days. Many of the great men who had figured in the reigns of the Stuarts and William, were still alive, and in the full exercise of their faculties, when a new race

* Mr. Horace Walpole says, that a variety of knowledge proclaims the universality a multiplicity of works the abundance; and St. Paul's the greatness, of sir Christopher Wren's genius. So many great architects as were employed on St. Peter's have not left, upon the whole, a more perfect edifice than this work of a single mind. The noblest temple, the largest palace, and the most sumptuous hospital, in such a kingdom as Britain, are all the works of the same hand. He restored London, and recorded its fall. He built about fifty parish churches, and designed the Monument.

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sprung up in the republic of learning and the arts. Addison, Prior, Pope, Swift, lord Bolingbroke, lord Shaftesbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, and many other excellent writers both in verse and prose, need but to be mentioned, to be admired; and the English were as triumphant in literature as in war. Natural and moral philosophy kept pace with the polite arts; and even religious and political disputes contributed to the advancement of learning, by the unbounded liberty which the laws of England allow'd in speculative matters, and which has been found highly advantageous in the promotion of true and valuable knowledge.

The ministers of George I. were the patrons of erudition, and some of them were no mean proficient themselves. George II. was himself no Mæcenas; yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding, in the numbers of learned and ingenious men it produced. The bench of bishops was never known to be so well provided with able prelates as it was in the early years of his reign; a full proof that his nobility and ministers were judges of literary qualifications. In other departments of erudition, the favour of the public generally supplied the coldness of the court. After the rebellion in the year 1745, when Mr. Pelham was considered as being first minister, this screen between government and literature was in a great measure removed, and men of genius began to taste the royal bounty. Since that period, a great progress has been made in the polite arts in England. The Royal Academy has been instituted, some very able artists have arisen, and the annual public exhibitions of painting and sculpture have been extremely favourable to the arts, by promoting a spirit of emulation, and exciting a greater attention to works of genius of this kind among the public in general. But, notwithstanding these favourable circumstances, the fine arts have been far from meeting with that public patronage to which they have so just a claim. Few of our public edifices are adorned with paintings or with statues. The sculptors meet with little employment, nor is the historical painter much patronised; though the British artists of the present age have proved that their genius for the fine arts is equal to that of any other nation.

Besides learning, and the fine arts in general, the English excel in what we call the learned professions. Their courts of justice are adorned with greater abilities and virtues, perhaps, than those which any other country can boast of. A remarkable instance of which occurs in the appointments, for the last 400 years, of their lord chancellors, who hold the highest and the most uncontrolable judicial seat in the kingdom; and yet it is acknowledged by all parties, that, during that time, their bench has remained unpolluted by corruption, or partial affections. The few instances that may be alleged to the contrary, fix no imputation of wilful guilt upon the parties. The great lord chancellor Bacon was censured indeed for corrupt practices; but malevolence itself does not say that he was guilty any farther than in too much indulgence to his servants. The case of one of his successors is still more favourable to his memory, as his censure reflects disgrace only upon his enemies; and his lordship was, in the judgment of every man of candour and conscience, fully acquitted. Even Jefferies, infernal as he was in his politics, never was accused of partiality in the causes that came before him as chancellor.

It must be acknowledged that neither pulpit nor bar eloquence have been sufficiently studied in England; but this is owing to the genius of the people, and their laws. The sermons of their divines are often

learned, and always sound as to the practical and doctrinal part; for the many religious sects in England require to be opposed rather by reasoning than eloquence. An unaccountable notion has however prevailed even among some of the clergy themselves, that the latter is incompatible with the former, as if the arguments of Cicero and Demosthenes were weakened by those powers of language with which they are adorned. A short time, perhaps, may remove this prepossession, and convince the clergy, as well as the laity, that true eloquence is the first and fairest handmaid of argumentation. I do not, however, mean to insinuate that the preachers of the English church are destitute of the graces of elocution; so far from that, no clergy in the world can equal them in the purity and perspicuity of language; though, if they studied more than they do the powers of elocution, they would probably preach with more effect. If the semblance of those powers, coming from the mouths of ignorant enthusiasts, is attended with the amazing effects we daily see, what must not be the consequence if they were exerted in reality, and supported with spirit and learning?

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

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

Medicine and surgery, botany, anatomy, chemistry, and all the arts or studies for preserving life, have been carried to a great degree of perfection by the English. The same may be said of music, and theatrical exhibitions. Even agriculture and mechanism are now reduced in England to sciences, and that too without any public encouragement but such as is given by private noblemen and gentlemen, who associate themselves for that purpose. In ship-building, clock-work, and the various branches of cutlery, they stand unrivalled.

(UNIVERSITIES.) I have already mentioned the two universities of Oxford and Cambridge, which have been the seminaries of more learned men than any in Europe, and some have ventured to say, than all other literary institutions. It is certain that their magnificent buildings, which in splendour and architecture rival the most superb royal edifices, the rich endowments, the liberal ease and tranquillity enjoyed by those who inhabit them, surpass all the ideas which foreigners, who visit them, conceive of literary societies. So respectable are they in their foundations, that each university sends two members to the British parliament, and their chancellors and officers have a civil jurisdiction over their students, the better to secure their independency. Their colleges, in their revenues, and buildings, exceed those of many other universities.

In Oxford there are twenty colleges and five halls: the former are very liberally endowed, but in the latter the students chiefly maintain themselves. This university is of great antiquity; it is supposed to have been a considerable place even in the time of the Romans; and Camden says, that "wise antiquity did, even in the British age, consecrate this place to the Muses." It is said to have been styled an university be-

fore the time of king Alfred; and the best historians admit, that this most excellent prince was only a restorer of learning here. Alfred built three colleges at Oxford; one for divinity, another for philosophy, and a third for grammar.

The University of Cambridge consists of twelve colleges, and four halls; but though they are distinguished by different names, the privileges of the colleges and halls are in every respect the same.

The senate-house at Cambridge is a most elegant edifice, executed entirely in the Corinthian order, and is said to have cost sixteen thousand pounds. Trinity college library is also a very magnificent structure; and in Corpus Christi college library, is a valuable collection of ancient manuscripts, which were preserved at the dissolution of the monasteries, and given to this college by archbishop Parker.

ANTIGUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The antiquities of England are
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } either British, Roman, Saxon, Danish, or Anglo-Normannic; but these, excepting the Roman, throw no great light upon ancient history. The chief British antiquities are those circles of stones, particularly that called Stonehenge in Wiltshire, which probably were places of worship in the times of the Druids. Stonehenge is, by Inigo Jones, Dr. Stukeley, and others, described as a regular circular structure. The body of the work consists of two circles and two ovals, which are thus composed: the upright stones are placed at three feet and a half distance from each other, and joined at the top by over-thwart stones, with tenons fitted to the mortises in the uprights, for keeping them in their due position. Some of these stones are vastly large, measuring two yards in breadth, one in thickness, and above seven in height; others are less in proportion. The uprights are wrought a little with a chissel, and sometimes tapered; but the transoms, or over-thwart stones, are quite plain. The outside circle is near one hundred and eighty feet in diameter, between which and the next circle, there is a walk of three hundred feet in circumference, which has a surprising and awful effect upon the beholders.

Monuments of the same kind as that of Stonehenge are to be met with in Cumberland, Oxfordshire, Cornwall, Devonshire, and many other parts of England, as well as in Scotland, and the Isles, which have been already mentioned.

The Roman antiquities in England consist chiefly of altars and monumental inscriptions, which instruct us as to the legionary stations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of some of their commanders. The Roman military ways give us the highest idea of the civil as well as military policy of those conquerors. Their vestiges are numerous; one is mentioned by Leland, as beginning at Dover, and passing through Kent to London, from thence to St. Alban's, Dunstable, Stratford, Towcester, Littleburn, St. Gilbert's Hill near Shrewsbury, then by Stratton, and so through the middle of Wales to Cardigan. The great Via Militaris called Hermen-street, passed from London through Lincoln, where a branch of it, from Pontefract to Doncaster, strikes out to the westward, passing through Tadcaster to York, and from thence to Aldby, where it again joined Hermen-street. There would, however, be no end of describing the vestiges of the Roman roads in England, many of which serve as foundations to our present high ways. The great earl of Arundel, the celebrated English antiquary, had formed a noble plan for describing those which pass through Sussex and Surry towards London; but the civil war breaking out, put an end to the undertaking. The remains of many Roman camps are discernible all over England;

one particularly, very little defaced, near Dorchester in Dorsetshire, where also is a Roman amphitheatre. Their situations are generally so well chosen, and their fortifications appear to have been so complete, that there is some reason to believe that they were the constant habitations of the Roman soldiers in England; though it is certain, from the baths and tessellated pavements that have been found in different parts, that their chief officers or magistrates lived in towns or villas, Roman walls have likewise been found in England; and, perhaps, upon the borders of Wales, many remains of their fortifications and castles are blended with those of a later date. The private cabinets of noblemen and gentlemen, as well as the public repositories, contain a vast number of Roman arms, coins, fibulae, trinkets, and the like, which have been found in England; but the most amazing monument of the Roman power in England is the præenture or wall of Severus, commonly called the *Pictis* wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland; beginning at Tinnmouth, and ending at Selway Frith, being about eighty miles in length. The wall at first consisted only of stakes and turf, with a ditch; but Severus built it with stone forts and turrets at proper distances, so that each might have a speedy communication with the other; and it was attended all along by a deep ditch, or vallum, to the north, and a military high way to the south.

The Saxon antiquities in England consist chiefly in ecclesiastical edifices, and places of strength. At Winchester is shown the round table of King Arthur, with the names of his knights. The antiquity of this table has been disputed by Camden and later writers, perhaps with reason; but if it be not British, it certainly is Saxon. The cathedral of Winchester served as the burying-place of several Saxon kings, whose bones were collected together by bishop Fox, in six large wooden chests. Many monuments of Saxon antiquity present themselves all over the kingdom, though they are often not to be discerned from the Normannic; and the British Museum contains several striking original specimens of their learning. Many Saxon charters, signed by the king and his nobles, with a plain cross instead of their names, are still to be met with. The writing is neat and legible, and was always performed by a clergyman, who affixed the name and quality of every donor, or witness, to his respective cross. The Danish erections in England are hardly discernible from the Saxon. The form of their camps is round, and they are generally built upon eminences; but their forts are square.

All England is full of Anglo-Normannic monuments, which I choose to call so, because, though the princes, under whom they were raised were of Norman original, yet the expense was defrayed by Englishmen, with English money. York-minster, and Westminster-hall and abbey, are perhaps the finest specimens to be found in Europe, of that Gothic manner which prevailed in building, before the recovery of the Greek and Roman architecture. All the cathedrals and old churches in the kingdom are more or less in the same taste, if we except St. Paul's. In short, those erections are so common, that they scarcely deserve the name of curiosities. It is uncertain whether the artificial excavations, found in some parts of England, are British, Saxon, or Norman. That under the old castle of Ryegate in Surry is very remarkable, and seems to have been designed for secreting the cattle and effects of the natives, in times of war and invasion. It contains an oblong square hall, round which runs a bench, cut out of the same rock, for sitting upon; and tradition says that it was the room in which the barons of England met during the wars with king John. The rock itself is soft and very prac-

ticable; but it is hard to say where the excavation, which is continued in a square passage, about six feet high, and four wide, terminates, because the work is fallen in, in some places.

The natural curiosities of England are so various that a general account can only be given. The Bath waters are famous through all the world, both for drinking and bathing. Spas of the same kind are found at Scarborough, and other parts of Yorkshire; at Tunbridge in Kent; Epsom and Dulwich in Surry; and at Acton and Ilkington in Middlesex. There also are many remarkable springs, of which some are impregnated either with salt, as that at Droitwich in Worcestershire; or sulphur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancashire; or bituminous matter, as that at Pitchford in Shropshire. Others have a petrifying quality, as that near Lutterworth in Leicestershire, and a dropping well in the West-riding of Yorkshire. And, finally, some ebb and flow, as those of the Peak in Derbyshire, and Laywell near Torbay, whose waters rise and fall several times in an hour. To these we may add that remarkable fountain near Richard's castle in Herefordshire, commonly called Bonewell; which is generally full of small bones, like those of frogs or fish, though often cleared out. At Anciliff, near Wigan in Lancashire, is the famous burning well; the water is cold, neither has it any smell; yet there is so strong a vapour of sulphur issuing out with the stream, that, upon applying a light to it, the top of the water is covered with a flame, like that of burning spirits, which lasts several hours, and emits so strong a heat that meat may be boiled over it. The fluid itself will not burn when taken out of the well*.

Derbyshire is celebrated for many natural curiosities. The Mam Tor, or Mother Tower, is said to be continually mouldering away, but never diminishes. The Eldon Hole, about four miles from the same place, is a chasm in the side of a mountain, near seven yards wide, and fourteen long, diminishing in extent within the rock; but of what depth, is not known. A plummet once drew 884 yards of line after it, whereof the last eighty were wet, without finding a bottom. The entrance of Poole's hole near Buxton, for several paces, is very low, but soon opens into a very lofty vault, like the inside of a Gothic cathedral. The height is certainly very great, yet much short of what some have asserted, who reckon it a quarter of a mile perpendicular, though in length it exceeds that dimension; a current of water, which runs along the middle, adds, by its sounding stream, echoed on all sides, very much to the astonishment of all who visit this vast cavern. The drops of water which hang from the roof, and on the sides, have an amusing effect; for they not only reflect numberless rays from the candles carried by the guides, but as they are of a petrifying quality, they harden in several places into various forms, which, with the help of a strong imagination, may pass for lions, fountains, organs, and the like. The entrance into that stupendous cavern at Castleton, which is from its hideousness named the Devil's Arse, is wide at first, and upwards of thirty feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, who, in a great measure, subsist by guiding strangers into the cavern, which is crossed by four streams of water, and then is thought impassable. The vault, in several places, makes a beautiful appearance, being chequered with various coloured stones.

Some spots of England are said to have a petrifying quality. We are told, that, near Whitby in Yorkshire, are found certain stones resembling

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

bling the folds and wreaths of a serpent; also other stones of several sizes, and so exactly round, as if artificially made for cannon balls, which being broken do commonly contain the form and likeness of serpents, wreathed in circles, but generally without heads. In some parts of Gloucestershire, stones are found resembling cockles, oysters, and other testaceous marine animals. Those curiosities, however, are often magnified by ignorance and credulity.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER } This head is so very exten-
EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } sive, that I can only touch
upon objects that may assist in giving the reader some idea of its im-
portance, grandeur, or utility.

London, the metropolis of the British empire, is the first in this division. It appears to have been founded between the reigns of Julius Cæsar and Nero; but by whom, is uncertain; for we are told by Tacitus, that it was a place of great trade in Nero's time, and soon after became the capital of the island. It was first walled about with hewn stones and British bricks, by Constantine the Great, and the walls formed an oblong square, in compass about three miles, with seven principal gates. The same emperor made it a bishop's see; for it appears that the bishops of London and York, and another English bishop, were at the council of Arles, in the year 314: he also settled a mint in it, as is plain from some of his coins.

London, in its large sense, including Westminster, Southwark, and part of Middlesex, is a city of surprising extent, of prodigious wealth, and of the most extensive trade. This city, when considered with all its advantages, is now what ancient Rome once was; the seat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and the admiration of the whole world. London is the centre of trade; it has an intimate connection with all the counties in the kingdom; it is the grand mart of the nation, to which all parts send their commodities, from whence they are again sent back into every town in the nation, and to every part of the world; from hence innumerable carriages by land and water are constantly employed; and from hence arises the circulation in the national body, which renders every part healthful, vigorous, and in a prosperous condition; a circulation that is equally beneficial to the head and the most distant members. Merchants are here as rich as noblemen: witness their incredible loans to government; and there is no place in the world where the shops of tradesmen make such a noble and elegant appearance, or are better stocked.

It is situated on the banks of the Thames, a river which, though not the largest, is the richest and most commodious for commerce, of any in the world; it being continually filled with fleets sailing to, or from the most distant climates; and its banks extend from London-bridge to Blackwall, almost one continued great magazine of naval stores, containing three large wet docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for the building of ships for the use of the merchants, beside the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters; and the king's yards down the river, for the building of men of war. As this city is about sixty miles distant from the sea, it enjoys, by means of this beautiful river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being surprised by

* London is situated in 51° 31' north latitude, 400 miles south of Edinburgh, and 270 south-east of Dublin; 180 miles west of Amsterdam, 210 north-west of Paris, 600 south-west of Copenhagen, 600 miles north-west of Vienna, 790 south-west of Stockholm, 800 north-east of Madrid, 820 north-west of Rome, 850 north-east of Lisbon, 1360 north-west of Constantinople, 1414 south-west of Moscow.

foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the moist vapours of the sea. It rises regularly from the water-side, and, extending itself on both sides along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from east to west in a kind of amphitheatre towards the north, and is continued for near 20 miles on all sides, in a succession of magnificent villas, and populous villages, the country-seats of gentlemen and tradesmen; whither the latter retire for the benefit of fresh air, and to relax their minds from the hurry of business. The regard paid by the legislature to the property of the subject has hitherto prevented any bounds being fixed for its extension.

The irregular form of this city makes it difficult to ascertain its extent. However, its length from east to west is generally allowed to be above seven miles, from Hyde-park corner to Poplar; and its breadth in some places three, in others two, and in others again not much above half a mile. Hence the circumference of the whole is almost 18 miles; or, according to a modern measurement, the extent of continued buildings is 35 miles, two furlongs, and 39 roods. But it is much easier to form an idea of the large extent of a city so irregularly built, by the number of the people, who are computed to be near a million; and from the number of edifices devoted to the service of religion.

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

There are also in and near this city 100 alms-houses; about 20 hospitals and infirmaries; 3 colleges; 10 public prisons; 15 flesh-markets; 1 market for live cattle, 2 other markets more particularly for herbs; and 23 other markets for corn, coals, hay, &c. 15 inns of court; 27 public squares, besides those within single buildings, as the temple, &c. 3 bridges, 49 halls for companies, 8 public schools, called free-schools, and 131 charity-schools, which provide education for 5034 poor children; 207 inns; 447 taverns, 551 coffee-houses, 5975 alehouses; 1000 hackney coaches; 400 ditto chairs; 7000 streets, lanes, courts, and alleys, and 150,000 dwelling-houses, containing, as has been already observed, about 1,000,000 inhabitants, who, according to a late estimate, consume annually the following articles of provisions:

Black cattle	98,244
Sheep and Lambs	711,123
Calves	194,760
Swine	186,932
Hgs	52,000
Poultry and wild fowl, innumerable	
Mackarel sold at Billingsgate	14,740,000
Oysters, bushels	115,536
Small boats of cod, haddock, whiting, &c. over and above those brought by land-carriage, and great quantities of river and salt-fish	1,398
Butter, pounds weight, about	16,000,000
Cheese, ditto, about	20,000,000

Gallons of milk	7,000,000
Barrels of strong beer	1,172,494
Barrels of small beer	798,495
Tons of foreign wines	3,044
Gallons of rum, brandy, and other distilled waters, above	11,000,000
Pounds weight of candles, above	11,000,000

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

Westminster-bridge is reckoned one of the most complete and elegant structures of the kind known in the world. It is built entirely of stone, and extended over the river at a place where it is 1,223 feet broad; which is above 300 feet broader than at London-bridge. On each side is a fine balustrade of stone, with places of shelter from the rain. The width of the bridge is 44 feet; having on each side a fine foot-way for passengers. It consists of 14 piers, and 13 large and two small arches, all semicircular, that in the centre being 76 feet wide, and the rest decreasing four feet each from the other; so that the two least arches of the 13 great ones are each 52 feet. It is computed that the value of 40,000l. in stone and other materials is always under water. This magnificent structure was begun in 1738, and finished 1750, at the expense of 389,000l. defrayed by the parliament.

Black-friars bridge is not inferior to that of Westminster, either in magnificence or workmanship; but the situation of the ground on the two shores obliged the architect to employ elliptical arches; which, however, have a very fine effect; and many persons even prefer it to Westminster-bridge. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finished in 1770, at the expense of 152,840l. to be discharged by a toll upon the passengers. It is situated almost at an equal distance between those of Westminster and London; commands a view of the Thames from the latter to Whitehall, and discovers the majesty of St. Paul's in a very striking manner.

The cathedral of St. Paul's is the most capacious, magnificent, and regular protestant church in the world. The length within is 500 feet; and its height, from the marble pavement to the cross on the top of the cupola, is 340. It is built of Portland stone, according to the Greek and Roman orders, in the form of a cross, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, to which in some respects it is superior. St. Paul's church is the principal work of sir Christopher Wren, and undoubtedly the only work of the same magnitude that ever was completed by one man. He lived to a great age, and finished the building 37 years after he himself laid the first stone. It takes up six acres of ground, though the whole length of this church measures no more than the width of St. Peter's. The expense of rebuilding it, after the fire of London, was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at a million sterling.

Westminster abbey, or the collegiate church of Westminster, is a venerable pile of building, in the Gothic taste. It was first built by Ed-

ward the Confessor; king Henry III. rebuilt it from the ground, and Henry VII. added a fine chapel to the east end of it; this is the repository of the deceased British kings and nobility; and here are also monuments erected to the memory of many great and illustrious personages, commanders by sea and land, philologists, poets, &c. In the reign of queen Anne, 4000*l.* a year, out of the coal duty, was granted by parliament for keeping it in repair.

The inside of the church of St. Stephen, Walbrook, is admired for its lightness and elegance; and does honour to the memory of sir Christopher Wren. The same may be said of the steeples of St. Mary-le-Bow, and St. Bride's, which are supposed to be the most complete in their kind of any in Europe, though architecture has laid down no rule for such erections. Few churches in and about London are without some beauty. The simplicity of the portico in Covent Garden is worthy the purest ages of ancient architecture. That of St. Martin's in the Fields would be noble and striking, could it be seen from a proper point of view. Several of the new churches are built in an elegant taste, and even some of the chapels have gracefulness and proportion to recommend them. The banqueting-house at Whitehall is but a very small part of a noble palace designed by Inigo Jones, for the royal residence; and, as it now stands, under all its disadvantages, its symmetry and ornaments are in the highest style and execution of architecture.

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

That beautiful column, called the Monument, erected at the charge of the city, to perpetuate the memory of its being destroyed by fire, is justly worthy of notice. This column, which is of the Doric order, exceeds all the obelisks and pillars of the ancients, it being 202 feet high, with a chair-case in the middle to ascend to the balcony, which is about 30 feet short of the top, from whence there are other steps, made for persons to look out at the top of all, which is fashioned like an urn, with a flame issuing from it. On the base of the monument, next the street, the destruction of the city, and the relief given to the sufferers by Charles II. and his brother, are emblematically represented in bas-relief. The north and south sides of the base have each a Latin inscription, the one describing its dreadful desolation, and the other its splendid resurrection; and on the east side is an inscription, showing when the pillar was begun and finished. The charge of erecting this monument, which was begun by sir Christopher Wren in 1671, and finished by him in 1677, amounted to upward of 13,000*l.*

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

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

We might here give a description of the Tower, Bank of England, the New Treasury, the Admiralty-office, and the Horse-guards at Whitehall, the Mansion-house, or house of the Lord-mayor, the Custom house, the Mint-office, and a house, and a vast number of other public buildings; besides the magnificent edifices raised by our nobility; as lord Spencer's

house, Marlborough-house, and Buckingham-house in St. James's-park; the earl of Chesterfield's-house near Hyde-park; the duke of Devonshire's, and the late earl of Bath's, in Piccadilly; lord Shelburne's in Berkeley-square; Northumberland-house in the Strand; the duke of Bedford's, and Montague-house *, in Bloomsbury; with a number of others of the nobility and gentry; but these would be sufficient to fill a large volume.

This great and populous city is happily supplied with abundance of fresh water, from the Thames and the New River; which is not only of inconceivable service to every family, but by means of fire-plugs every where dispersed, the keys of which are deposited with the parish-officers, the city is in a great measure secured from the spreading of fire; for these plugs are no sooner opened, than there are vast quantities of water to supply the engines.

This plenty of water has been attended with another advantage; it has given rise to several companies, who insure houses and goods from fire. The premium is small, and the recovery, in case of loss, is easy and certain. Every one of these offices keep a set of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their assistance in case of fire; and who are on all occasions extremely bold, dexterous, and diligent: but though all their labours should prove unsuccessful, the person who suffers by this devouring element, has the comfort that must arise from a certainty of being paid the value (upon oath) of what he has insured.

Before the conflagration in 1666, London (which, like most other great cities, had arisen from small beginnings) was totally inelegant, inconvenient, and unhealthy; of which latter misfortune many melancholy proofs are authenticated in history, and which, without doubt, proceeded from the narrowness of the streets, and the unaccountable projections of the buildings, that confined the putrid air, and, joined with other circumstances, such as the want of water, rendered the city seldom free from pestilential devastation. The fire which consumed the greatest part of the city, dreadful as it was to the inhabitants at that

* The British Museum is deposited in Montague-house. Sir Hans Sloane, bart. (who died in 1753) may not improperly be called the founder of the British Museum, for its being established by parliament was only in consequence of his leaving by will his noble collection of natural history, his large library, and his numerous curiosities, which cost him 50,000*l.* to the use of the public, on condition that the parliament would pay 20,000*l.* to his executors. To this collection were added the Cottonian library, the Harleian manuscripts, collected by the Oxford family, and purchased likewise by the parliament, and a collection of books given by the late major Edwards. His late majesty, in consideration of its great usefulness, was graciously pleased to add thereto the royal libraries of books and manuscripts collected by the several kings of England.

The Sloanian collection consists of an amazing number of curiosities; among which are the library, including books of drawings, manuscripts, and prints, amounting to about 50,000 volumes. Medals and coins, ancient and modern, 20,000. Cameos and intaglios, about 700. Seals, 268. Vessels, &c. of agate, jasper, &c. 541. Antiquities, 1,125. Precious stones, agate, jasper, &c. 2,156. Metals, minerals, ores, &c. 2,775. Crystals, spars, &c. 1,864. Fossils, flints, stones, 1,275. Earths, sands, salts, 1045. Bitumens, sulphurs, amber, &c. 399. Talcs, micæ, &c. 388. Corals, sponges, &c. 2,421. Testacea or shells, &c. 5843. Echini, echiniaz, &c. 619. Adreiaz, trochi, entrochi, &c. 241. Crustacea, crabs, lobsters, &c. 368. Stella marina, star-fishes, &c. 173. Fish, and their parts, &c. 2,555. Birds, and their parts, eggs, and the nests of different species, 1,172. Quadrupeds, &c. 1,886. Vipers, serpents, &c. 521. Insects, &c. 5,439. Vegetables, 12,506. Florus siccus, or volumes of dried plants, 339. Humani, as calculi, anatomical preparations, 756. Miscellaneous things natural, 2,098. Mathematical instruments, 55. A catalogue of all the above is written in a number of large volumes.

time, was productive of consequences which made ample amends for the losses sustained by individuals; a new city arose on the ruins of the old; but, though more regular, open, convenient, and healthful than the former, yet it by no means answered to the characters of magnificence or elegance; in many particulars; and it is ever to be lamented (such was the infatuation of those times) that the magnificent, elegant, and useful plan of the great sir Christopher Wren was totally disregarded and sacrificed to the mean and selfish views of private property; views which did irreparable injury to the citizens themselves, and to the nation in general; for had that great architect's plan been followed, what has often been asserted, must have been the result; the metropolis of this kingdom would incontestably have been the most magnificent and elegant city in the universe, and of consequence must, from the prodigious resort of foreigners of distinction and taste who would have visited it, have become an inexhaustible fund of riches to this nation. But as the deplorable blindness of that age has deprived us of so valuable an acquisition; it is become absolutely necessary that some efforts should be made to render the present plan in a greater degree answerable to the character of the richest and most powerful people in the world.

The plan of London, in its present state, will in many instances appear, to very moderate judges, to be as injudicious a disposition as can easily be conceived for a city of trade and commerce, on the border of so noble a river as the Thames. The wharfs and quays on its banks are extremely mean and inconvenient. And the want of regularity and uniformity in the streets of the city of London, and the mean avenues to many parts of it, are also circumstances that greatly lessen the grandeur of its appearance. Many of the churches, and other public buildings, are likewise built up in corners, in such a manner as might tempt foreigners to believe that they were designed to be concealed. The improvements of the city of London for some years past have however been very great; and the new streets, which are numerous, are in general more spacious, and built with greater regularity and elegance.

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

Though a variety of circumstances have hitherto been disadvantageous to the embellishment of the metropolis, it must at the same time be acknowledged, that a spirit of improvement seems universal among all degrees of people. The very elegant and necessary method of paving and enlightening the streets is felt in the most sensible manner by all ranks and degrees of people. The roads are continued for several miles around, upon the same model; and, exclusive of lamps regularly placed

on each side at short distances, are rendered more secure by watchmen stationed within call of each other. Nothing can appear more brilliant than those lights, when viewed at a distance, especially where the roads run across; and even the principal streets, such as Pall-Mall, New Bond-street, Oxford-street, &c. convey an idea of elegance and magnificence.

Among the list of improvements worthy notice, may be included the Six Clerks' Office, in Chancery-lane, and that very substantial building in the Old Bailey, which does honour to a people celebrated for their cleanliness and for their humanity. Here the unfortunate debtor will no longer be annoyed by the dreadful rattle of chains, or by the more horrid sounds issuing from the lips of those wretched beings who set defiance to all laws divine and human: and here also the offender, whose crime is not capital, may enjoy all the benefits of a free open air.

Windfor castle is the only fabric that deserves the name of a royal palace in England; and that chiefly through its beautiful and commanding situation, which, with the form of its construction, rendered it, before the introduction of artillery, impregnable. Hampton court was the favourite residence of king William: It is built in the Dutch taste, and has some good apartments, and, like Windsor, lies near the Thames; Both these palaces have some good pictures; but nothing equal to the magnificent collection made by Charles I. and dissipated in the time of the civil wars. The cartoons of Raphael, which for design and expression are reckoned the master-pieces of painting, have by his present majesty been removed from the gallery built for them at Hampton-court, to the Queen's palace, formerly Buckingham-house, in St. James's Park. The palace of St. James's is commodious, but has the air of a convent; and that of Kensington, which was purchased from the Finch family by king William, is remarkable only for its gardens. Other houses, though belonging to the king, are far from deserving the name of royal.

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

But those capital houses of the English nobility and gentry have an excellency distinct from what is to be met with in any other part of the globe, which is, that all of them are complete without and within, all the apartments and members being suitable to each other, both in construction and furniture, and all kept in the highest preservation. It often happens, that the house, however elegant and costly, is not the principal object of the seat, which consists in its hortulane and rural decorations, vistas, opening landscapes, temples, all of them the result of that enchanting art of imitating nature, and uniting beauty with magnificence.

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

Bristol is reckoned the second city in the British dominions, for trade, wealth, and the number of its inhabitants. It stands upon the north

and south sides of the river Avon, and the two parts of the city are connected by a stone bridge. The city is not well built; but it is supposed to contain 15,000 houses, and 95,000 inhabitants. Here is a cathedral and eighteen parish churches, besides seven or eight other places of worship. On the north side of a large square, called Queen's square, which is adorned with rows of trees, and an equestrian statue of William the Third, there is a custom-house, with a quay half a mile in length, said to be one of the most commodious in England, for shipping and landing of merchants' goods. The exchange, wherein the merchants and traders meet, is all of freestone, and is one of the best of its kind in Europe.

York is a city of great antiquity, pleasantly situated on the river Ouse; it is very populous, and surrounded with a good wall, through which are four gates, and five posterns. Here are seventeen parish churches, and a very noble cathedral, or minster, it being one of the finest Gothic buildings in England. It extends in length 325 feet, and in breadth 110 feet. The nave, which is the largest of any in the world, excepting that of St. Peter's church at Rome, is four feet and a half wider, and eleven feet higher, than that of St. Paul's cathedral at London. At the west end are two towers, connected and supported by an arch which forms the west entrance, and is reckoned the largest gothic arch in Europe. The windows are finely painted, and the front of the choir is adorned with statues of all the kings of England from William, the Norman to Henry VI. and here are thirty-two stalls, all of fine marble, with pillars, each consisting of one piece of alabaster. Here is also a very neat gothic chapter-house. Near the cathedral is the assembly-house, which is a noble structure, and which was designed by the late earl of Burlington. The city has a stone bridge of five arches over the river Ouse.

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

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

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

Chester is a large, populous, and wealthy city, with a noble bridge, that has a gate at each end, and twelve arches, over the Dee, which falls into the sea. It has eleven parishes, and nine well-built churches. The streets are generally even and spacious, and crossing one another in straight lines, meet in the centre. The walls were first erected by Edel-

teda, a Mercian lady, in the year 908; and join on the south side of the city to the castle, from whence there is a pleasant walk round the city upon the walls, except where it is intercepted by some of the towers over the gates; and from thence there is a prospect of Flintshire, and the mountains of Wales.

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

The city of Coventry is large and populous: it has a handsome town-house, and twelve noble gates. Here is also a spacious market-place, with a cross in the middle, 60 feet high, which is adorned with statues of several kings of England, as large as life.

Salisbury is a large, neat, and well-built city, situated in a valley, and watered by the Upper Avon on the west and south, and by the Bourne on the east. The streets are generally spacious, and built at right angles. The cathedral, which was finished in 1358, at the expense of above 26,000 pounds, is, for a Gothic building, the most elegant and regular in the kingdom. It is in the form of a lantern, with a beautiful spire of freestone in the middle, which is 410 feet high, being the tallest in England. The length of the church is 478 feet, the breadth is 76 feet, and the height of the vaulting 80 feet. The church has a cloister, which is 150 feet square, and of as fine workmanship as any in England. The chapter-house, which is an octagon, is 150 feet in circumference; and yet the roof bears all upon one small pillar in the centre, so much too weak in appearance for the support of such a prodigious weight, that the construction of this building is thought one of the greatest curiosities in England.

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

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

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

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] It is well known that commerce and manufactures have raised the English to be the first and most pow-

erful people in the world. Historical reviews, on this head, would be tedious. It is sufficient then to say, that it was not till the reign of Elizabeth that England began to feel her true weight in the scale of commerce. She planned some settlements in America, particularly Virginia, but left the expense attending them to be defrayed by her subjects; and indeed she was too parsimonious to carry her own notions of trade into execution. James I. entered upon great and beneficial schemes for the English trade. The East India company owes to him their success and existence; and British America saw her most flourishing colonies rise under him and his family. The spirit of commerce went hand in hand with that of liberty; and though the Stuarts were not friendly to the latter, yet, during the reigns of the princes of that family, the trade of the nation was greatly increased. It is not intended to follow commerce through all her fluctuations, but only to give a general representation of the commercial interest of the nation.

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

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

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

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

As the chief trade of Europe, so the chief maritime power, was at first in the hands of the Portuguese and Spaniards, who, by a compact to which the consent of other princes was not asked, had divided the newly-discovered countries between them: but the crown of Portugal having fallen to the king of Spain, or being seized by him, he was master of the shipping of the two nations, with which he kept all the coasts of Europe in alarm, till the armada he had raised at a vast expense for the conquest of England, was destroyed; which put a stop, and almost an end, to the naval power of the Spaniards.

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

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

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

When queen Elizabeth entered upon the government, the customs produced only 36,000*l.* a year; at the Restoration, they were let to farm for 400,000*l.* and produced considerably above double that sum before the Revolution. The people of London, before we had any plantations, and when our trade was inconsiderable, were computed at about 100,000; at the death of queen Elizabeth, they were increased to 150,000; and are now above six times that number. In those days we had not only naval stores, but ships, from our neighbours. Germany furnished us with all things made of metal, even to nails; wine, paper, linen; and a thousand other things, came from France. Portugal furnished us with sugars; all the produce of America was poured upon us from Spain; and the Venetians and Genoese retailed to us the commodities of the East Indies at their own price. In short, the legal interest of money was twelve per cent. and the common price of our land, ten or twelve years' purchase. We may add, that our manufactures were few, and those but indifferent; the number of English merchants very small; and our shipping much inferior to what lately belonged to the American colonies.

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

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

The American colonies are the objects which would naturally

first presented themselves, before the unhappy contest between them and the mother country, commenced; but as a separation has taken place, though a commercial treaty has lately been concluded, little can at present be said of the trade between Great Britain and America.

The principal islands belonging to the English in the West Indies, are Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Christopher's, Grenada, Antigua, St. Vincent, Dominica, Anguilla, Nevis, Montserrat, the Bermudas or Somers' Islands, and the Bahama or Lucayan Islands in the Atlantic ocean.

The English trade with their West India Islands consists chiefly in sugars, rum, cotton, logwood, cocoa, coffee, pimento, ginger, indigo, materials for dyers, mahogany and manchineel planks, drugs and preserves; for these, the exports from England are of naburghs, a coarse kind of linen, with which the West Indians now clothe their slaves; linen of all sorts, with broad-cloth and kerseys, for the planters, their overseers, and families; silks and stuffs for their ladies and household servants; hats; red caps for their slaves of both sexes; stockings and shoes of all sorts; gloves and millinery ware, and perukes; laces for linen, woollen, and silks; strong beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter, and cheese; iron ware, as saws, files, axes, hatchets, chissels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, gouges, planes, augers, hails; lead, powder, and shot; brass and copper wares; toys, coals, and pantiles; cabinet wares, snuffs, and in general whatever is raised or manufactured in Great Britain; also negroes from Africa, and all sorts of India goods.

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

This company exports to the East Indies all kinds of woollen manufactures, all sorts of hard-ware, lead, bullion, and quicksilver. Their exports consist of gold, diamonds, raw-silks, drugs, tea, pepper, ar-
ch, porcelain or China ware, salt-petre for home consumption; and

of wrought silks, mullins, calicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries.

To Turkey, England sends, in her own bottoms, woollen cloths; tin, lead, and iron, hardware, iron utensils, clocks, watches, verdigris, spices, cochineal, and logwood. She imports from thence raw-silks, carpets, skins, dying drugs, cotton, fruits, medicinal drugs, coffee, and some other articles. Formerly, the balance of this trade was about 500,000l. annually, in favour of England. The English trade was afterwards diminished through the practices of the French; but the Turkey trade at present is at a very low ebb with the French as well as the English.

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

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

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

The treaty of commerce between England and France has been esteemed so bold a measure, and its future operation so variously represented, that little can be hazarded on conjecture, and very little is known from experience.

England sends to Flanders, serges, flannels, tin, lead, sugars, and tobacco; and receives, in return, laces, linen, cambrics, and other articles of luxury, by which England loses upon the balance 250,000l. sterling yearly. To Germany England sends cloths and stuffs, tin, pewter, sugars, tobacco, and East India merchandise; and brings thence vast quantities of linen, thread, goat-skins, tinned plates, timbers for all uses, wines, and many other articles. Before the late war, the balance of this trade was thought to be 500,000l. annually, to the prejudice of England: but that sum is now greatly reduced, as most of the German princes find it their interest to clothe their armies in English manufactures. I have already mentioned the trade with Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Russia, which formerly was against England; but the balance was lately vastly diminished by the great improvement of her American colonies, in raising hemp, flax, making pot-ashes, iron works, and tallow, all which used to be furnished to her by the northern powers. The goods exported to Poland, chiefly by the way of Dantzick, are many, and the duties upon them low. Many articles are sent there, for which there is no longer any demand in other countries. Poland consumes large quantities of our woollen goods, hardware, lead, tin, salt, sea-coal, &c. and the export of manufactured tobacco is greater to Poland than to any other country. The balance of the trade may be estimated much in our favour.

To Holland, England sends an immense quantity of many for merchandise; such as all kinds of woollen goods, hides, corn, East India and Turkey commodities, tobacco, tar, sugar, rice, gum

and other American productions; and makes return in fine linen, lace, cambrics, thread, tapes, incl, madder, boards, drugs, whalebone, train-oil, toys, and many other things; and the balance is usually supposed to be much in favour of England.

The acquisitions which the English made upon the coast of Guinea, particularly their settlement at Senegal, opened new sources of commerce with Africa. The French, when in possession of Senegal, traded there for gold, slaves, hides, ostrich-feathers, bees'-wax, millet, ambergris, and, above all, for that useful commodity, gum Senegal, which was monopolised by them and the Dutch, and probably will again, as Senegal is now delivered up to France by the late treaty of peace. At present, England sends to the coast of Guinea sundry sorts of coarse woollen and linen, iron, pewter, brass, and hardware manufactures, lead, shot, swords, knives, fire-arms, gun-powder, and glass manufactures. And, besides its drawing no money out of the kingdom, it lately supplied the American colonies with negro slaves, amounting in number to above 100,000 annually. The other returns are in gold-dust, gum, dyeing and other drugs, red-wood, Guinea-grains, and ivory.

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

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

With regard to the general account of the foreign balance of England, the exports have been computed at seven millions sterling, and its imports at five, of which above one million is re-exported; so, that if this calculation be true, England gains annually three millions sterling in trade; but this is a point upon which the most experienced merchants, and ablest calculators, differ.

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

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

If the shipping of Europe be divided into twenty parts, then,
Great Britain &c. is computed to have 6
The United Provinces 6

Denmark, Sweden, and Russia
 The trading cities of Germany, and the Austrian Netherlands
 France
 Spain and Portugal
 Italy, and the rest of Europe

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

Cornwall and Devonshire supply tin and lead; and woollen manufactures are common to almost all the western counties. Dorsetshire makes cordage for the navy, feeds an incredible number of sheep, and has large lace-manufactures. Somersetshire, besides furnishing lead, copper, and lapis calaminaris, has large manufactures of bone-lace, stockings, and caps. Bristol is said by some to employ 2000 vessels of all sizes, coasters as well as ships employed in foreign voyages: it has many very important manufactures; its glass-bottle and drinking glass one alone occupying fifteen large houses: its brass-wire manufactures are also very considerable. Extensive manufactures of all kinds (glass, jewellery, clocks, watches, and cutlery, in particular) are carried on in London, and its neighbourhood; the gold and silver manufactures of London, through the encouragement given them by the court and the nobility, already equal, if they do not exceed, those of any country in Europe. Colchester is famous for its manufactures of baize and serges; and also Exeter for serges and long ells; and Norwich for its excellent stuffs, camlets, druggets, and stockings. Birmingham, though no corporation, is one of the largest and most populous towns in England, and carries on an amazing trade in excellent and ingenious hardware manufactures, particularly snuff and tobacco-boxes, buttons, shoe-buckles, etwees, and many other sorts of steel and brass wares; it is here, and in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, that the true genius of English art and industry is to be seen; for such are their excellent inventions for fabricating hardwares, that they can afford them for a fourth part of the price at which other nations can furnish the same of an inferior kind: the cheapness of coals and all necessaries, and the convenience of situation, no doubt, contribute greatly to this. One company of iron manufacturers in Shropshire use every day 500 tons of coals in their iron works. In Great Britain there is made every year from 50 to 60,000 tons of pig-iron, and from 20 to 30,000 tons of bar-iron.

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

felt-petre, which was first attempted in England by sir Walter Raleigh, but was dropt afterwards in favour of the East India company.

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

A SHORT VIEW of the STOCKS, or PUBLIC FUNDS in ENGLAND, with an HISTORICAL ACCOUNT of the EAST INDIA, the BANK, and the SOUTH SEA COMPANIES.

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

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

Bank-notes differ from all kinds of stock in these three particulars: 1. They are always of the same value. 2. They are paid off without being transferred; and, 3. They bear no interest; while stocks are a share in a company's fund, bought without any condition of having the principal returned. *India-bonds* indeed (by some persons, though erro-

neously, denominated stock) are to be excepted; they being made payable at six months' notice, either on the side of the company, or of the possessor.

By the word **Stock**, was originally meant a particular sum of money contributed to the establishing a fund to enable a company to carry on a certain trade, by means of which the person became a partner in that trade, and received a share in the profit made thereby, in proportion to the money employed. But this term has been extended farther, though improperly, to signify any sum of money which has been lent to the government, on condition of receiving a certain interest till the money is repaid, and which makes a part of the national debt. As the security both of the government and the public companies is esteemed preferable to that of any private person; as the stocks are negotiable, and may be sold at any time; and as the interest is always punctually paid when due; so they are thereby enabled to borrow money on a lower interest than what might be obtained from lending it to private persons, where there is often some danger of losing both principal and interest.

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

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

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

Besides these, there is another set of men, who, though of a higher rank, may properly enough come under the same denomination. These are the great moneyed men, who are dealers in stock, and contract with the government whenever any money is to be borrowed. These indeed, are not fictitious but real buyers and sellers of stock; but

they being made payable to the company, or of the

particular sum of money which the company to carry on business became a partner in that company, in proportion to the intended farther, though it has been lent to the interest till the money is paid. As the security is esteemed preferable to negotiable, and may be paid when they are on a lower interest than private persons, where the interest is not paid.

When a sum of money is raised for a particular sum, it needs no stock can be bought, and may be transferred, and there is frequently a sale of the shares, and what are more buyers than are not part with the stock, on the contrary, if the value of such stock is not paid, the patience of those who

buyers some idea of the value of the stock, called *Stock-jobbing*, is than this: the persons who are called *Stock-jobbers*, make a certain quantity of stock, and endeavour, according to the price of the stock, by spreading the word, to deliver stock; or to make it dearer, if they

are not in general possessed of the stock, they are to receive or pay only receive or pay the price of the stock, between the price of the stock and the price of the stock, it happens to be uncommon thing for the buying or selling of the stock. The price of the stock, one is for raising the price of the stock, though of a higher denomination. The price of the stock, and contracts for the stock, are borrowed. The price of the stock; but

raising false hopes, or creating groundless fears, by pretending to buy or sell large quantities of stock on a sudden, by using the forementioned means to raise or fall stocks one or two per cent. at pleasure.

However, the real value of one stock above another, on account of its being more profitable to the proprietors, or any thing that will really, or only in imagination, affect the credit of a company, or endanger the government by which that credit is secured, must naturally have a considerable effect on the stocks. Thus, with respect to the interest of the proprietors, a share in the stock of a trading company, which produces 5l. or 6l. per cent. per annum, must be more valuable than an annuity with government security, that produces no more than 3l. or 4l. per cent. per annum: and consequently such stock must sell at a higher price than such an annuity. Though it must be observed, that a higher price in the stock of a trading company, producing 5l. or 6l. per cent. per annum, will not fetch so much money at market as a government annuity producing the same sum, because the security of the company is not reckoned equal to that of the government, and the continuance of their paying so much per annum is more precarious, as their dividend is, or ought to be, always in proportion to the profits of their trade.

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

[EAST INDIA COMPANY.] We have already given some account of this company, as being the capital commercial object in England. The first idea of it was formed in queen Elizabeth's time; but it has since admitted of vast alterations. Its shares, or subscriptions, were originally only 50l. sterling, and its capital only 369,891. 5s. but the directors having a considerable dividend to make in 1676, it was agreed to join the profits to the capital; by which the shares were doubled, and consequently each became of 100l. value, and the capital 739,782l. In 1685, 168l. 5s. were added, the profits of the company to the capital, though the establishment of this company was vindicated in the clear manner by sir Josiah Child, and other able advocates, yet the popularity which the duke of York, afterwards James II. had for his private African trade, the losses it sustained in wars with the Dutch, and the revolutions which had happened in the affairs of Indostan, diminished the ardour of the people to support it; so that at the time of the revolution, when the war broke out with France, it was in a very deplorable situation. This was in a great measure owing to its having no parliamentary sanction; in consequence of which, its stock often sold for one half less than it was really worth: and it was resolved that a new company should be erected under the authority of parliament. The opposition given to all the public spirited measures of king William, by faction, rendered this proposal a matter of considerable difficulty; but at last, after many parliamentary inquiries, the new company prevailed; and the subscribers, upon advancing two millions to the public at 8 per cent. obtained an act of parliament in their favour. The old company, however, retained a great interest both in parliament and nation; and the act being found in some respects oppressive, so violent a struggle between the two companies arose, that, in the year 1702, they were united by an indenture tripartite. In the

year 1708, the yearly fund of 8 per cent. for two millions, was reduced to 5 per cent. by a loan of 1,200,000*l.* to the public, without an additional interest; for which consideration the company obtained a prolongation of its exclusive privileges; and a new charter was granted to them, under the title of "The United company of Merchants trading to the East Indies." Its exclusive right of trade was prolonged from time to time; and a farther sum was lent by the company in 1730; by which, though the company's privileges were extended for thirty-three years, yet the interest of their capital, which then amounted to 3,190,000*l.* was reduced to 3 per cent. and called the India 3 per cent. annuities.

These annuities are different from the trading stock of the company, the proprietors of which, instead of receiving a regular annuity, have, according to their different shares, a dividend of the profits arising from the company's trade; and that dividend rises or falls according to the circumstances of the company, either real, or, as is too often the case, pretended. A proprietor of stock to the amount of 500*l.* formerly had, but now of 1000*l.* whether man or woman, native or foreigner, has a right to be a manager, and to give a vote in the general council. Two thousand pounds is the qualification for a director. The directors are twenty-four in number, including the chairman, and deputy-chairman, who may be re-elected in turn, six a year, for four years successively. The chairman has a salary of 200*l.* a year, and each of the directors 150*l.* The meetings, or court of directors, are to be held at least once a week; but are commonly oftener, being summoned as occasion requires. Out of the body of directors are chosen several committees, who have the peculiar inspection of certain branches of the company's business; as the committee of correspondence, a committee of treasury, a house committee, a committee of warehouse, a committee of shipping, a committee of accounts, a committee of law-suits, and a committee to prevent the growth of private trade; who have under them a secretary, cashier, clerks, and warehouse-keepers.

The amazing territorial acquisitions of this company, computed to be 282,000 square miles, and containing thirty millions of people, must be necessarily attended with a proportionable increase of trade*; and this joined to the dissensions among its managers both at home and abroad, has of late greatly engaged the attention of the legislature. A restriction has occasionally been laid on their dividends for a certain time. From the report of the committee in 1773, appointed by parliament, on Indian affairs, it appears that the India company, from the year 1708 to the year 1756, for the space of forty-seven years and a half, divided the sum of 12,000,000*l.* or above 280,000*l.* per annum, which, on a capital of 3,190,000*l.* amounted to above eight and a half per cent. and that at the last-mentioned period it appeared, that, besides the above dividend, the capital stock of the company had been increased 180,000*l.* Considerable alterations were made in the affairs and constitution of the East India company, by an act passed in 1773, intitled, "An act for establishing certain rules and orders, for the future management of the affairs of the East India company, as well in India as in Europe." It

* According to lists laid before the House of Commons, the company employed 1000 ships, and 8170 men.

Between India and Europe, in carrying cargoes to and from	70 ships and 7130 men
in the country trade, and from China	6 packets -- 320 34 crabs -- 710

thereby enacted, that the court of directors should, in future, be elected for four years; six members annually, but none to hold their seats longer than four years. That no persons should vote at the election of the directors, who had not possessed their stock twelve months. That the stock of qualification should, instead of 500l. as it had formerly been, be 1000l. That the mayor's court of Calcutta should, for the future, be confined to small mercantile causes, to which only its jurisdiction extended before the territorial acquisition. That, in lieu of this court thus taken away, a new one be established, consisting of a chief justice and three puisne judges, and that these judges be appointed by the crown. That a superiority be given to the presidency of Bengal, over the other presidencies in India. That the right of nominating the governor and council of Bengal should be vested in the crown. The salaries of the judges were also fixed at 8000l. to the chief justice, and 6000l. a year to each of the other three. The appointments of the governor-general and council were fixed, the first at 25,000l. and the four others at 10,000l. each annually. This was certainly a very extraordinary act; and an immense power and influence were thereby added to the crown. But no proportional benefit has hitherto resulted to the company; on the contrary, the new-established court of justice has paid so little attention to the manners of the inhabitants of India, and to the usages of that country, as to occasion the most alarming discontents among the natives, and great dissatisfaction even among the company's own servants.

In the month of November, 1783, Mr. Fox, then secretary of state, brought forward a bill for new regulating the company, under the supposition of the incompetency of the directors, and the present insolvent state of the company.

The bill passed the commons; but, it seems, by the secret influence of the crown, an opposition was formed against it in the house of lords, as placing too dangerous a power in the hands of any men, and which would be sure to operate against the necessary power of the crown; and, after long debates, it was thrown out by a majority of nineteen peers. The consequence of this was the downfall of the ministry, and a general revolution of the cabinet.

By the new bill, which passed at the close of the sessions, 1784, three things were intended:

First, the establishing a power of controul in this kingdom, by which the executive government in India is to be connected with that over the rest of the empire.

Secondly, the regulating the conduct of the company's servants in India, in order to remedy the evils which have prevailed there.

Thirdly, the providing for the punishment of those persons who shall nevertheless continue in the practice of crimes which have brought disgrace upon the country.

Accordingly, six persons are to be nominated by the king as commissioners for the affairs of India, of whom one of the secretaries of state, and the chancellor of the exchequer for the time being, shall be two; and the president is to have the casting vote, if equally divided. New commissioners to be appointed at the pleasure of the crown. This board is to superintend, direct, and controul all acts, operations, and concerns, which in any wise relate to the civil and military government or revenues of the British territorial possessions in the East Indies. They are sworn to execute the several powers and trusts reposed in them, without favour or affection, prejudice or malice, to any person whatever. The

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court of directors of the company are to deliver to this board all minutes, orders, and resolutions of themselves, and of the courts of proprietors, and copies of all letters, orders, and instructions, proposed to be sent abroad, for their approbation or alteration; none to be sent until after such previous communication, on any pretence whatsoever. The directors are still to appoint the servants abroad; but the king has a power, by his secretary of state, to recall either of the governors or members of the councils, or any person holding any office under the company in their settlements, and make void their appointment. By this bill there is given to the governor and council of Bengal, a controul over the other presidencies, in all points which relate to any transactions with the country powers, to peace and war, or to the application of their forces or revenues; but the council of Bengal are subjected to the absolute direction of the company at home, and, in all cases except those of immediate danger and necessity, restrained from acting without orders received from hence.

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

By an act of parliament passed in the 8th and 9th years of William III. they were impowered to enlarge their capital stock to 2,200,171*l.* 10*s.* It was then also enacted, that Bank stock should be a personal and not a real estate, that no contract, either in word or writing, for buying or selling Bank stock, should be good in law, unless registered in the books of the Bank within seven days, and the stock transferred in fourteen days; and that it should be felony, without the benefit of clergy, to counterfeit the common seal of the Bank, or any sealed Bank-bill, or any Bank-note, or to alter or erase such bills or notes.

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

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

After this, the Bank reduced the interest of the 2,660,000*l.* lent to the government, from 5 to 4 per cent. and purchased several other annuities; which were afterwards redeemed by the government; and the national debt, due to the Bank, reduced to 1,600,000*l.* But in 1742, the company engaged to supply the government with 1,600,000*l.* at three per cent. which is now called the three per cent. annuities; so that the government was now indebted to the company 3,200,000*l.* the one half carrying 4, and the other 3 per cent.

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

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

The company of the Bank are obliged to keep cash sufficient to answer not only the common, but also any extraordinary demand that may be made upon them; and whatever money they have by them over and above the sum supposed necessary for these purposes, they employ in what may be called the trade of the company; that is to say, in discounting bills of exchange, in buying of gold and silver, and in government securities, &c. But when the bank entered into the abovementioned contract, as they did not keep unemployed a larger sum of money than what they deemed necessary to answer their ordinary and extraordinary demands, they could not conveniently take out of their current cash so large a sum as a million, with which they were obliged to furnish the government, without either lessening that sum they employed in discounting, buying gold and silver, &c. (which would have been very disadvantageous to them), or inventing some method that should answer all the purposes of keeping the million in cash. The method which they chose, and which fully answers their end, was as follows:

They opened a subscription, which they renew annually, for a million of money: wherein the subscribers advance 10 per cent. and enter into a contract to pay the remainder, or any part thereof, whenever the Bank shall call upon them, under the penalty of forfeiting the 10 per cent. so advanced; in consideration of which, the Bank pays the subscribers 4 per cent. interest for the money paid in, and one fourth per cent. for the whole sum they agree to furnish; and in case a call should be made upon them for the whole or any part thereof, the Bank farther agrees to pay them at the rate of 3 per cent. per annum for such sum, till they repay it; which they are under an obligation to do at the end of the year. By this means the Bank obtains all the purposes of keeping a million of money by them; and though the subscribers, if no call is made upon them (which is in general the case), receive six and a half per cent. for the money they advance, yet the company gains the sum

of 23,500*l.* per annum by the contract † as will appear by the following account:

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

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

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

We shall here give a brief account of some recent events of considerable importance in the history of this great company. In the beginning of the year 1797, a scarcity of specie prevailing, and an alarm having been excited by the reports of an invasion, the run became so great on several banks in the north, that they were unable to make their payments, and obliged to draw largely on the Bank, which having before advanced great sums to government for foreign loans and public services, found the drain of its specie so great, as to be compelled to represent the pressing necessity of the case to the minister. An order of the privy-council was in consequence issued, prohibiting the Bank from paying in specie, either notes or dividends; and a bill was brought into parliament to sanction this order, and extend the prohibition to the 24th of June following; after which, it was still further extended to one month after the next session of parliament; and still continues. To facilitate commercial intercourse, bank-notes of one and two pounds were issued, and Spanish dollars, stamped by the Bank, were made current at 4*s.* 9*d.* But this being above their real value, and the price of silver soon after falling, such numbers of counterfeit stamps appeared, that it was judged advisable to call them all in; which was done, the Bank advertising, the beginning of October, 1797, that they would give cash for them till the last day of that month, but no longer. After the first week, as it was apparent that a considerable loss must be sustained by the lower and middling classes, if all the counterfeit stamps were refused, the Bank, much to its honour, consented to receive all that were not base silver.

On the occasion of this prohibition of payment, a secret committee

* At four per cent. till the year 1773, when it was advanced to five.

† The Bank Company is supposed to have now twelve millions of circulating paper

of the House of Commons was appointed to examine the state of the outstanding demands on the Bank of England, and its funds for discharging the same. The statement of these demands and funds, to the 25th of February, 1797, was as follows:

Outstanding demands	£ 1,131,770,390
Funds for discharging those demands, not including the permanent debt due from government, of 11,686,800 <i>l.</i> which bears an interest of three per cent.	17,597,280

Surplus of effects of the Bank, exclusive of the above-mentioned permanent debt of 11,686,800 <i>l.</i>	3,826,890
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This company is under the direction of a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, who are annually elected by the general-court, in the same manner as in the East India company. Thirteen, or more, compose a court of directors for managing the affairs of the company. The officers and servants of this company are very numerous.

SOUTH-SEA COMPANY.] During the long war with France in the reign of queen Anne, the payment of the sailors of the royal navy being neglected, and they receiving tickets instead of money, were frequently obliged, by their necessities, to sell these tickets to avaricious men, at a discount of 4*l.* and sometimes 5*l.* per cent. By this and other means, the debts of the nation, unprovided for by parliament, and which amounted to 9,471,321*l.* fell into the hands of these usurers. On which Mr. Harley, at that time chancellor of the exchequer, and afterwards earl of Oxford, proposed a scheme to allow the proprietors of these debts and deficiencies 6*l.* per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them, in order to their carrying on a trade to the South-Sea; and they were accordingly incorporated under the title of "the Governor and Company of Merchants of Great Britain, trading to the South-Seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the fishery," &c.

Though this company seemed formed for the sake of commerce, it is certain that the ministry never thought seriously, during the course of the war, about making any settlement on the coast of South America, which was what flattered the expectations of the people; nor was it indeed ever carried into execution, or any trade ever undertaken by this company, except the Assiento, in pursuance of the treaty of Utrecht, for furnishing the Spaniards with Negroes, of which this company was deprived, upon receiving 100,000*l.* in lieu of all claims upon Spain, by a convention between the courts of Great Britain and Spain, soon after the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748.

Some other sums were lent to the government in the reign of queen Anne, at 6 per cent. In the third of George I. the interest of the whole was reduced to 5 per cent. and they advanced two millions more to the government at the same interest. By the statute of the 6th of George I. it was declared, that this company might redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in consideration of which, the company were empowered to augment their capital according to the sums they should discharge: and for enabling the company to raise such sums for purchasing annuities, exchanging for ready money new Exchequer bills, carrying on their trade, &c. the company might, by such means as they should think proper, raise such sums of money, as in a general court of

the company should be judged necessary. The company were also empowered to raise money on the contracts, bonds, or obligations under their common seal, on the credit of their public stock. But if the sub-governor, deputy-governor, or other members of the company, should purchase lands or revenues of the crown upon account of the corporation, or lend money by loan or anticipation on any branch of the revenue, other than such part only on which a credit of loan was granted by parliament, such sub-governor, or other member of the company, should forfeit triple the value so lent.

The fatal South-Sea scheme, transacted in the year 1720, was executed upon the last-mentioned statute. The company had at first set out with good success; and the value of their stock, for the first five years, had risen faster than that of any other company; and his majesty, after purchasing 10,000*l.* stock, had condescended to be their governor. Things were in this situation, when, taking advantage of the above statute, the South-Sea bubble was projected; the pretended design of which was, to raise a fund for carrying on a trade to the South-Sea, and purchasing annuities, &c. paid to the other companies; and proposals were printed and distributed, showing the advantages of the design, and inviting persons into it. The sum necessary for carrying it on, together with the profits that were to arise from it, were divided into a certain number of shares, or subscriptions, to be purchased by persons disposed to adventure therein. And the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends, and actually declared that every 100*l.* original stock would yield 50*l.* per annum: which occasioned so great a rise of their stock, that a share of 100*l.* was sold for upwards of 800*l.* This was in the month of July; but before the end of September, it fell to 150*l.* by which multitudes were ruined, and such a scene of distress occasioned, as is scarcely to be conceived. Most of the directors were severely fined, to the loss of nearly all their property; even those who had no share in the deception, because they ought to have opposed and prevented it.

By a statute of the 6th of George II. it was enacted, that, from and after the 24th of June, 1733, the capital stock of this company, which amounted to 14,631,103*l.* 8*s.* 1*d.* and the shares of the respective proprietors, should be divided into four equal parts; three fourths of which should be converted into a joint stock, attended with annuities after the rate of 4 per cent. until redemption by parliament, and should be called the New South-Sea annuities, and the other fourth part should remain in the company as a trading capital stock, attended with the residue of the annuities or funds payable at the exchequer to the company for their whole capital, till redemption; and attended with the same sums always allowed for the charge of management, with all effects, profits of trade, debts, privileges, and advantages belonging to the South-Sea company: that the accountant of the company should, twice every year, at Christmas and Midsummer, or within one month after, state an account of the company's affairs, which should be laid before the next general court, in order to their declaring a dividend; and all dividends should be made out of the clear profits, and should not exceed what the company might reasonably divide without incurring any further debt; provided that the company should not at any time divide more than 4 per cent. per annum until their debts were discharged; and the South-Sea company, and their trading stock, should, exclusively from the new joint stock of annuities, be liable to all debts and incumbrances of the company; and that the company should cause to be kept, within the

city of London, an office and books, in which all transfers of the new annuities should be entered, and signed by the party making such transfer, or his attorney; and the person to whom such transfer should be made, or his attorney, should underwrite his acceptance; and no other method of transferring the annuities should be good in law.

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

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

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

The interest of all the debts owing by the government was some years since reduced to 3 per cent. excepting only the annuities for the year 1758, the life annuities, and the Exchequer orders; but the South-Sea company still continues to divide 4 per cent. on their present capital stock; which they are enabled to do from the profits they make on the sums allowed to them for management of the annuities paid at their office, and from the interest of annuities which are not claimed by the proprietors.

As the prices of the different stocks are continually fluctuating above and below *par*; so when a person, who is not acquainted with transactions of that nature, reads in the papers the prices of stocks, where Bank stock is marked perhaps 127, India ditto, 134 a 134½, South-Sea ditto, 87½, &c. he is to understand that 100*l.* of those respective stocks fell at such a time for those several sums.

In comparing the prices of the different stocks one with another, it must be remembered, that the interest due on them from the time of the last payment is taken into the current price, and the seller never receives any separate consideration for it, except in the case of India bonds, where the interest due is calculated to the day of the sale, and paid by the purchaser, over and above the premium agreed for. But as the interest on the different stocks is paid at different times, this, if not rightly understood, would lead a person, not well acquainted with them, into considerable mistakes in his computation of their value; some always having a quarter's interest due on them more than others, which makes an appearance of a considerable difference in the price, when in reality there is none at all; thus, for instance, Old South-Sea annuities sell for 85½*l.* or 85*l.* 10*s.* while New South-Sea annuities fetch only 84*l.* or 84½*l.* 15*s.* though each of them produce the annual sum of 3 per cent.; but the old annuities have a quarter's interest more due on them than the new annuities, which amounts to 15*s.* the exact difference. There is, however, one or two causes that will always make one species of annuities sell somewhat lower than another, though of the same real value; one of which is, the annuities making but a small capital, and there not being, for that reason, so many people at all times ready to buy into it, as into others where the quantity is larger; because it is apprehended that whenever the government pays off the national

debt, they will begin with that particular species of annuity, the capital of which is the smallest.

While the annuities, and interest for money advanced, are regularly paid, and the principal insured by both prince and people (a security not to be had in other nations), foreigners will lend us their property, and all Europe be interested in our welfare; the paper of the companies will be converted into money and merchandise, and Great Britain can never want cash to carry her schemes into execution. In other nations, credit is founded on the word of the prince, if a monarchy; or that of the people, if a republic; but here it is established on the interest of both prince and people, which is the strongest security; for, however lovely and engaging honesty may be in other subjects, interest in money matters will always obtain confidence; because many people pay great regard to their interest, who have but little veneration for virtue.

CONSTITUTION AND LAWS.] Tacitus, in describing such a constitution as that of England, seems to think, that, however beautiful it may be in theory, it will be found impracticable in the execution. Experience has proved this to be a mistake; for, by contrivances unknown to antiquity, the English constitution has existed for above 500 years. It must at the same time be admitted, that it has received, during that time, many amendments, and some interruptions; but its principles are the same with those described by the above-mentioned historian, as belonging to the Germans, and the other northern ancestors of the English nation, and which are very improperly blended under the name of Gothic. On the first invasion of England by the Saxons, who came from Germany and the neighbouring countries, their laws and manners were pretty much the same as those mentioned by Tacitus. The people had a leader in time of war. The conquered lands, in proportion to the merits of his followers, and their abilities to serve him, were distributed among them; and the whole was considered as the common property, which they were to unite in defending against all invaders. Fresh adventurers coming over under separate leaders, the old inhabitants were driven into Wales; and those leaders at last assumed the titles of kings over the several districts they had conquered. This change of appellation made them more respectable among the Britons, and their neighbours the Scots and Picts, but did not increase their power, the operations of which continued to be confined to military affairs.

All civil matters were proposed in a general assembly of the chief officers and the people, till, by degrees, sheriffs and other civil officers were appointed. To Alfred we owe that master-piece of judicial policy, the subdivision of England into wapentakes and hundreds, and the subdivision of hundreds into tythings, names that still subsist in England; and overseers were chosen to direct them for the good of the whole. The sheriff was the judge of all civil and criminal matters within the county; and to him, after the introduction of Christianity, was added the bishop. In process of time, as business multiplied, itinerant and other judges were appointed; but, by the earliest records, it appears that all civil matters were decided by 12 or 16 men, living in the neighbourhood of the place where the dispute lay; and here we have the original of English juries. It is certain that they were in use among the earliest Saxon colonies, their institution being ascribed by bishop Nicholson to Woden himself, their great legislator and captain. Hence we find traces of juries in the laws of all those nations which adopted the feudal system, as in Germany, France, and Italy; who had

all of them, a tribunal composed of 12 good men and true, equals or peers of the party litigant. In England we find actual mention made of them so early as the laws of king Ethelred, and that not as a new invention.

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

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

In many respects, the first princes of the Norman line afterwards did all they could to efface from the minds of the people the remembrance of the Saxon constitution; but the attempt was to no purpose. The nobility, as well as the people, had their complaints against the crown; and, after much war and bloodshed, the famous charter of English liberties, so well known by the name of Magna Charta, was forcibly, in a manner, obtained from king John, and confirmed by his son Henry III. who succeeded to the crown in 1216. It does not appear that, till this reign, and after a great deal of blood had been spilt, the commons of England were represented in parliament, or the great council of the nation; so entirely had the barons engrossed to themselves the disposal of property.

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

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

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

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

That the reader may enter more clearly into the deduction of the following royal succession, by its being transferred from the house of Tudor to that of Stuart, it may be proper to inform him, that, on the death of queen Elizabeth without issue, it became necessary to recur to the other issue of her grandfather, Henry VII. by Elizabeth of York, his

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

queen; whose eldest daughter Margaret having married James IV. king of Scotland; king James the Sixth of Scotland, and of England the First, was the lineal descendant from that alliance. So that in his person, as clearly as in Henry VIII. centred all the claims of the different competitors, from the Norman invasion downward; he being indubitably the lineal heir of William I. And, what is still more remarkable, in his person also centred the right of the Saxon monarchs, which had been suspended from the Norman invasion till his accession. For Margaret, the sister of Edgar Atheling, the daughter of Edward the Outlaw, and grand-daughter of king Edmund Ironside, was the person in whom the hereditary right of the Saxon kings (supposing it not abolished by the Conquest) resided. She married Malcolm III. king of Scotland; and Henry II. by a descent from Matilda their daughter, is generally called the restorer of the Saxon line. But it must be remembered, that Malcolm, by his Saxon queen, had sons as well as daughters; and that the royal family of Scotland, from that time downward, were the offspring of Malcolm and Margaret. Of that royal family king James I. was the direct and lineal descendant; and, therefore united in his person every possible claim, by hereditary right, to the English as well as Scottish throne, being the heir both of Egbert and William the Norman.

At the Revolution in 1688, the convention of estates, or representative body of the nation, declared that the misconduct of king James II. amounted to an abdication of the government; and that the throne was thereby vacant.

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

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

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

Began to reign.

800 Egbert
838 Ethelwulf
857 Ethelbald
860 Ethelbert
866 Ethelred
871 Alfred the Great
901 Edward the Elder
925 Athelstan
941 Edmund
946 Edred
955 Edwy
959 Edgar
975 Edward the Martyr
978 Ethelred II.
1016 Edmund II. or Ironside

Saxon Princes

no king in being. For in a full assembly of the lords and commons, met in convention upon the supposition of this vacancy, both houses came to this resolution: "that king James II. having endeavoured to subvert the constitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between king and people; and, by the advice of Jesuits and other wicked persons, having violated the fundamental laws, and having withdrawn himself out of this kingdom, has abdicated the government; and that the throne is thereby vacant." Thus ended at once, by this sudden and unexpected revolution, the old line of succession, which, from the Norman invasion, had lasted above 600 years, and from the union of the Saxon heptarchy in king Egbert, almost 900.

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

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

And in this due medium consists the true constitutional notion of the right of succession to the imperial crown of these kingdoms. The extremes between which it steers, have been thought each of them to be destructive of those ends for which societies were formed and are kept on foot. Where the magistrate, upon every succession, is elected by the people, and may, by the express provision of the laws, be deposed (if not punished) by his subjects, this may sound like the perfection of liberty, and look well enough when delineated on paper; but in practice will be ever found extremely difficult and dangerous. On the other hand, divine indefeasible hereditary right, when coupled with the doctrine of unlimited passive obedience, is surely, of all constitutions the most thoroughly slavish and dreadful. But when such an hereditary

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tary right as our laws have created and vested in the royal stock, is closely interwoven with those liberties which are equally the inheritance of the subject, this union will form a constitution, in theory the most beautiful of any, in practice the most approved, and in all probability in duration the most permanent. This constitution it is the duty of every Briton to understand, to revere, and to defend.

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

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

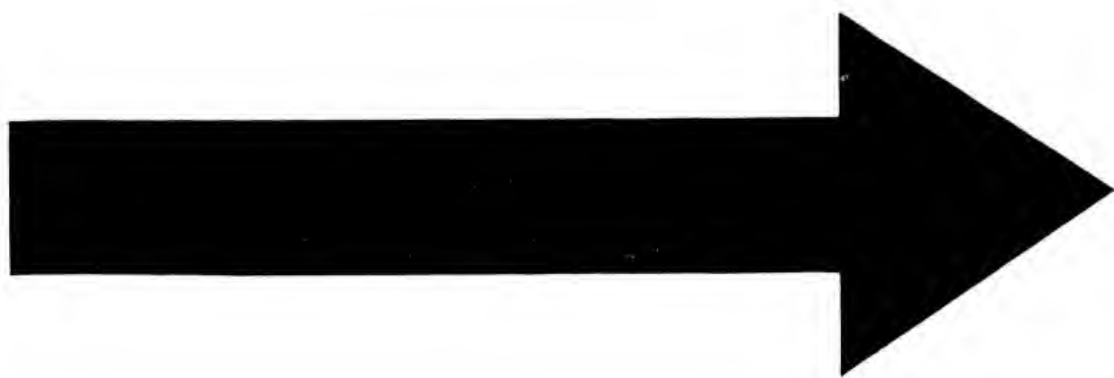
"Archbishop or bishop. Will you, to your power, cause law and justice, in mercy, to be executed in all your judgments?—King or queen. I will."

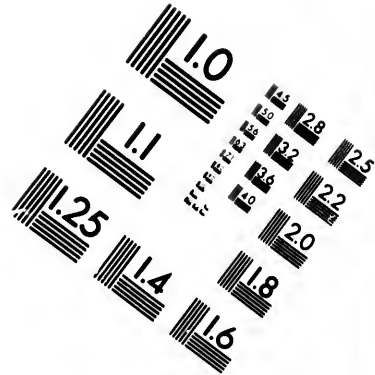
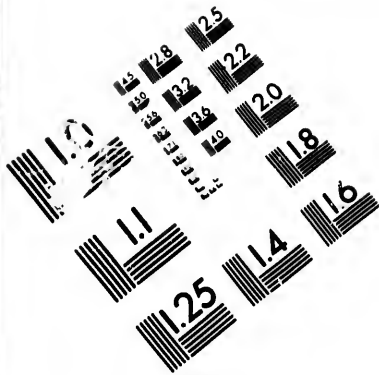
"Archbishop or bishop. Will you to the utmost of your power maintain the laws of God, the true profession of the gospel, and the protestant reformed religion established by the law? And will you preserve unto the bishops and clergy of this realm, and to the churches committed to their charge, all such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

"After this, the king or queen, laying his or her hand upon the holy gospels, shall say, The things which I have here before promised, I will perform and keep: so help me God. And then kifs the book."

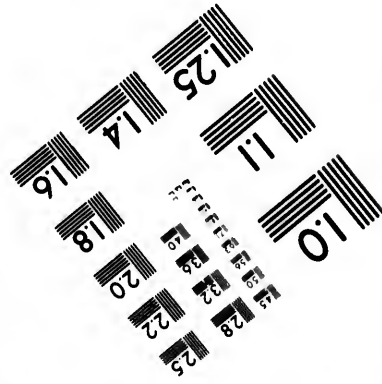
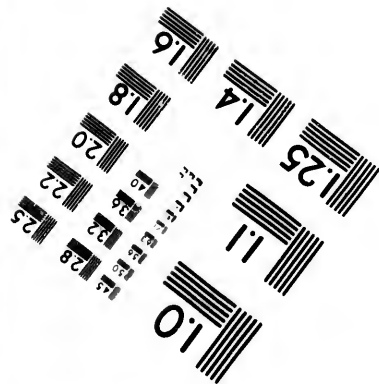
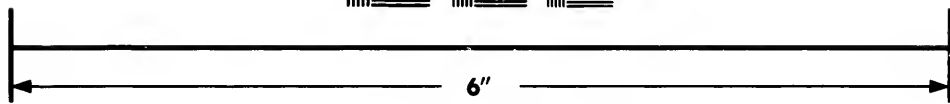
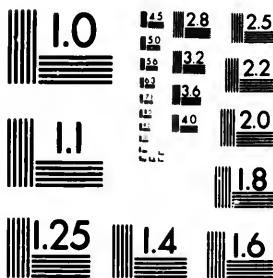
This is the form of the coronation oath, as it is now prescribed by our laws: and we may observe, that, in the king's part in this original contract, are expressed all the duties that a monarch can owe to his people; viz. to govern according to law; to execute judgment in mercy; and to maintain the established religion. With respect to the latter of these three branches, we may farther remark, that by the act of union, § Ann. c. 8, two preceding statutes are recited and confirmed; the one of the parliament of Scotland, the other of the parliament of England; which enact, the former, that every king at his accession shall take and subscribe an oath, to preserve the protestant religion, and presbyterian church government in Scotland: the latter, that, at his coronation, he shall take and subscribe a similar oath, to preserve the settlement of the church of England within England, Ireland, Wales, and Berwick, and the territories thereunto belonging.

The king of Great Britain, notwithstanding the limitations of the power of the crown, already mentioned, is the greatest monarch reigning over a free people. His person is sacred in the eye of the law, which makes it high treason so much as to imagine or intend his death; neither can he, in himself, be deemed guilty of any crime; the law taking no cognizance of his actions; but only in the persons of his ministers, if they infringe the laws of the land. As to his power, it is very great, though he has no right to extend his prerogative beyond the ancient limits or the boundaries prescribed by the constitution; he can make new laws, nor raise any new taxes, nor act in opposition to any of the laws; but he can make war or peace; send and receive ambassadors; make treaties of league and commerce; levy armies, and fit out fleets, for the defence of his kingdom, the annoyance of his enemies,





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or the suppression of rebellions; grant commissions to his officers, both by sea and land, or revoke them at pleasure; dispose of all magazines, castles, &c. summon the parliament to meet, and, when met, adjourn, prorogue, or dissolve it at pleasure; refuse his assent to any bill, though it has passed both houses; which, consequently, by such a refusal, has no more force than if it had never been moved; but this is a prerogative that the kings of England have very seldom ventured to exercise. He possesses the right of choosing his own council; of nominating all the great officers or state, of the household, and the church; and, in fine, is the fountain of honour, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived. Such is the dignity and power of a king of Great Britain.

[OF THE PARLIAMENT.] Parliaments, or general councils, in some shape, are, as has been before observed, of as high antiquity as the Saxon government in this island, and coeval with the kingdom itself. Blackstone, in his valuable Commentaries, says, "It is generally agreed, that in the main the constitution of parliament, as it now stands, was marked out so long ago as the 17th of king John, A. D. 1215, in the Great Charter granted by that prince; wherein he promises to summon all archbishops, bishops, abbots, lords, and greater barons, personally; and all other tenants in chief under the crown, by the sheriffs and bailiffs, to meet at a certain place, with forty days' notice, to assess aids and scutages when necessary. And this constitution hath subsisted, in fact, at least from the year 1266, 49 Henry III. there being still extant writs of that date to summon knights, citizens, and burghesses to parliament."

The parliament is assembled by the king's writs, and its sitting must not be intermitted above three years. Its constituent parts are, the king sitting there in his royal political capacity, and the three estates of the realm; the lords spiritual, the lords temporal (who sit together with the king in one house), and the commons, who sit by themselves in another. The king and these three estates, together, form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is said to be *caput, principium, et finis*. For, upon their coming together, the king meets them, either in person, or by representation; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament; and he also has alone the power of dissolving them.

It is highly necessary, for preserving the balance of the constitution, that the executive power should be a branch, though not the whole, of the legislature. The crown cannot begin of itself any alterations in the present established law; but it may approve or disapprove of the alterations suggested and consented to by the two houses. The legislative therefore cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it now has by law, without its own consent; since the law must perpetually stand as it now does, unless all the powers will agree to alter it. And herein indeed consists the true excellence of the English government, were it maintained in its purity, that all the parts of it form a mutual check upon each other. In the legislature, the people are a check upon the nobility, and the nobility a check upon the people, by the mutual privilege of rejecting what the other has resolved; while the king is a check upon both; which preserves the executive power from encroachments.

The lords spiritual consist of two archbishops and twenty-four bishops. The lords temporal consist of all the peers of the realm, the bishops not being in strictness held to be such, but merely lords of parlia-

ment. Some of the peers sit by descent, as do all ancient peers; some by creation, as do all the new-made ones; others, since the union with Scotland, by election, which is the case of the sixteen peers who represent the body of the Scots nobility. The number of peers is indefinite, and may be increased at will, by the power of the crown.

A body of nobility is more peculiarly necessary in our mixed and compounded constitution, in order to support the rights of both the crown and the people, by forming a barrier to withstand the encroachments of both. It creates and preserves that gradual scale of dignity, which proceeds from the peasant to the prince; rising like a pyramid from a broad foundation, and diminishing to a point as it rises. The nobility therefore are the pillars, which are reared from among the people, more immediately to support the throne; and if that falls, they must also be buried under its ruins. Accordingly, when in the last century the commons had determined to extirpate monarchy, they also voted the house of lords to be useless and dangerous.

The commons consist of all such men of any property in the kingdom, as have not seats in the house of lords; every one of whom has a voice in parliament, either personally, or by his representatives*. In a free state, every man who is supposed a free agent, ought to be, in some measure, his own governor; and therefore a branch at least of the legislative power should reside in the whole body of the people. In so large a state as ours, it is very wisely contrived that the people should do that by their representatives, which it is impracticable to perform in person, — representatives chosen by a number of minute and separate districts, wherein all the voters are, or easily may be, distinguished. The counties are therefore represented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands; the cities and boroughs are represented by citizens and burghesses, chosen by the mercantile part, or supposed trading interest of the nation †. The number of English representatives is 513, and of Scots, 45; in all, 558. And every member, though chosen by one particular district, when elected and returned, serves for the whole realm. For the end of his coming thither is not particular, but general: not merely to serve his constituents, but also the commonwealth, and to advise his majesty, as appears from the writ of summons.

These are the constituent parts of a parliament, the king, the lords spiritual and temporal, and the commons; parts, of which each is so necessary, that the consent of all three is required to make any new law that should bind the subject. Whatever is enacted for law by one, or

* This must be understood with some limitation. Those who are possessed of land estates, though to the value of only 40s per annum, have a right to vote for members of parliament; as have most of the members of corporations, boroughs, &c. But there are very large trading towns, and populous places, which send no members to parliament; and of those towns which do send members, great numbers of the inhabitants have no votes. Many thousand persons of great personal property have, therefore, no representatives. Indeed the inequality and defectiveness of the representation has been justly considered as one of the greatest imperfections in the English constitution. The duration of parliaments being extended to seven years, has also been viewed in the same light.

† Copy of the bribery oath, which is administered to every person before they poll: "I do swear (or, being one of the people called Quakers, do solemnly affirm) I have not received or had, by myself, or any person whatsoever in trust for me, or for my use and benefit, directly, or indirectly, any sum or sums of money, office, place, or employment, gift or reward, or any promise or security for any money, office, or employment, or gift, in order to give my vote at this election; and that I have not before been polled at this election. So help me God."

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by two only, of the three, is no statute; and to it no regard is due, unless in matters relating to their own privileges.

The power and jurisdiction of parliament, says sir Edward Coke, is so transcendent and absolute, that it cannot be confined, either for causes or persons, within any bounds. It hath sovereign and uncontrollable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, restraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding of laws, concerning matters of all possible denominations, ecclesiastical or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal; this being the place where that absolute despotic power, which must in all governments reside somewhere, is intrusted by the constitution of these kingdoms. All mischiefs and grievances, oppressions and remedies, that transcend the ordinary course of the laws, are within the reach of this extraordinary tribunal. It can regulate or new-model the succession to the crown; as was done in the reigns of Henry VIII. and William III. It can alter and establish the religion of the land; as was done in a variety of instances in the reigns of Henry VIII. and his three children, Edward VI. Mary, and Elizabeth. It can change and create afresh even the constitution of the kingdom, and of parliaments themselves; as was done by the act of union, and the several statutes for triennial and septennial elections. It can, in short, do every thing that is not naturally impossible; and therefore some have not scrupled to call its power, by a figure rather too bold, the *omnipotence of parliament*. But then its power, however great, was given to it in trust, and therefore ought to be employed according to the rules of justice, and for the promotion of the general welfare of the people. And it is a matter most essential to the liberties of the kingdom, that such members be delegated to this important trust, as are most eminent for their probity, their fortitude, and their knowledge; for it was a known apophthegm of the great lord treasurer Burleigh, "that England could never be ruined but by a parliament;" and, as sir Matthew Hale observes, this being the highest and greatest court, over which none other can have jurisdiction in the kingdom, if by any means a misgovernment should any way fall upon it, the subjects of this kingdom are left without all manner of legal remedy.

In order to prevent the mischiefs that might arise by placing this extensive authority in hands that are either incapable or else improper to manage it, it is provided, that no one shall sit or vote in either house of parliament, unless he be twenty-one years of age. To prevent innovations in religion and government, it is enacted, that no member shall vote or sit in either house, till he hath, in the presence of the house, taken the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration; and subscribed; and repeated the declaration against transubstantiation, the invocation of saints, and the sacrifice of the mass. To prevent dangers that may arise to the kingdom from foreign attachments, connections, or dependencies, it is enacted, that no alien, born out of the dominions of the crown of Great Britain, even though he be naturalized, shall be capable of being a member of either house of parliament.

Some of the most important privileges of the members of either house are, privilege of speech, of person, of their domestics, and their lands and goods. As to the first, privilege of speech, it is declared by the statute of 1 W. & M. st. 2, c. 2, as one of the liberties of the people, "that the freedom of speech, and debates, and proceedings in parliament, ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of parliament." And this freedom of speech is particularly demanded of the king in person, by the speaker of the house of commons, at the opening of every

new parliament. So are the other privileges, of person, servants, lands, and goods. This includes not only privilege from illegal violence, but also from legal arrests, and seizures by process from the courts of law. To assault by violence a member of either house, or his menial servants, is a high contempt of parliament, and there punished with the utmost severity. Neither can any member of either house be arrested and taken into custody, nor served with any process of the courts of law; nor can his menial servants be arrested; nor can any entry be made on his lands; nor can his goods be distrained or seized, without a breach of the privilege of parliament*.

The house of lords have a right to be attended, and consequently are, by the judges of the courts of king's bench and common pleas, and such of the barons of the exchequer as are of the degree of the coif, or have been made serjeants at law, as likewise by the masters of the court of chancery, for their advice in points of law, and for the greater dignity of their proceedings.

The speaker of the house of lords is generally the lord chancellor, or lord keeper of the great seal; which dignities are commonly vested in the same person.

Each peer has a right, by leave of the house, as being his own representative, when a vote contrary to his sentiments, to enter his dissent on the journals of the house, with the reasons of such dissent; which is usually styled his protest. Upon particular occasions, however, these protests have been so bold as to give offence to the majority of the house, and have therefore been expunged from their journals; but this has always been thought a violent measure, and not very consistent with the general right of protesting.

The house of commons may be properly styled the grand inquest of Great Britain, empowered to inquire into all national grievances, in order to see them redressed.

The peculiar laws and customs of the house of commons relate principally to the raising of taxes, and the elections of members to serve in parliament.

With regard to taxes—it is the ancient indisputable privilege and right of the house of commons, that all grants of subsidies, or parliamentary aids, do begin in their house, and are first bestowed by them; although their grants are not effectual to all intents and purposes, until they have the assent of the other two branches of the legislature. The general reason given for this exclusive privilege of the house of commons is, that the supplies are raised upon the body of the people, and therefore it is proper that they alone should have the right of taxing themselves.

The method of making laws is much the same in both houses. In each house, the act of the majority binds the whole; and this majority is declared by votes publicly and openly given; not, as at Venice, and many other senatorial assemblies, privately or by ballot. This latter method may be serviceable, to prevent intrigues and unconstitutional combinations; but it is impossible to be practised with us, at least in the house of commons, where every member's conduct is subject to the future censure of his constituents, and therefore should be openly submitted to their inspection.

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

To bring a bill into the house of commons, if the relief sought by it is of a private nature, it is first necessary to prefer a petition, which must be presented by a member, and usually sets forth the grievance desired to be remedied. This petition (when founded on facts that may be in their nature disputed) is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alleged, and accordingly report it to the house; and then (or, otherwise, upon the mere petition) leave is given to bring in the bill. In public matters, the bill is brought in upon motion made to the house without any petition. (In the house of lords, if the bill begins there, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges, to examine and report the state of the facts alleged, to see that all necessary parties consent, and to settle all points of technical propriety.) This is read a first time, and, at a convenient distance, a second time; and after each reading, the speaker opens to the house the substance of the bill, and puts the question whether it shall proceed any farther. The introduction of the bill may be originally opposed, as the bill itself may at either of the readings; and if the opposition succeeds, the bill must be dropt for that session; as it must also, if opposed with success in any of the subsequent stages.

After the second reading, it is committed, that is, referred to a committee, which is either selected by the house, in matters of small importance, or else, if the bill is a matter of great or national consequence, the house resolves itself into a committee of the whole house. A committee of the whole house is composed of every member; and, to form it, the speaker quits the chair (another member being appointed chairman), and may sit and debate as a private member. In these committees, the bill is debated, clause by clause, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and sometimes the bill is entirely new-modelled. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the house, with such amendments as the committee have made; and then the house reconsiders the whole bill again, and the question is repeatedly put upon every clause and amendment. When the house have agreed or disagreed to the amendments of the committee, and sometimes added new amendments of their own, the bill is then ordered to be engrossed, or written in a strong gross hand, on one or more long rolls of parchment sewed together. When this is finished, it is read a third time, and amendments are sometimes then made to it; and, if a new clause be added, it is done by tacking a separate piece of parchment on the bill, which is called a rider. The speaker then again opens the contents, and, holding it up in his hands, puts the question whether the bill shall pass. If this be agreed to, the title to it is then settled. After this it is carried to the lords, for their concurrence, by one of the members, who, attended by several more, presents it at the bar of the house of peers, and there delivers it to their speaker, who comes down from his woolfack to receive it. It there passes through the same forms as in the other house (except engrossing, which is already done), and, if rejected, no more notice is taken, but, it passes *sub silentio*, to prevent unbecoming altercations. But if it be agreed to, the lords send a message by two masters in chancery (or sometimes, in matters of high importance, by two of the judges) that they have agreed to the same: and the bill remains with the lords, if they have made no amendment to it. But if any amendments are made, such amendments are sent down with the bill, to receive the concurrence of the commons. If the commons disagree to the amendments, a conference usually follows between members deputed from each house, who, for the most part, settle and adjust

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the difference; but if both houses remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. If the commons agree to the amendments, the bill is sent back to the lords by one of the members, with a message to acquaint them there- with. The same forms are observed, *mutatis mutandis*, when the bill begins in the house of lords. But when an act of grace or pardon is passed, it is first signed by his majesty, and then read once only in each of the houses, without any new engrossing or amendment. And when both houses have done with any bill, it always is deposited in the house of peers, to wait the royal assent; except in the case of a money bill, which, after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is sent back to the house of commons. It may be necessary here to acquaint the reader, that, both in the houses and in their committees, the slightest expression, or most minute alteration, does not pass till the speaker or the chairman puts the question; which, in the house of commons, is answered by *aye* or *no*; and in the house of peers, by *content* or *not content*.

The giving the royal assent to bills is a matter of great form. When the king is to pass bills in person, he appears on his throne in the house of peers, in his royal robes, with the crown on his head, and attended by his great officers of state, and heralds. A seat on the right hand of the throne, where the princes of Scotland, when peers of England, formerly sat, is reserved for the prince of Wales. The other princes of the blood sit on the left hand of the king, and the chancellor, on a close bench re- moved a little backwards. The viscounts and temporal barons, or lords, face the throne, on benches, or wool-packs, covered with red cloth or baize. The bench of bishops runs along the house, to the bar on the right hand of the throne; as the dukes and earls do on the left. The chan- cellor and judges, on ordinary days, sit upon wool-packs, between the barons and the throne. The common opinion is, that the house sitting on wool is symbolical of wool being formerly the staple commodity of the kingdom. Many of the peers, on solemn occasions, appear in their parliamentary robes. None of the commons have any robes, excepting the speaker, who wears a long black silk gown; and when he appears before the king, it is trimmed with gold.

The royal assent may be given two ways; 1. In person. When the king sends for the house of commons to the house of peers, the speaker carries up the money-bill or bills in his hand; and, in delivering them, he addresses his majesty in a solemn speech, in which he seldom fails to extol the generosity and loyalty of the commons, and to tell his majesty how necessary it is to be frugal of the public money. It is upon this oc- casion, that the commons of Great Britain appear in their highest lustre. The titles of all bills that have passed both houses are read; and the king's answer is declared by the clerk of the parliament in Norman French. If the king consents to a public bill, the clerk usually declares, *le roy le veut*, "the king wills it so to be:" if to a private bill, *soit fais come il est desire*, "be it as it is desired." If the king refuses his assent, it is in the gentle language of *le roy s'aviserá*, "the king will advise upon it." When a money-bill is passed, it is carried up and presented to the king by the speaker of the house of commons, and the royal assent is thus expressed, *le roy remercie ses loyal subjects, accepte leur benevolence, et aussi le veut*, "the king thanks his loyal subjects, accepts their benevo- lence, and wills it so to be." In case of an act of grace, which origi- nally proceeds from the crown, and has the royal assent in the first stage of it, the clerk of the parliament thus pronounces the gratitude of the subject: *les prelates, seigneur, et commons, en ce present parliament assem- blés, au nom de tout vos autres subjects, remercient très humblement voire ma-*

jeſſi : et prient à Dieu vous donner en ſanté bonne vie et longue ; " the prelates, lords, and commons, In this preſent parliament aſſembled, in the name of all your other ſubjects, moſt humbly thank your majeſty, and pray to God to grant you in health and wealth long to live." 2. By the ſtatute 33 Henry VIII. c. 31, the king may give his aſſent by letters patent under his great ſeal, ſigned with his hand, and notified, in his abſence, to both houſes aſſembled together in the high houſe, by commiſſioners conſiſting of certain peers named in the letters. And, when the bill has received the royal aſſent in either of theſe ways, it is then, and not before, a ſtatute or act of parliament.

The ſtatute or act is placed among the records of the kingdom; there needing no formal promulgation to give it the force of a law, as was neceſſary by the civil law with regard to the emperor's edicts; becauſe every man in England is, in judgment of law, party to the making of an act of parliament, being preſent thereat by his repreſentatives. However, copies thereof are uſually printed at the king's preſs, for the information of the whole land.

From the above general view of the English conſtitution, it appears that no ſecurity for its permanency, which the wit of man can deviſe, is wanting. If it ſhould be objected, that parliaments may become ſo corrupted, as to give up or betray the liberties of the people, the anſwer is, that parliaments, as every other body politic, are ſuppoſed to watch over their political exiſtence, as a private perſon does over his natural life. If a parliament were to act in that manner, it muſt become *ſeſo de ſe*, an evil that no human proviſions can guard againſt. But there are great reſources of liberty in England; and though the conſtitution has been even overturned, and ſometimes dangerously wounded, yet its own innate powers have recovered and ſtill preſerve it. Monſ. Mezeray, the famous hiſtorian, ſaid to a countryman of ours, in the cloſe of the laſt century, " We had once in France the ſame happineſs and the ſame privileges which you have; *our laws were then made by repreſentatives of our own chooſing; therefore our money was not taken from us, but granted by us.* Our kings were then ſubject to the rules of law and reaſon: — now, alas! we are miſerable, and all is loſt. Think nothing, fir, too dear to maintain theſe precious advantages; if ever there ſhould be occaſion, venture your life and eſtate rather than baſely and fooliſhly ſubmit to that abject condition to which you ſee us reduced."

The king of England, beſides his high court of parliament, has ſubordinate officers and miniſters to aſſiſt him, and who are reſponsible for their advice and conduct. They are made by the king's nomination, without either patent or grant; and, on taking the neceſſary oaths, they become immediately privy-counſellors during the life of the king that chooſes them; but ſubject to removal at his pleaſure.

The duty of a privy-counſellor appears from the oath of office, which conſiſts of ſeven articles: 1. To adviſe the king according to the beſt of his cunning and diſcretion. 2. To adviſe for the king's honour, and good of the public, without partiality through affection, love, need, doubt, or dread. 3. To keep the king's counſel ſecret. 4. To avoid corruption. 5. To help and ſtrengthen the execution of what ſhall be there reſolved. 6. To withſtand all perſons who would attempt the contrary. And, laſtly, in general, 7. To obſerve, keep, and do all that a good and true counſellor ought to do to his ſovereign lord.

As no government can be ſo complete as to be provided with laws that may anſwer every unforeſeen emergency, the privy-council, in ſuch caſes, can ſupply the deficiency. It has been ever known, that, upon great

and urgent occasions, such as that of a famine, or the dread of one, they can supersede the operation of the law, if the parliament is not sitting; but this is considered as illegal, and an act of parliament must pass for the pardon and indemnification of those concerned.

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

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

This observation naturally leads me to mention the person who is so well known by the name of the *first minister*; a term unknown to the English constitution, though the office, in effect, is perhaps necessary. The constitution points out the lord high chancellor as minister; but the affairs of his own court give him sufficient employment. When the office of the first lord of the treasury is united with that of chancellor of the exchequer (offices which I am to explain hereafter) in the same person, he is considered as first minister. The truth is, his majesty may make any of his servants his first minister. But though it is no office, yet there is a responsibility annexed to the name and common repute, that renders it a post of difficulty and danger. I shall now take a short review of the nine great officers of the crown, who, by their posts, take place next to the princes of the royal family and the two primates.

The first is the lord high steward of England. This is an office very ancient, and formerly was hereditary, or at least for life; but now, and for centuries past, it is exercised only occasionally; that is, at a coronation, or to sit as judge on a peer or peers, when tried for a capital crime. In coronations, it is held for that day only, by some high nobleman. In cases of trials, it is exercised generally by the lord chancellor, or lord keeper, whose commission as high steward ends with the trial, by breaking his white rod, the badge of his office.

The lord high chancellor presides in the court of chancery, to moderate the severities of the law, in all cases where the property of the subject is concerned; and he is to determine according to the dictates of equity and reason. He is an officer of the greatest weight and power of any now subsisting in the kingdom, and is superior in precedency to every temporal lord. He is a privy-counsellor by his office; and, according to some, prolocutor of the house of lords by prescription. To him belongs the appointment of all justices of the peace; he is visitor, in right of the king, of all hospitals and colleges of the king's foundation, and patron of all the king's livings under the value of 20*l.* per annum in the king's books. He is the general guardian of all infants, idiots, and lunatics, and hath the superintendance of all charitable uses in the kingdom, over and above the extensive jurisdiction which he exercises in his judicial capacity in the court of chancery.

The post of lord high treasurer has of late been vested in a commission, consisting of five persons, who are called lords of the treasury;

but the first commissioner is supposed to possess the power of lord high treasurer. He has the management, and charge of all the revenues of the crown kept in the exchequer; as also the letting of the leases of all crown lands, and the gift of all places belonging to the customs in the several ports of the kingdom.

The lord president of the council was an officer formerly of great power, and hath precedence next after the lord chancellor and lord treasurer. His duty is to propose all the business transacted at the council-board, and to report to the king, when his majesty is not present, all its debates and proceedings. It is a place of great dignity as well as difficulty, on account of the vast number of American and West India conquests, captures, and the like affairs that come before the board; all which may be abridged, to the vast convenience of the subject, by an able president.

The office of lord privy seal consists in putting the king's seal to all charters, grants, and the like, which are signed by the king, in order to their passing the great seal; and he is responsible that he should apply the privy seal to any thing against the law of the land.

The office of lord great chamberlain of England is hereditary in the duke of Lancaster's family. He attends the king's person, on his coronation, to dress him; he has likewise charge of the house of lords during the sitting of parliament; and of sitting up Westminster-hall for coronations, trials of peers, or impeachments.

The office of lord high constable has been disused since the attainder and execution of Strafford duke of Buckingham, in the year 1641, but is occasionally revived for a coronation.

The duke of Norfolk is hereditary earl marshal of England. Before England became to commercial a country as it has been for a hundred years past, this office required great abilities, learning, and knowledge of the English history, for its discharge. In war time he was judge of army causes, and decided according to the principles of the civil law. If the cause did not admit of such a decision, it was left to a personal combat, which was attended with a vast variety of ceremonies; the arrangement of which, even to the smallest trifle, fell within the marshal's province. To this day he or his deputy regulates all points of precedence according to the archives kept in the herald's office, which is entirely within his jurisdiction. He directs all solemn processions, coronations, proclamations, general mournings, and the like.

The office of lord high admiral of England * is now likewise held by commission, and is equal in its importance to any of the preceding, especially since the increase of the British naval power. The English admiralty is a board of direction as well as execution, and is in its proceedings independent of the crown itself. All trials upon life and death, in maritime affairs, are appointed and held under a commission immediately issuing from that board; and the members must sign even the death-warrants for execution; but it may be easily conceived, that, as they are removable at pleasure, they do nothing that can clash with the prerogative of the crown, and conform themselves to the directions they receive from his majesty. The board of admiralty regulates the whole naval force of the realm, and names all its officers, or confirms them when named: so that its jurisdiction is very extensive. The commissioners appoint vice-admirals under them: but an appeal from them

* The 1st lord high admiral was George prince of Denmark, and husband to queen Anne.

lies to the high court of admiralty, which is of a civil nature. This court is held in London; and all its processes and proceedings run in the lord high admiral's name, or those of the commissioners, and not in that of the king. The judge of this court is commonly a doctor of the civil law, and its proceedings are according to the method of the civil law; but all criminal matters, relating to piracies, and other capital offences committed at sea, are tried and determined according to the laws of England, by witnesses and a jury, ever since the reign of Henry VIII. It now remains to treat of the courts of law in England.

COURTS OF LAW.] The court of chancery, which is the court of equity, is next in dignity to the high court of parliament, and is designed to relieve the subject against frauds, breaches of trust, and other oppressions, and to mitigate the rigour of the law. The lord high chancellor sits as sole judge, and, in his absence, the master of the rolls. The form of proceeding is by bills, answers, and decrees; the witnesses being examined in private: however, the decrees of this court are only binding to the persons of those concerned in them, for they do not affect their lands and goods; and, consequently, if a man refuses to comply with the terms, they can do nothing more than send him to the prison of the Fleet. This court is always open; and if a man be sent to prison, the lord chancellor, in any vacation, can, if he sees reason for it, grant a *habeas corpus*.

The clerk of the crown likewise belongs to this court, he, or his deputy, being obliged always to attend on the lord chancellor as often as he sits for the dispatch of business. Through his hands pass all writs for summoning the parliament or choosing of members, commissions of the peace, pardons, &c.

The King's Bench, so called either from the kings of England sometimes sitting there in person, or because all matters determinable by common law between the king and his subjects are here tried, except such affairs as properly belong to the court of Exchequer. This court is, likewise, a kind of check upon all the inferior courts, their judges, and justices of the peace. Here presides four judges, the first of whom is styled lord chief justice of England, to express the great extent of his jurisdiction over the kingdom: for this court can grant prohibitions in any cause depending either in spiritual or temporal courts; and the house of peers does often direct the lord chief justice to issue out his warrant for apprehending persons under suspicion of high crimes. The other three judges are called justices or judges of the King's Bench.

The court of Common Pleas takes cognizance of all pleas debatable, and civil actions depending between subject and subject; and in it, besides, all real actions, fines, and recoveries, are transacted, and prohibitions are likewise issued out of it, as well as from the King's Bench. The first judge of this court is styled lord chief justice of the Common Pleas, or common bench: beside whom there are likewise three other judges, or justices of this court. None but serjeants at law are allowed to plead here.

The court of Exchequer was instituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and has a power of judging both according to law and according to equity. In the proceedings according to law, the lord chief justice of the Exchequer, and three other barons, preside as judges. They are styled barons, because formerly none but barons of the realm were allowed to be judges in this court. Besides these, there is a fifth, called auditor baron, who has not a judicial capacity, but is only employed in administering the oath to sheriffs and other officers, and also to seve-

ral of the officers of the custom-house. But when this court proceeds according to equity, then the lord treasurer and the chancellor of the Exchequer preside, assisted by the other barons. All matters touching the king's treasury, revenue, customs, and fines, are here tried and determined. Besides the officers already mentioned, there belong to the Exchequer, the king's remembrancer, who takes and states all accounts of the revenue, customs, excise, parliamentary aids and subsidies, &c. except the accounts of the sheriffs and their officers; the lord treasurer's remembrancer, whose business it is to make out processes against sheriffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

For putting the laws effectually in execution, a high-sheriff is annually appointed for every county (except Westmorland and Middlesex) by the king*; whose office is both ministerial and judicial. He is to execute the king's mandate, and all writs directed to him out of the king's courts of justice; to impanel juries; to bring causes and malefactors to trial; to see sentence, both in civil and criminal affairs, executed; and at the assize to attend the judges, and guard them all the time they are in his county. He is likewise to decide the elections of knights of the shire, of coroners and verderers; to judge of the qualifications of voters, and to return such as he shall determine to be duly elected. It is also part of his office to collect all public fines, distresses, amerciaments, into the Exchequer, or where the king shall appoint, and to make such payments out of them as his majesty shall think proper.

As his office is judicial, he keeps a court, called the county court, which is held by the sheriff, or his under-sheriffs, to hear and determine all civil causes in the county, under forty shillings: this, however, is no court of record; but the court, formerly called the sheriff's tourn, was one; and the king's leet, through all the county: for in this court inquiry was made into all criminal offences against the common law, where by the statute law there was no restraint. This court, however, has been long since abolished. As the keeper of the king's peace, both by common law and special commission, he is the first man in the county, and superior in rank to any nobleman therein, during his office. He may command all the people of his county to attend him, which is called the *posse comitatus*, or power of the county.

Under the sheriff are various officers, as the under-sheriffs, clerks, stewards of courts, bailiffs (in London called serjeants), constables, gaolers, beaules, &c.

The next officer to the sheriff is the *justice of peace*, several of whom are commissioned for each county: and to them is intrusted the power of putting great part of the statute law in execution, in relation to the highways, the poor, vagrants, treasons, felonies, riots, the preservation of the game, &c. &c. and they examine and commit to prison all who break or disturb the peace, and disquiet the king's subjects. In order to punish the offenders, they meet every quarter at the county-town, when a jury of twelve men, called the grand inquest of the county, is summoned to appear. This jury, upon oath, is to inquire into the cases of all delinquents, and to present them by bill, guilty of the indictment, or not guilty: the justices commit the former to gaol for their trial at the next assizes, and the latter are acquitted. This is called the quarter-sessions for the county. The justice of peace ought to be

* Sheriffs were formerly chosen by the inhabitants of the several counties. In some counties the sheriffs were formerly hereditary, and still continue in the county of Westmorland. The city of London hath also the inheritance of the shrievalty of Middlesex vested in their body by charter.

a person of great good sense, sagacity, and integrity, and to be not without some knowledge of the law; for otherwise he may commit mistakes, or abuse his authority; for which, however, he is amenable to the court of King's Bench.

Each county contains two *coroners*, who are to inquire, by a jury of neighbours, how and by whom any person came by a violent death, and to enter it on record as a plea of the crown. Another branch of their office is to inquire concerning shipwreck, and certify whether wreck or not, and who is in possession of the goods. In his ministerial office, he is the sheriff's substitute.

The civil government of cities is a kind of small independent polity of itself; for every city hath, by charter from the king, a jurisdiction within itself, to judge in all matters civil and criminal; with this restraint only, that all civil causes may be removed from their courts to the higher courts at Westminster; and all offences that are capital are committed to the judge of the assize. The government of cities differs according to their different charters, immunities, and constitutions. They are constituted with a mayor, aldermen, and burgesses, who, together, make the corporation of the city, and hold a court of judicature, where the mayor presides as judge. Some cities are counties, and choose their own sheriffs; and all of them have a power of making bye-laws for their own government. Some have thought the government of cities, by mayor, aldermen, and common-council, is an epitome of the English government, by king, lords, and commons.

The government of incorporated boroughs is much after the same manner: in some there is a mayor, and in others two bailiffs; all which, during their mayoralty or magistracy, are justices of the peace within their liberties, and consequently esquires.

The cinque-ports are five havens, formerly esteemed most important ones, that lie on the east part of England towards France, as Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hastings, and Hythe, to which Winchelsea and Rye have been since added, with similar franchises in many respects. These cinque ports were endowed with particular privileges by our ancient kings, upon condition that they should provide a certain number of ships, at their own charge, to serve in the wars for forty days, as often as they were wanted.

For the better government of villages, the lords of the soil or manor (who were formerly called barons) have generally a power to hold courts, called courts-leet and courts-baron, where their tenants are obliged to attend and receive justice. The business of courts-leet is chiefly to prevent and punish nuisances; and at courts-baron the conveyances and alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled, and they are admitted to their estates on descent or purchase.

A *constable* is a very ancient and respectable officer of the peace, under the English constitution. Every hundred has a high-constable, and every parish in that hundred a constable; and they are to attend the high-constable upon proper occasions. They are assisted by another ancient officer called the tythingman, who formerly superintended the tenth part of an hundred, or ten free burghs, as they were called in the time of the Saxons, and each free burgh consisting of ten families. The business of constable is to keep the peace in all cases of quarrels and riots. He can imprison offenders till they are brought before a justice of peace; and it is his duty to execute, within his district, every warrant that is directed to him from that magistrate, or a bench of justices. The neglect of the old Saxon courts, both for the preservation of the peace, and

the more easy recovery of small debts, has been regretted by many eminent lawyers; and it has of late been found necessary to revive some of them, and to appoint others of a similar nature.

Besides these, there are courts of conscience in many parts of England, for the relief of the poor, in the recovery of payment of small debts, not exceeding forty shillings.

There neither is, nor ever was, any constitution provided with so many fences, as that of England is, for the security of personal liberty. Every man imprisoned has a right to bring a writ before a judge at Westminster-hall, called his Habeas Corpus. If that judge, after considering the cause of commitment, shall find that the offence is bailable, the party is immediately admitted to bail, till he is condemned or acquitted in a proper court of justice.

The rights of individuals are so attentively guarded, that the subject may, without the least danger, sue his sovereign, or those who act in his name, and under his authority: he may do this in open court, where the king may be cast, and be obliged to pay damages to his subject. The king cannot take away the liberty of the meanest individual, unless he has, by some illegal act of which he is accused or suspected upon oath, forfeited his right to liberty; or except when the state is in danger, and the representatives of the people think the public safety makes it necessary that he should have the power of confining persons on such a suspicion of guilt; such as the case of a rebellion within the kingdom, when the legislature has sometimes thought proper to pass a temporary suspension of the Habeas Corpus act. The king has a right to pardon; but neither he, nor the judges to whom he delegates his authority, can condemn a man as a criminal, except he be first found guilty by twelve men, who must be his peers or his equals. That the judges may not be influenced by the king or his ministers to misrepresent the case to the jury, they have their salaries for life, and not during the pleasure of their sovereign. Neither can the king take away or endanger the life of any subject, without trial; and the persons being first chargeable with a capital crime, as treason, murder, felony, or some other act injurious to society; nor can any subject be deprived of his liberty, for the highest crime, till some proof of his guilt be given upon oath before a magistrate; and he has then a right to insist upon his being brought, the first opportunity, to a fair trial, or to be restored to liberty on giving bail for his appearance. If a man is charged with a capital offence, he must not undergo the ignominy of being tried for his life till the evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of the town or county in which the fact is alleged to be committed, and not unless twelve of them agree to a bill of indictment against him. If they do this, he is to stand a second trial before twelve other men, whose opinion is definitive. By the 28 Edward III. it is enacted, that where either party is an alien born, the jury shall be one half aliens, and the other denizens, if required, for the more impartial trial; — a privilege indulged to strangers in no other country in the world, but which is as ancient with us as the time of king Ethelred*. In some cases, the man (who is always supposed innocent till there be sufficient proof of his guilt) is allowed a copy of the indictment, in order to assist him to make his defence. He is also furnished with the pannel, or list of the jury, who are his true and proper judges, that he may learn their characters, and discover whether they want abilities, or whether they

* Statuta de Menticolis Wallie.

are prejudiced against him. He may in open court peremptorily object to twenty of the number * ; and to as many more as he can give reason for their not being admitted as his judges ; till at last twelve unexceptionable men, the neighbours of the party accused, or living near the place where the supposed fact was committed, are approved of, who take the following oath, that they *shall well and truly try, and true deliverance make between the king and the prisoners, whom they shall have in charge, according to the evidence.* By challenging the jury, the prisoner prevents all possibility of bribery, or the influence of any superior power ; by their living near the place where the fact was committed, they are supposed to be men who knew the prisoner's course of life, and the credit of the evidence. These only are the judges from whose sentence the prisoner is to expect life or death, and upon their integrity and understanding, the lives of all that are brought in danger ultimately depend ; and from their judgment there lies no appeal : they are therefore to be all of one mind, and, after they have fully heard the evidence, are to be confined without meat, drink, or candle, till they are unanimous in acquitting or condemning the prisoner. Every jurymen is therefore vested with a solemn and awful trust : if he without evidence submits his opinion to that of any other of the jury, or yields in complaisance to the opinion of the judge ; if he neglects to examine with the utmost care ; if he questions the veracity of the witnesses, who may be of an infamous character ; or after the most impartial hearing, has the least doubt upon his mind, and yet joins in condemning the person accused, he will wound his own conscience, and bring upon himself the complicated guilt of perjury and murder. The freedom of Englishmen consists in its being out of the power of the judge on the bench to injure them, for declaring a man innocent whom he wishes to bring in guilty. Were not this the case, juries would be useless ; for far from being judges themselves, they would only be the tools of another, whose province is not to guide, but to give a sanction to their determination. Tyranny might triumph over the lives and liberties of the subject, and the judge on the bench be the minister of the prince's vengeance.

Trial by jury is so capital a privilege, and so great a security to the liberty of the subject, that it is much to be regretted, that persons of education and property are often too ready to evade serving the office. By this means juries frequently consist of ignorant and illiterate persons, who neither have knowledge enough to understand their rights and the privileges of Englishmen, nor spirit enough to maintain them. No man should be above serving so important an office, when regularly called upon ; and those who, from indolence or pride, decline discharging this duty to their country, seem hardly to deserve that security and liberty which the inhabitants of England derive from this invaluable institution. Juries have, indeed, always been considered as giving the most effectual check to tyranny : for in a nation like this, where a king can do nothing against law, they are a security that he shall never make the laws, by a bad administration, the instruments of cruelty and oppression. Were it not for juries, the advice given by father Paul, in his maxims of the republic at Venice, might take effect in its fullest latitude. " When the offence is committed by a nobleman against a subject," says he, " let all ways be tried to justify him ; and if that is not possible to be done, let him be chastised with greater noise

* The party may challenge thirty-five, in case of treason.

than damage. If it be a subject that has affronted a nobleman, let him be punished with the utmost severity, that the subjects may not get too great a custom of laying their hands on the patrician order." In short, was it not for juries, a corrupt nobleman might, whenever he pleased, act the tyrant, while the judge would have that power which is now denied to our kings. But by our happy constitution, which breathes nothing but liberty and equity, all imaginary indulgence is allowed to the meanest, as well as the greatest. When a prisoner is brought to take his trial, he is freed from all bonds; and, though the judges are supposed to be counsel for the prisoner, yet, as he may be incapable of vindicating his own cause, other counsel are allowed him; he may try the validity and legality of the indictment, and may set it aside, if it be contrary to law. Nothing is wanted to clear up the cause of innocence, and to prevent the sufferer from sinking under the power of corrupt judges, and the oppression of the great. The racks and tortures that are cruelly made use of in other parts of Europe, to make a man accuse himself, are here unknown, and none punished without conviction, but he who refuses to plead in his own defence.

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

The court being met, and the prisoner called to the bar, the clerk commands him to hold up his hand, then charges him with the crime of which he is accused, and asks him whether he is *guilty or not guilty*. If the prisoner answers *guilty*, his trial is at an end; but if he answers *not guilty*, the court proceeds on the trial, even though he may before have confessed the fact: for the law of England takes no notice of such confession; and unless the witnesses, who are upon oath, prove him guilty of the crime, the jury must acquit him; for they are directed to bring in their verdict according to the evidence given in court. If the prisoner refuses to plead, that is, if he will not say in court whether he is *guilty or not guilty*, he might, till lately, by the law of England, be pressed to death, with a load of iron upon his breast; but, at present, the same sentence is passed on him as in case of conviction.

When the witnesses have given in their evidence, and the prisoner has, by himself or his counsel, cross-examined them, the judge recites to the jury the substance of the evidence given against the prisoner, and bids them discharge their conscience; when, if the matter be very clear, they commonly give their verdict without going out of the court; and the foreman, for himself and the rest, declares the prisoner *guilty or not guilty*, as it may happen to be. But if any doubt arises among the jury, and the matter requires debate, they all withdraw into a room with a copy of the indictment, where they are locked up till they are unanimously agreed on the verdict; and if any one of the jury should die during this their confinement, the prisoner will be acquitted.

When the jury have agreed on the verdict, they inform the court by an officer who waits without, and the prisoner is again set to the bar to hear his verdict. This is unalterable, except in some doubtful cases, when the verdict is brought in *special*, and is therefore to be determined by the twelve judges of England.

If the prisoner be found guilty, he is then asked what reason he can give why sentence of death should not be passed upon him? There is now properly no benefit of clergy; it is changed to transportation, or burning in the hand. Upon a capital conviction, the sentence of death, after a summary account of the trial, is pronounced on the prisoner,

in these words: *The law is, That thou shalt return to the place from whence thou comest, and from thence be carried to the place of execution, where thou shalt be hanged by the neck till thy body be dead; and the Lord have mercy on thy soul:* whereupon the sheriff is charged with the execution.

All the prisoners found *not guilty* by the jury, are immediately acquitted and discharged, and in some cases obtain a copy of their indictment from the court, to proceed at law against their prosecutors.

OF PUNISHMENTS.] The law of England includes all capital crimes under *high treason, petty treason, and felony*. The first consists in plotting, conspiring, or rising up in arms against the sovereign, or in counterfeiting the coin. The traitor is punished by being drawn on a sledge to the place of execution, when, after being hanged upon a gallows for some minutes, the body is cut down alive, the heart taken out and exposed to public view, and the entrails burnt; the head is then cut off, and the body quartered; after which the head is usually fixed on some conspicuous place. All the criminal's lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loses her dowry, and his children both their estates and nobility.

But though coining of money is adjudged high treason, the criminal is only drawn upon a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged.

Though the sentence passed upon all traitors is the same, yet, with respect to persons of quality, the punishment is generally altered to beheading: a scaffold is erected for that purpose, on which the criminal placing his head upon a block, it is struck off with an axe*.

The punishment for misprison of high treason, that is, for neglecting or concealing it, is imprisonment for life, the forfeiture of all the offender's goods, and the profits arising from his lands.

Petty treason is when a child kills his father, a wife her husband, a clergyman his bishop, or a servant his master or mistress. This crime is punished by the offender's being drawn on a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged upon a gallows till dead. Women guilty both of this crime and of high treason, were sentenced to be burnt alive; but this law has been very lately repealed, and the punishment of burning abolished.

Felony includes murders, robberies, forging notes, bonds, deeds, &c. These are all punished by hanging: only murderers † are to be executed soon after sentence is passed, and then delivered to the surgeons in order to be publicly dissected. Persons guilty of robbery, when there were some alleviating circumstances, used sometimes to be transported for a term of years to his majesty's plantations; but since the American war, they are now generally condemned to hard labour in works of public utility, upon the river, &c. for a certain number of years; and lately some have been sent to Africa, Nova Scotia, and Botany Bay.

Other crimes punished by the laws are,

Man-slaughter, which is the unlawful killing of a person without premeditated malice, but with a present intent to kill; as when two who formerly meant no harm to each other, quarrel, and the one kills the other; in this case, the criminal is allowed the benefit of his clergy for the first time, and only burnt in the hand.

Chance-medley is the accidental killing of a man without an evil intent; for which the offender is also to be burnt in the hand, unless the offender

* This is not to be considered as a different punishment, but as a remission of all the parts of the sentence mentioned before, excepting the article of beheading.

† By a late act, murderers are to be executed within twenty-four hours after sentence is pronounced; but as Sunday is not reckoned a day, they are generally tried on a Saturday, so that they obtain a respite till Monday.

was doing an unlawful act; which last circumstance makes the punishment death.

Shop-lifting, and receiving goods knowing them to be stolen, are punished with hard labour for a number of years, or burning in the hand.

Perjury, or keeping disorderly houses, are punished with the pillory and imprisonment.

Petty-larceny, or small theft, under the value of twelve-pence, is punished by whipping.

Libelling, using false weights and measures, and forestalling the market, are commonly punished with standing on the pillory.

For striking, so as to draw blood, in a king's court, the criminal is punished with losing his right hand.

For striking in Westminster-hall while the courts of justice are sitting, the punishment is imprisonment for life, and forfeiture of all the offender's estate.

Drunkards, vagabonds, and loose, idle, disorderly persons, are punished by being set in the stocks, or by paying a fine.

[OF HUSBAND AND WIFE.] The first private relation of persons is that of marriage, which includes the reciprocal rights and duties of husband and wife; or, as most of our elder law books call them, *baron* and *feme*. The holiness of the matrimonial state is left entirely to the ecclesiastical law; the punishment, therefore, or annulling of incestuous or other unscriptural marriages, is the province of spiritual courts.

There are two kinds of divorce; the one total, the other partial. The total divorce must be for some of the canonical causes of impediment, and those existing before the marriage; as consanguinity, affinity, or corporal imbecility. The issue of such marriage, as it is thus entirely dissolved, are bastards.

The other kind of divorce is, when the marriage is just and lawful, and therefore the law is tender of dissolving it; but, for some supervenient cause, it becomes improper, or impossible, for the parties to live together; as in the case of intolerable ill temper, or adultery, in either of the parties. In this case the law allows alimony to the wife (except when, for adultery, the parliament grants a total divorce, as has happened frequently of late years), which is that allowance which is made to a woman for her support out of the husband's estate, being settled at the discretion of the ecclesiastical judge, on the consideration of all the circumstances of the case, and the rank and quality of the parties.

In the civil law, the husband and the wife are considered as two distinct persons; and may have separate estates, contracts, debts, and injuries; and therefore in our ecclesiastical courts a woman may sue, and be sued, without her husband.

But though our law in general considers man and wife as one person, yet there are some instances in which she is separately considered as inferior to him, and acting by his compulsion. And therefore all deeds, executed, and acts done, by her, during her coverture, are void; except it be a fine, or the like matter of record, in which case she must be solely and secretly examined, to learn if her act be voluntary. She cannot by will devise land to her husband, unless under special circumstances; for, at the time of making it, she is supposed to be under his coercion. And in some felonies, and other inferior crimes committed by her through constraint of her husband, the law excuses her; but this extends not to treason or murder.

The husband also (by the old, and likewise by the civil law) might

give his wife moderate correction. For, as he is to answer for her misbehaviour, the law thought it reasonable to intrust him with this power of restraining her by domestic chastisement, in the same moderation that a man is allowed to correct his servants or children; for whom the master or parent is also liable in some cases to answer. But in the politer reign of Charles II. this power of correction began to be doubted; and a wife may now have security of the peace against her husband; or, in return, a husband against his wife: yet the lower ranks of people, who were always fond of the old common law, still claim and exert their ancient privilege: and the courts of law will still permit a husband to restrain a wife of her liberty, in case of any gross misbehaviour.

These are the chief legal effects of marriage during the coverture; upon which we may observe, that even the disabilities which the wife lies under, are for the most part intended for her protection and benefit. So great a favourite is the female sex with the laws of England.

REVENUES OF THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT. } The king's ecclesiastical revenues consist in, 1. The custody of the temporalities of vacant bishoprics; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. Corodies and pensions, formerly arising from allowances of meat, drink, and clothing, due to the king from an abbey or monastery, and which he generally bestowed upon favourite servants; and his sending one of his chaplains to be maintained by the bishop, or to have a pension bestowed upon him till the bishop promoted him to a benefice. These corodies are due of common right, but now, I believe, difused. 3. Extra-parochial tithes. 4. The first-fruits and tenths of benefices. But such has been the bounty of the crown to the church, that these four branches now afford little or no revenue.

The king's ordinary temporal revenue consists in, 1. The demesne lands of the crown, which at present are contracted within a narrow compass. 2. The hereditary excise; being part of the consideration for the purchase of his feudal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption. 3. An annual sum issuing from the duty on wine licences; being the residue of the same consideration. 4. His forests. 5. His courts of justice, &c. In lieu of all which, 900,000*l.* per annum is now granted for the support of his civil list.

The extraordinary grants are usually called by the synonymous names of aids, subsidies, and supplies, and are granted, as has been before hinted, by the commons of Great Britain in parliament assembled; who, when they have voted a supply to his majesty, and settled the *quantum* of that supply, usually resolve themselves into what is called a committee of ways and means, to consider of the ways and means of raising the supply so vo. And in this committee, every member (though it is looked upon as the peculiar province of the chancellor of the exchequer) may propose such scheme of taxation as he thinks will be least detrimental to the public. The resolutions of this committee (when approved by a vote of the house) are in general esteemed to be (as it were) final and conclusive. For, though the supply cannot be actually raised upon the subject till directed by an act of the whole parliament, yet no moneyed man will scruple to advance to the government any quantity of ready cash, if the proposed terms be advantageous, on the credit of the bare vote of the house of commons, though no law be yet passed to establish it.

The annual taxes are, 1. The land-tax, or the ancient subsidy raised

upon a new assessment. 2. The malt-tax, being an annual excise on malt, mum, cider, and perry.

The perpetual taxes are, 1. The customs, or tonnage and poundage of all merchandize exported or imported. 2. The excise duty, or inland imposition, on a great variety of commodities. 3. The salt duty. 4. The post-office *, or duty for the carriage of letters. 5. The stamp duty on paper, parchment, &c. 6. The duty on houses and windows. 7. The duty on licences for hackney coaches and chairs. 8. The duty on offices and pensions; with a variety of new taxes in the sessions of 1784.

The clear net produce of these several branches of the revenue, old and new taxes, after all charges of collecting and management paid, is estimated to amount annually to about eleven millions sterling; with two millions and a quarter raised at an average, by the land and malt-tax. How these immense sums are appropriated, is next to be considered. And this is, first and principally, to the payment of the *interest* of the national debt.

In order to take a clear and comprehensive view of the nature of this NATIONAL DEBT, it must first be premised, that, after the Revolution, when our new connections with Europe introduced a new system of foreign politics, the expenses of the nation, not only in settling the new establishment, but in maintaining long wars, as principals on the continent, for the security of the Dutch barrier, reducing the French monarchy, settling the Spanish succession, supporting the house of Austria, maintaining the liberties of the Germanic body, and other purposes, increased to an unusual degree; insomuch that it was not thought advisable to raise all the expenses of any one year by taxes to be levied within that year, lest the unaccustomed weight of them should create murmurs among the people. It was therefore the bad policy of the times, to anticipate the revenues of their posterity, by borrowing immense sums for the current service of the state, and to lay no more taxes upon the subject than would suffice to pay the annual interest of the sums so borrowed: by this means converting the principal debt into a new species of property, transferable from one man to another, at any time and in any quantity: a system which seems to have had its original in the state of Florence, A. D. 1344; which government then owed about 60,000l. sterling; and being unable to pay it, formed the principal into an aggregate sum, called, metaphorically, a mount or bank; the shares whereof were transferable like our stocks. This laid the foundation of what is called the NATIONAL DEBT: for a few long annuities, created in the reign of Charles II. will hardly deserve that name. And the example then set has been so closely followed during the long wars in the reign of queen Anne, and since, that the capital of the funded debt, at Midsummer 1775, was 129,860,018l. and the annual charge of it amounted to 4,219,254l. 7s. The ruinous American war commencing at this time, and the execrable policy continuing of alienating the sinking fund, with the extravagancies in every department of govern-

* From the year 1644 to 1744, the annual amount of this revenue gradually increased from 5000l. to 198,226l. but it should be observed, that the gross amount of both inland and foreign offices was that year 235,492l. In 1764, the gross amount of the revenue of the post-office for that year was 432,248l. which, from the several acts since passed for increasing the duty according to the distance, and abridging the franking, must be considerably augmented.

ment, and the manner of borrowing the money for supplies, have considerably increased it *.

The following was the state of the national debt in the year 1783, extracted from the eleventh report of the commissioners of the public accounts :

£.	s.	d.		£.	s.	d.
211,303,254	15	4½	Funded debt			
			Interest thereon	7,951,390	1	0
18,856,541	11	4½	Unfunded, 1st of October, 1783.			
			Fifteen millions of this bear interest now.			
			Interest thereon	612,742	0	0
<hr/>						
230,219,706	6	9¼				

Charges at the Bank for managing the business	134,291	13	1
Fees at the auditor's office of interest	19,874	2	8
Some other fees of office	696	12	4
<hr/>			
	8,719,534	9	1

Since this report, the funded debt, in the beginning of the year 1794, had increased to

232,280,349 0 0

up to the 26th of April 1797

90,500,000 0 0

Which, as the greater part has been borrowed at the rate of at least five per cent. and some of it at more, and principally funded in the three per cents. we shall find that the whole of the funded debt, exclusive of a considerable sum unfunded, cannot be estimated at less than about

400,000,000 0 0

The revenue may be estimated from the following statement, made by Mr. Pitt to the committee of supply, on the 26th of April 1797.

Total amount of the old revenue, upon an average of four years	13,919,000	0	0
New taxes imposed in 1793	245,000	0	0
in 1794	904,000	0	0
in 1795	1,332,000	0	0
in 1796	1,400,000	0	0
The same day the house voted supplies, the taxes to provide for which, amounted to	1,200,000	0	0
<hr/>			
	19,000,000	0	0

To provide for the service of the year 1798, a bill is now depending in parliament, for tripling, and, in some instances, quadrupling, the assessed taxes, so as to raise the sum of seven millions within the year;

* In the course of the late war, from 1776 to 1782, 46,550,000l. was added to the per cents. and 29,750,000l. to the 4 per cents. making together a capital of 176,000,000l. for which the money advanced was only 48 millions.

besides which a loan of twelve millions is to be raised, and three millions borrowed of the Bank, to be hereafter provided for.

It is indisputably certain, that the present magnitude of our national incumbrances very far exceeds all calculations of commercial benefit, and is productive of the greatest inconveniences. For, first, the enormous taxes that are raised upon the necessaries of life, for the payment of the interest of this debt, are a hurt both to trade and manufactures, by raising the price as well of the artificer's subsistence, as of the raw material, and of course, in a much greater proportion, the price of the commodity itself. Secondly, if part of this debt be owing to foreigners, either they draw out of the kingdom annually a considerable quantity of specie for the interest; or else it is made an argument to grant them unreasonable privileges, in order to induce them to reside here. Thirdly, if the whole be owing to subjects only, it is then charging the active and industrious subject, who pays his share of the taxes, to maintain the indolent and idle creditor who receives them. Lastly, and principally, it weakens the internal strength of a state, by anticipating those resources which should be reserved to defend it in case of necessity. The interest we now pay for our debts would be nearly sufficient to maintain any war, that any national motives could require. And if our ancestors in king William's time had annually paid, so long as their exigencies lasted, even a less sum than we now annually raise upon their account, they would, in time of war, have borne no greater burdens than they have bequeathed to and settled upon their posterity in the time of peace, and might have been eased the instant the exigence was over.

The produce of the several taxes before mentioned were originally separate and distinct funds; being securities for the sums advanced on each several tax, and for them only. But at last it became necessary, in order to avoid confusion, as they multiplied yearly, to reduce the number of these separate funds, by uniting and blending them together, superadding the faith of parliament for the general security of the whole. So that there are now only three capital funds of any account: the *aggregate fund*, the whole produce of which hath been for some years about 2,600,000*l.* per annum; the *general fund*, so called from such union and addition; which for some years have amounted to rather more than a million per annum; and the *South Sea fund*, being the produce of the taxes appropriated to pay the interest of such part of the national debt as was advanced by that company and its annuitants, the produce of which lately hath been about half a million per annum: whereby the separate funds, which were thus united, are become mutual securities for each other; and the whole produce of them, thus aggregated, liable to pay such interest or annuities as were formerly charged upon each distinct fund: the faith of the legislature being moreover engaged to supply any casual deficiencies.

The customs, excises, and other taxes, which are to support these funds, depending on contingencies, upon exports, imports, and consumption, must necessarily be of a very uncertain amount: but they have always been considerably more than sufficient to answer the charge upon them. The surpluses therefore of the three great national funds, the aggregate, general, and South-Sea funds, over and above the interest and annuities charged upon them, are directed by statute 3 Geo. I. c. 7. to be carried together, and to attend the disposition of parliament; and are usually denominated the *sinking fund*, because originally destined to be held sacred, and to be applied inviolably to the redemption of the national

debt. To this have been since added many other entire duties, granted in subsequent years; and the annual interest of the sums borrowed on their respective credits, is charged on, and payable out of the produce of the sinking fund. However, the net surplusses and savings, after all deductions paid, amount annually to a very considerable sum. For, as the interest on the national debt has been at several times reduced (by the consent of the proprietors, who had their option either to lower their interest, or be paid their principal), the savings from the appropriated revenues must needs be extremely large. This sinking fund is the last resort of the nation; its only domestic resource, on which must chiefly depend all the hopes we can entertain of ever discharging or moderating our incumbrances. And therefore the prudent application of the large sums, now arising from this fund, is a point of the utmost importance, and well worthy the serious attention of parliament.

Between the years 1727 and 1732, several encroachments were made upon the sinking fund; and in the year 1733, half a million was taken from it by sir Robert Walpole, under pretence of easing the landed interest. The practice of alienating the sinking fund being thus begun, hath continued of course; and in 1736, it was anticipated and mortgaged; and every subsequent administration hath broken in upon it, thus converting this excellent expedient for saving the kingdom, into a supply for extravagance, and a support of corruption and despotism.

In some years, the sinking fund hath produced from two or three millions *per annum*, and if only 1,212,000*l.* of it had been inviolably applied to the redemption of the public debts, from the year 1733, instead of only eight millions and a half paid off by it, as is the case at present, one hundred and sixty millions would have been paid, and the nation have been extricated and saved. Different schemes have been formed for paying the public debts: but no method can be so expeditious and effectual as an unalienable sinking fund; as this money is improved at *compound interest*, and therefore in the most perfect manner; but money procured by a loan, bears only simple interest: "A nation therefore, whenever it applies the income of such a fund to current expenses rather than the redemption of its debts, chooses to lose the benefit of compound interest in order to avoid paying simple interest, and the loss in this case is equal to the difference between the increase of money at compound and simple interest *."

* Dr. Price's calculation plainly shows what this difference is: "One penny put out at our Saviour's birth at 5 per cent. compound interest, would, in the year 1781, have increased to a greater sum than would be contained in 200,000,000 of earths, all solid gold; but if put out to simple interest, it at the same time would have amounted to no more than seven shillings and six-pence. All governments that alienate funds destined for reimbursements, choose to improve money in the *last* rather than the *first* of these ways." He adds, "A million borrowed annually for twenty years, will pay off in this time, 55 millions 3 per cent. stock; if discharged at 6*l.* in money for every 100*l.* stock; and in 40 years more, without any farther aid from loans, 333 millions (that is, 388 millions in all) would be paid off.

"The addition of nineteen years to this period would pay off 1000 millions.

"A surplus of half a million per annum, made up to a million by borrowing half a million every year for twenty years, would discharge the same sums in the same periods.

"In short, so necessary is it at present to expedite, by every possible means, the redemption of our debts, that, let the surplus which can be obtained for a sinking fund be what it will, an addition to it by annual loans will be proper, in order to give it greater efficiency and a better chance for saving the kingdom. — The increase of taxes which such a measure must occasion, would be so inconsiderable and so gradual, as to be scarcely perceptible; and at the same time, it would manifest such a determined resolution in our rulers to reduce our debts, as might have the happiest influence on public credit."

Before any part of the *aggregate fund* (the surplusses whereof are one of the chief ingredients that form the sinking fund) can be applied to diminish the principal of the public debt, it stands mortgaged by parliament to raise an annual sum for the maintenance of the king's household and the civil list. For this purpose, in the late reigns, the produce of certain branches of the excise and customs, the post-office, the duty on wine-licences, the revenues of the remaining crown-lands, the profit arising from courts of justice (which articles include all the hereditary revenue of the crown), and also a clear annuity of 120,000*l.* in money, were settled on the king for life, for the support of his majesty's household, and the honour and dignity of the crown. And as the amount of these several branches were uncertain (though in the last reign they were computed to have sometimes raised almost a million), if they did not rise annually to 800,000*l.* the parliament engaged to make up the deficiency. But his present majesty having, soon after his accession, spontaneously signified his consent, that his own hereditary revenues might be so disposed of, as might best conduce to the utility and satisfaction of the public; and having accepted the limited sum of 800,000*l.* per annum, for the support of his civil list (and that also charged with three life annuities to the princess of Wales, the duke of Cumberland, and princess Amelia, to the amount of 77,000*l.*), the said hereditary and other revenues are now carried into and made part of the aggregate fund; and the aggregate fund is charged with the payment of the whole annuity to the crown, besides annual payments to the dukes of Gloucester and Cumberland, and the representatives of Arthur Onslow, esq. and the earl of Chatham. Hereby the revenues themselves, being put under the same care and management as the other branches of the public patrimony, will produce more, and be better collected, than heretofore. The civil list, thus liquidated, together with the millions interest of the national debt, and the sums produced from the sinking fund, besides the uncertain sums arising from the annual taxes on land and malt, and others lately imposed, make the clear produce of the taxes, exclusive of the charges of collecting, which are raised yearly on the people of this country, amount to upwards of fourteen millions sterling. The amount of the capitals of the respective public funds, as they stood in the year 1794, may be seen in the following page.

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FUNDS.	Capital of each stock.	Annual Interest.	Funds purchased by the commissioners from August 1785 to January 1794.	Transfer days at the Bank, &c.	Days on which the dividend is payable.	Unfunded debt to January 1794.
5 per cent. navy annuities*	£. s. d. 19,819,323 14 5	£. s. d. 990,996 3 8	6	Mon. Wed. & Fri.	Jan. 5	Erchequer Bills 3,960,000 0 0
3 per cent. consol.	14,649,696 5 17½	3,739,490 17 9	5,378,055 10 3	Tu. Wed. Th. & Fr.	Jan. 5, 18, 25, 30	Navy and Victual-ling Bills 1,600,000 0 0
3 per cent. 1726	1,000,000 0 0	39,000 0 0		Tues. & Thurs.	Feb. 3, 24	
South Sea Stock	3,662,784 8 6	128,107 9 1		Mon. Wed. & Fri.	April 3, 25	
5 per cent. new S.						
Sea annuities.	8,494,830 2 10	254,844 18 1	4,248 0	Tues. Thurs. & Sat.	July 3	Ordinance Bills 95,000 0 0
3 per cent. 1751	1,919,000 0 0	57,583 0 0	459,300	Tues. & Thurs.	June 4, 11, 24, 29	
India Stock †	6,000,000 0 0	60,000 0 0		Tues. Thurs. & Sat.	July 5	
Exchequer annu.		80,224 18 0			Aug. 1, 12, 27	
Life & Ten. ditto		110,158 12 7			Sept. 4, 11, 21, 29	
Bank Stock	11,686,800 0 0	818,076 0 0		Tues. Thurs. & Fri.	Nov. 3, 5, 9, 30	
4 per cent. consol.	35,500,000 0 0	1,420,000 0 0		Tues. Thurs. & Sat.	Dec. 21, 25, 26, 27, 28	
3 per cent. red. 41,540,073 16 4		1,246,202 4 5	3,575,100	Tu. Wed. Thu. & Fri.	Nov. 3, 5, 9, 30	
3 per cent. old S.					Mon. Wed. & Fri.	
Sea annuities †	11,907,470 2 7	357,224 2 0	194,650	Mon. Wed. & Fri.	Jan. 1, 19	
Long annuities †		767,518 11 8		Tues. Wed. & Sat.	Feb. M. T. W. Th. F. S.	
Annuities 1778 and 1779 †		418,333 0 11		Mon. Wed. & Fri.	Oct. 5	
	266,180,378 9 94	14,983,549 16	5,128,974,695,886,238 3			17,895,000 0 0
						Transfers from 17 to 1

* This stock comprised the whole of the unfunded debt in 1784, which consisted of certain navy, victualling, and transport bills, bearing interest at 4 per cent. as well as ordnance and other bills at non-interest. No part of this stock can be redeemed till 25 millions of the 3 or 4 per cents. are paid off.

† Last year the India Company added one million to their capital, by a subscription of the stockholders at 200 per cent. and this year (1794) 2 millions by bonds.

‡ Fall in January 1860. The original annuity was for 99 years.

§ These fall in 1864.

N. B. Dividends paid at the Bank from 9 to 11, and 1 to 3. — Dividends at the S. S. and India House, from 9 to 11. — Transfers from 17 to 1.

The expenses defrayed by the civil list are those that in any shape relate to civil government; as the expenses of the household, all salaries to officers of state, to the judges, and every one of the king's servants; the appointments to foreign ambassadors, the maintenance of the queen and royal family, the king's private expenses, or privy purse, and other very numerous outgoings; as secret service money, pensions, and other bounties. These sometimes have so far exceeded the revenues appointed for that purpose, that application has been made to parliament to discharge the debts contracted on the civil list; as particularly in 1724, when one million was granted for that purpose by the statute 11 Geo. I. c. 17. Large sums have also been repeatedly granted for the payment of the king's debts in the present reign; and the considerable augmentation of 100,000l. has likewise been made to his annual income. When the bill for suppressing certain offices, as the board of trade, &c. was debated, by which savings were to be made to the amount of 72,308l. per annum, it appeared that the arrears due on the civil list at that time, June 1782, amounted to 95,877l. 18s. 4d. notwithstanding so liberal an allowance had been recently made, and the king's debts had been repeatedly liquidated by parliamentary grants; and for the payment of this other debt, provision was made by the bill.

The civil list is indeed properly the whole of the king's revenue in his own distinct capacity; the rest being rather the revenue of the public, or its creditors, though collected and distributed again in the name and by the officers of the crown; it is now standing in the same place as the hereditary income did formerly; and as that has gradually diminished, the parliamentary appointments have increased.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH } The *military state* includes
OF GREAT BRITAIN. } the whole of the soldiery, or
such persons as are peculiarly appointed among the rest of the people,
for the safeguard and defence of the realm.

In a land of liberty it is extremely dangerous to make a distinct order of the profession of arms. In such, no man should take up arms, but with a view to defend his country, and its laws: he puts not off the citizen when he enters the camp; but it is because he is a citizen and would wish to continue so, that he makes himself for a while a soldier. The laws and constitution of these kingdoms know no such state as that of a perpetual standing soldier, bred up to no other profession than that of war; and it was not till the reign of Henry VI. that the kings of England had so much as a guard about their persons.

It seems universally agreed by all historians, that king Alfred first settled a national militia in this kingdom, and by his prudent discipline made all the subjects of his dominions soldiers.

In the mean time we are not to imagine that the kingdom was left wholly without defence, in case of domestic insurrections, or the prospect of foreign invasions. Besides those who, by their military tenures, were bound to perform forty days' service in the field, the statute of Winchester obliged every man, according to his estate and degree, to provide a determinate quantity of such arms as were then in use, in order to keep the peace; and constables were appointed in all hundreds, to see that such arms were provided. These weapons were changed by the statute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 2. into others of more modern service; but both this and the former provisions were repealed in the reign of James I. While these continued in force, it was usual, from time to time, for our princes to issue commissions of array, and send into every

county officers in whom they could confide, to muster and array (or set in military order) the inhabitants of every district; and the form of the commission of array was settled in parliament in the 3^d Henry IV. But at the same time it was provided, that no man should be compelled to go out of the kingdom at any rate, nor out of his shire, but in cases of urgent necessity; nor should provide soldiers unless by consent of parliament. About the reign of king Henry VIII. lord-lieutenants began to be introduced, as standing representatives of the crown, to keep the counties in military order; for we find them mentioned as known officers, in the statute 2^d and 5th Ph. and M. c. 3. though they had not been then long in use; for Camden speaks of them in the time of queen Elizabeth as extraordinary magistrates, constituted only in times of difficulty and danger.

Soon after the restoration of king Charles II. when the military tenures were abolished, it was thought proper to ascertain the power of the militia, to recognise the sole right of the crown to govern and command them, and to put the whole into a more regular method of military subordination; and the order in which the militia now stands by law, is principally built upon the statutes which were then enacted. It is true, the two last of them are apparently repealed; but many of their provisions are re-enacted, with the addition of some new regulations, by the present militia laws; the general scheme of which is, to discipline a certain number of the inhabitants of every county, chosen by lot for three years, and officered by the lord-lieutenant, the deputy-lieutenants, and other principal land-holders, under a commission from the crown. They are not compellable to march out of their counties, unless in case of an invasion, or actual rebellion, nor in any case to be sent out of the kingdom. They are to be exercised at stated times, and their discipline in general is liberal and easy: but when drawn out in actual service, they are subject to the rigours of martial law, as necessary to keep them in order. This is the constitutional security which our laws have provided for the public peace, and for protecting the realm against foreign or domestic violence, and which the statutes declare is essentially necessary to the safety and prosperity of the kingdom.

But as the mode of keeping standing armies has universally prevailed over all Europe of late years, it has also for many years past been annually judged necessary by our legislature, for the safety of the kingdom, the defence of the possessions of the crown of Great Britain, and the preservation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain, even in time of peace, a standing body of troops, under the command of the crown; who are, however, *ipso facto*, disbanded at the expiration of every year, unless continued by parliament. The land forces of these kingdoms, in time of peace, amount to about 40,000 men, including troops and garrisons in Ireland, Gibraltar, the East Indies, and America; but in time of war, there have formerly been in British pay, natives and foreigners, above 150,000; and there have been in the pay of Great Britain, since the commencement of the American war, 135,000 men, besides 42,000 militia. To govern this body of troops, an annual act of parliament passes, "to punish mutiny and desertion, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters." This regulates the manner in which they are to be dispersed among the several inn-keepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom; and establishes a law-martial for their government.

The Maritime state is nearly related to the former, though much more agreeable to the principles of our free constitution. The royal navy of England has ever been its greatest defence and ornament; it is its

ancient and natural strength; the floating bulwark of the island; an army, from which, however strong and powerful, no danger can ever be apprehended to liberty; and accordingly it has been assiduously cultivated, even from the earliest ages. To so much perfection was our naval reputation arrived in the twelfth century, that the code of maritime laws, which are called the laws of Oleron, and are received by all nations in Europe as the ground and substraction of all their marine constitutions, was confessedly compiled by our king Richard I. at the isle of Oleron, on the coast of France, then part of the possessions of the crown of England. And yet, so vastly inferior were our ancestors in this point to the present age, that, even in the maritime reign of queen Elizabeth, sir Edward Coke thinks it matter of boast that the royal navy of England then consisted of 33 ships. The present condition of our marine is in a great measure owing to the salutary provisions of the statute called the navigation act; whereby the constant increase of English shipping and seamen was not only encouraged, but rendered unavoidably necessary. The most beneficial statute for the trade and commerce of these kingdoms, is that navigation act; the rudiments of which were first framed in 1650, partly with a narrow view; being intended to mortify the sugar islands, which were disaffected to the parliament, and still held out for Charles II. by stopping the gainful trade which they then carried on with the Dutch; and at the same time to clip the wings of those our opulent and aspiring neighbours. This prohibited all ships of foreign nations from trading with any English plantations without licence from the council of state. In 1651, the prohibition was extended also to the mother country; and no goods were suffered to be imported into England, or any of its dependencies, in any other than English bottoms, or in the ships of that European nation, of which the merchandise imported was the genuine growth or manufacture. At the Restoration, the former provisions were continued by statute 12 Car. II. c. 18. with this very material improvement, that the masters and three-fourths of the mariners shall also be English subjects.

The complement of seamen, in time of peace, usually hath amounted to 12 or 15,000. In time of war, they formerly amounted to about 80,000 men; and after the commencement of the American war, to above 100,000, including marines. The vote of parliament for the service of the year 1797, was for 120,000 seamen, including marines.

This navy is commonly divided into three squadrons, namely, the red, white, and blue, which are so termed from the differences of their colours. Each squadron has its admiral; but the admiral of the red squadron has the principal command of the whole, and is styled vice-admiral of Great Britain. Subject to each admiral is also a vice and rear-admiral. But the supreme command of our naval force is, next to the king, in the lords commissioners of the admiralty. Notwithstanding our favourable situation for a maritime power, it was not until the vast armament sent to subdue us by Spain, in 1588, that the nation, by a vigorous effort, became fully sensible of its true interest and natural strength, which it has since so happily cultivated.

We may venture to affirm, that the British navy, during the war of 1756, was able to cope with all the other fleets of Europe. In the course of a few years it entirely vanquished the whole naval power of France, disabled Spain, and kept the Dutch and other powers in awe. For the protection of the British empire, and the annoyance of our enemies it was then divided into several powerful squadrons, so judiciously sta-

tioned, as at once to appear in every quarter of the globe; and while some fleets were humbling the pride of Spain in Asia and America, others were employed in frustrating the designs of France, and escorting home the riches of the eastern and western worlds.

I shall close this account of the military and maritime strength of England, or rather of Great Britain, by observing, that though sea officers and sailors are subject to a perpetual act of parliament, which answers the annual military act that is passed for the government of the army, yet neither of those bodies are exempted from legal jurisdiction in civil or criminal cases, but in a few instances, of no great moment. The soldiers, particularly, may be called upon by a civil magistrate, to enable him to preserve the peace against all attempts to break it. The military officer who commands the soldiers on those occasions, is to take his directions from the magistrate; and both he and they, if their proceedings are regular, are indemnified against all consequences, be they ever so fatal. Those civil magistrates who understand the principles of the constitution, are however extremely cautious in calling for the military on these occasions, or upon any commotion whatever; and, indeed, with good reason; for the frequent employment of the military power in a free government is exceedingly dangerous, and cannot be guarded against with too much caution.

[COINS.] In Great Britain money is computed by pounds, shillings, and pence; twelve pence making a shilling, and twenty shillings one pound; which pound is only an imaginary coin. The gold pieces consist only of guineas, and half guineas; the silver, of crowns, half crowns, shillings, six-pences, groats, and even down to a silver penny; and the copper money only of halfpence and farthings. In a country like England, where the intrinsic value of silver is nearly equal, and in some coins, crown pieces particularly, superior to the nominal, the coinage of silver money is a matter of great consequence; and yet the present state of the national currency seems to demand a new coinage of shillings and six-pences; the intrinsic value of the latter being in many of them worn down to half their nominal value. This can only be done by an act of parliament, and by the public losing the difference between the bullion of the new and the old money. Besides the coins already mentioned, five and two guinea pieces are coined at the tower of London, but these are not generally current; nor is any silver coin that is lower than six-pence. The coins of the famous Simon, in the time of Cromwell, and in the beginning of Charles II.'s reign, are remarkable for their beauty.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, } The title of the king of England is, By
AND ORDERS. } the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France,
and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith. The designation of the
kings of England was formerly his or her Grace, or Highness, till
Henry VIII. to put himself on a footing with the emperor Charles V.
assumed that of Majesty; but the old designation was not abolished till
towards the end of queen Elizabeth's reign. The title of Defender
of the Faith, above mentioned, was given to Henry VIII. by the pope,
on account of a book written by the king against Luther and the Re-
formation. Besides the titles already given, the king of Great Bri-
tain has others from his German dominions, as Elector of Hanover,
Duke of Brunswick Lunenburgh, &c.

Since the accession of the present royal family of Great Britain, anno
1714, the royal achievement is marshalled as follows: quarterly, in the
first grand quarter, *Mars, three lions, passant guardant, in pale Sol*, the im-

perial ensigns of England, impaled with the royal arms of Scotland, which are, *Sol, a lion rampant, within a double tressure flowered, and counter-flowered with fleurs-de-lis, Mars.* The second quarter is the royal arms of France, viz. *Jupiter, three fleurs-de-lis, Sol.* The third, the ensigns of Ireland, which is, *Jupiter, an harp, Sol, stringed Luna.* And the fourth and quarter is his present majesty's own coat, viz. *Mars, two lions passant guardant, Sol, for Brunswick, impaled with Lunenburg, which is, Sol, semee of hearts, proper, a lion rampant, Jupiter;* having ancient Saxony, viz. *Mars, an horse currant, Luna, enté (or grafted) in base; and in a field sur tout, Mars, the diadem, or crown of Charlemagne; the whole, within a garter, as sovereign of that most noble order of knighthood.*

The motto of *Dieu et mon Droit*, that is, *God and my Right*, is as old as the reign of Richard I. who assumed it to show his independency upon all earthly powers. It was afterwards revived by Edward III. when he laid claim to the crown of France. Almost every king of England had a particular badge or cognisance: sometimes a white hart, sometimes a fetlock with a falcon, by which it is said Edward IV. alluded to the infidelity of one of his mistresses; and sometimes a portcullis, which was that of the house of Lancaster, many of the princes of which were born in the castle of Beaufort. The white rose was the bearing of the house of York; and that of Lancaster, by way of contradistinction, adopted the red. The thistle, which is now part of the royal armorial bearings, belonged to Scotland, and was very significant when joined to its motto, *Nemo me impune lacesset*, "None shall provoke me unpunished."

The titles of the king's eldest son are, prince of Wales, duke of Cornwall and Rothsay, earl of Chester, electoral prince of Brunswick and Lunenburg, earl of Carrick, baron of Renfrew, lord of the Isles, great steward of Scotland, and captain general of the artillery company.

The order of the GARTER, the most honourable of any in the world, was instituted by Edward III. January 19, 1344. It consists of the sovereign, who is always king or queen of England, of 25 companions called Knights of the Garter, who wear a medal of St. George killing the dragon, supposed to be the tutelar saint of England, commonly enamelled on gold, suspended from a blue ribband, which was formerly worn about their necks, but since the latter end of James I. now crosses their bodies from their shoulder. The garter, which is of blue velvet, bordered with gold, buckled under the left knee, and gives the name to the order, was designed as an ensign of unity and combination; on it are embroidered the words, *Henri soit qui mal y pense*, "Evil to him who evil thinks."

Knights of the BATH, so called from their bathing at the time of the creation, are supposed to be instituted by Henry IV. about the year 1399: but the order seems to be more ancient. For many reigns there were created at the coronation of a king or queen, or other solemn occasions, and they wear a scarlet ribband hanging from the left shoulder with an enamelled medal, the badge of the order, a rose issuing from the dexter side of a sceptre, and a thistle from the sinister, between the imperial crowns placed within the motto, *Tria juncta in uno*, "Three joined in one." This order being discontinued, was revived by King George I. on the 18th of May, 1725; and the month following, eighteen noblemen, and as many commoners of the first rank, were installed knights of the order with great ceremony, at Westminster, where the place of installation is Henry VII.'s chapel. Their robes are splendid and showy, and the number of knights is undetermined. The list

of Rochester is perpetual dean of the order, which has likewise a register and other officers.

The order of the THISTLE, as belonging to Scotland, is mentioned in the account of that country; as is also the order of St. Patrick, newly instituted for Ireland, in our account of that kingdom.

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

Baronets can scarcely be said to belong to an order, having no other badge than a bloody hand in a field, argent, in their arms. They are the only hereditary honour under the peerage, and would take place even of the knights of the Garter, were it not that the latter are always privy counsellors; there being no intermediate honour between them and the parliamentary barons of England. They were instituted by James I. about the year 1615. Their number was then two hundred, and each paid about 1000*l.* on pretence of reducing and planting the province of Ulster in Ireland: but at present their number amounts to 700.

A knight is a term used almost in every nation in Europe, and in general signifies a soldier serving on horseback; a rank of no mean estimation in ancient armies, and entitling the parties themselves to the appellation of *Sir*. Other knighthoods formerly took place in England; such as those of bannerets, bachelors, knights of the carpet, and the like; but they are now disused. Indeed, in the year 1773, at a review of the royal navy at Portsmouth, the king conferred the honour of Knights Bannerets on two admirals and three captains. They have no particular badge on their garments, but their arms are painted on a banner placed in the frames of the supporters.

It is somewhat difficult to account for the origin of the word *esquire*, which formerly signified a person bearing the arms of a nobleman or knight, and they were therefore called *armigeri*. This title denoted any person, who, by his birth or property, was entitled to bear arms; but it is at present applied promiscuously to any man who can afford to live in the character of a gentleman, without trade; and even a tradesman, if he is a justice of peace, demands the appellation. This degree, so late as in the reign of Henry IV. was an order, and conferred by the king, by putting about the party's neck a collar of SS, and giving him a pair of silver spurs. Gower the poet appears, from his effigies on his tomb in Southwark, to have been an esquire by creation. Serjeants at law, and other serjeants belonging to the king's household, justices of the peace, doctors in divinity, law, and physic, take place of other esquires; and it is remarkable, that all the sons of dukes, marquesses, earls, viscounts, and barons, are in the eye of the law no more than esquires, though commonly designated by noble titles. The appellation of gentleman, though now bestowed so promiscuously, is the root of all English honour; for every nobleman is presumed to be a gentleman, though every gentleman is not a nobleman.

[HISTORY.] It is generally agreed that the first inhabitants of Britain were a tribe of the Gauls, or Celts, that settled on the opposite shore; a supposition founded upon the evident conformity in their language, manners, government, religion, and complexion.

When Julius Cæsar, about fifty-two years before the birth of Christ, dedicated the conquest of Britain, the natives, undoubtedly, had great connections with the Gauls, and other people of the continent, in government, religion, and commerce, rude as the latter was. Cæsar

wrote the history of his two expeditions, which he pretended were accompanied with vast difficulties, and attended by such advantages over the islanders, that they agreed to pay tribute. It plainly appears, however, from contemporary and other authors, as well as Cæsar's own narrative, that his victories were incomplete and indecisive; nor did the Romans receive the least advantage from his expedition, but a better knowledge of the island than they had before. The Britons, at the time of Cæsar's descent, were governed in the time of war by a political confederacy, of which Cassibelan, whose territories lay in Hertfordshire, and some of the adjacent counties, was the head; and this form of government continued among them for some time.

In their manner of life, as described by Cæsar, and the best authors, they differed little from the rude inhabitants of the northern climates that have been already mentioned; but they certainly sowed corn, though perhaps they chiefly subsisted upon animal food and milk. Their clothing was skins, — and their fortifications, beams of wood. They were incredibly dexterous in the management of their chariots; and they fought with lances, darts, and swords. Women sometimes led their armies to the field, and were recognised as sovereigns of their particular districts. They favoured the primogeniture or seniority in their succession to royalty, but set it aside on the smallest inconvenience attending it. They painted their bodies with woad, which gave them a bluish or greenish cast; and they are said to have had figures of animals and heavenly bodies on their skins. In their marriages they were not very delicate, for they formed themselves into what we may call matrimonial clubs. Twelve or fourteen men married as many wives, and each wife was in common to them all; but her children belonged to the original husband.

The Britons lived, during the long reign of Augustus Cæsar, rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans; but the communications between Rome and Great Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius Cæsar, about forty-two years after the birth of Christ, undertook an expedition in person, in which he seems to have been successful, against Britain. His conquests, however, were imperfect; Caractacus, and Boadicea, though a woman, made noble stands against the Romans. The former was taken prisoner after a desperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius gained him the admiration of the victors, and is celebrated in the histories of the times. Boadicea being oppressed in a manner that disgraces the Roman name, and defeated, disdained to survive the liberties of her country; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after subduing South Britain, carried his arms northwards, as has been already seen in the history of Scotland, where his successors had no reason to boast of their progress, every inch of ground being bravely defended. During the time the Romans remained in this island, they erected those walls which have been often mentioned, to protect the Britons from the invasions of the Caledonians, Scots, and Picts; and we are told, that the Roman language, learning, and customs, became familiar in Britain. There seems to be no great foundation for this assertion; and it is more probable that the Romans considered Britain chiefly as a nursery for their armies abroad, on account of the superior strength of body and courage of the inhabitants when disciplined. That this was the case, appears plainly enough from the defenceless state of the Britons, when the government of Rome recalled her forces from that island. I have already taken notice, that, during the abode of the Romans in Britain, they introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy; and it is certain, that under

them the South Britons were reduced to a state of great vassalage, and that the genius of liberty retreated northwards, where the natives had made a brave resistance against these tyrants of the world. For though the Britons were unquestionably very brave, when incorporated with the Roman legions abroad, yet we know of no struggle they made in later times, for their independency at home, notwithstanding the many favourable opportunities that presented themselves. The Roman emperors and generals, while in this island, assisted by the Britons, were frequently employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledonians and Picts (the latter are thought to have been the southern Britons retired northwards): but they appear to have had no difficulty in maintaining their authority in the southern provinces.

Upon the mighty inundations of those barbarous nations, which, under the names of Goths and Vandals, invaded the Roman empire with infinite numbers, and with danger to Rome itself *, the Roman legions were withdrawn out of Britain, with the flower of the British youth, for the defence of the capital and centre of the empire; and that they might leave the island with a good grace, they assisted the Britons in rebuilding with stone the wall of Severus between Newcastle and Carlisle, which they lined with forts and watch towers; and having done this good office, took their last farewell of Britain about the year 448, after having been masters of the most fertile parts of it, if we reckon from the invasion of Julius Cæsar, near 500 years.

The Scots and Picts finding the island finally deserted by the Roman legions, now regarded the whole as their prize, and attacked Severus's wall with redoubled forces, ravaged all before them with a fury peculiar to northern nations in those ages, and which a remembrance of former injuries could not fail to inspire. The poor Britons, like a helpless family deprived of their parent and protector, already subdued by their own fears, had again recourse to Rome, and sent over their miserable epistle for relief (still upon record), which was addressed in these words: *To Aëtius, thrice consul: The groans of the Britons*; and after other lamentable complaints, said, *That the barbarians drove them to the sea, and the sea back to the barbarians; and they had only the hard choice left of perishing by the sword or by the waves.* But having no hopes given them by the Roman general of any succours from that side, they began to consider what other nation they might call over to their relief. Gildas, who was himself a Briton, describes the degeneracy of his countrymen at this time in mournful strains, and gives some confused hints of their officers, and the names of some of their kings, particularly one Vortigern, chief of the *Daumonii*, by whose advice the Britons struck a bargain with two Saxon chiefs, Hengist and Horsa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. The Saxons were in those days masters of what is now called the English Channel; and their native countries, comprehending Scandinavia and the northern parts of Germany, being overstocked with inhabitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons; whom they relieved, by checking the progress of the Scots and Picts, and had the island of Thanet allowed them for their residence. But their own country was so populous and barren, and the fertile lands of Britain so agreeable and alluring, that in a very little time Hengist and Horsa began to meditate a settlement for themselves; and fresh supplies of their countrymen arriving daily, the Saxons soon became formidable to the Britons, whom, after a violent struggle of

* See the Introduction.

near 150 years, they subdued, or drove into Wales, where their language and their descendents still remain.

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

It does not fall within the design of this work, to relate the separate history of every particular nation that formed the heptarchy. It is sufficient to say, that the pope in Austin's time supplied England with about 400 monks, and that the popish clergy took care to keep their kings and unity in the most deplorable ignorance, but always magnifying the power and sanctity of his holiness. Hence it was that the Anglo-Saxons, during their heptarchy, were governed by priests and monks, who, as they saw convenient, persuaded their kings either to shut themselves up in cloisters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where they finished their days: no less than thirty Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, resigned their crowns in that manner; and among them was Ina, king of the West-Saxons, though in other respects he was a wise and brave prince. The bounty of those Anglo-Saxon kings to the see of Rome was therefore unlimited; and Ethelwald, king of Mercia, imposed an annual tax of a penny upon every house, which was afterwards known by the name of Peter's pence, because paid on the holiday of *St. Peter ad vincula*, August 1st*.

Under all those disadvantages of bigotry and barbarity, the Anglo-Saxons were happy in comparison of the nations on the continent; because they were free from the Saracens, or successors of Mahomet, who had erected an empire in the East upon the ruins of the Roman, and began to extend their ravages over Spain and Italy. London was then a place of very considerable trade; and if we are to believe the Saxon chronicles quoted by Tyrrel, Withred, king of Kent, paid at one time to Ina, king of Wessex, a sum in silver equal to 90,000l. sterling in the year 694. England, therefore, we may suppose to have been about this time a refuge for the people of the continent. The venerable but superstitious Bede, about the year 740, composed his church history of Britain, from the coming in of the Saxons down to the year 731. The Saxon Chronicle is one of the oldest and most authentic monuments of history that any nation can produce. Architecture, such as it was, with stone and glass working, was introduced into England; and we read, in 709, of a Northumbrian prelate who was served in silver plate. It must however be owned, that the Saxon coins, which are generally of copper, are many of them illegible, and all of them mean. Ale and alehouses are mentioned in the laws of Ina, about the year 728; and in this state was the Saxon heptarchy in England, when, about the year 800, most of the Anglo-Saxons, tired out with the tyranny of their petty kings, united in calling to the government of the heptarchy, Egbert, who was the eldest remaining branch of the race of Cerdic, one of the Saxon chiefs who first arrived in Britain. On the submission of the Northumbrians in the year 827, he became king of all England.

Charles the Great, otherwise Charlemagne, was then king of France, and emperor of Germany. Egbert had been obliged, by state jealousies,

* This tax was imposed at first for the support of a college at Rome, for the education of English youth, founded by Ina, king of Wessex, under the name of *Rome-Scot*: but in process of time the popes claimed it as a tribute due to St. Peter and his successors.

to fly to the court of Charles for protection from the persecutions of Eadburga, daughter of Offa, wife to Brithric, king of the West Saxons. Egbert acquired, at the court of Charles, the arts both of war and government, and therefore soon united the Saxon heptarchy in his own person, but without subduing Wales. He changed the name of his kingdom into that of Engle-land or England; but there is reason to believe that some part of England continued still to be governed by independent princes of the blood of Cerdic, though they paid perhaps a small tribute to Egbert, who died in the year 838, at Winchester, his chief residence.

Egbert was succeeded by his son Ethelwolf, who divided his power with his eldest son Athelstan. By this time England had become a scene of blood and ravages, through the renewal of the Danish invasions; and Ethelwolf, after some time bravely opposing them, retired in a fit of devotion to Rome, to which he carried with him his youngest son, afterwards the famous Alfred, the father of the English constitution. The gifts which Ethelwolf made to the clergy on this occasion (copies of which are still remaining) are so prodigious, even the tithes of all his dominions, that they show his intellect to have been disturbed by his devotion, or that he was guided by the arts of Swithin bishop of Winchester. Upon his death, after his return from Rome, he divided his dominions between two of his sons (Athelstan being then dead), Ethelbald and Ethelbert; but we know of no patrimony that was left to young Alfred. Ethelbert, who was the surviving son, left his kingdom, in 866, to his brother Ethelred: in whose time, notwithstanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the Danes became masters of the sea-coast, and the finest counties in England, Ethelred being killed, his brother Alfred mounted the throne in 871. He was one of the greatest princes, both in peace and war, mentioned in history. He fought seven battles with the Danes with various success; and when defeated, he found resources that rendered him as terrible as before. He was, however, at one time reduced to an uncommon state of distress, being forced to live in the disguise of a cow-herd: but still he kept up a secret correspondence with his brave friends, whom he collected together, and by their assistance he gave the Danes many signal overthrows, till at last he recovered the kingdom of England, and obliged the Danes, who had been settled in it, to swear obedience to his government; even part of Wales courted his protection; so that he was probably the most powerful monarch that had ever reigned in England.

Among the other glories of Alfred's reign, was that of raising a maritime power in England, by which he secured her coasts from future invasions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been burnt down by the Danes, and founded the university of Oxford about the year 895: he divided England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; or rather he revived those divisions, and the use of juries, which had fallen into disuse by the ravages of the Danes. Having been educated at Rome, he was not only a scholar, but an author; and he tells us, that upon his accession to the throne he had scarcely a lay subject who could read English, or an ecclesiastic who understood Latin. He introduced stone and brick building into general use in palaces as well as churches, though it is certain that his subjects, for many years after his death, were fond of timber-buildings. His encouragement of commerce and navigation may seem incredible to modern times: but he had merchants who traded in East India jewels; and William of Malmesbury says, that

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Some of their gems were repositèd in the church of Sherborne in his time. He received from one Oëther, about the year 890, a full discovery of the coast of Norway and Lapland, as far as Russia; and he tells the king, in his memorial, printed by Hakluyt, "that he sailed along the Norway coast, so far north as commonly the whale-hunters used to travel." He invited numbers of learned men, into his dominions, and found faithful and useful allies in the two Scotch kings, his contemporaries, Gregory and Donald, against the Danes. He is said to have fought no less than fifty-six pitched battles. He was inexorable against his corrupt judges, whom he used to hang up in the public highways, as a terror to evil doers. He died in the year 901, and his character is so completely amiable and heroic, that he is justly distinguished with the epithet of the Great.

Alfred was succeeded by his son Edward the Elder, under whom, though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their invasions. He died in the year 925, and was succeeded by his eldest son Athelstan. This prince was such an encourager of commerce, as to make a law, that every merchant who made three voyages on his own account to the Mediterranean, should be put upon a footing with a *thane* or *nobleman* of the first rank. He caused the Scriptures to be translated into the Saxon tongue. He encouraged coinage; and we find by his laws, that archbishops, bishops, and even abbots, had then the privilege of coining money. His dominions appear, however, to have been confined towards the north by the Danes, although his vassals still kept a footing in those counties. He was engaged in perpetual wars with his neighbours, the Scots in particular, in which he was generally successful, and died in 941. The reigns of his successors, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, were weak and inglorious, they being either engaged in wars with the Danes, or disgraced by the influence of priests. Edgar, who mounted the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of England, and is said to have been rowed down the river-Dee by eight kings his vassals, he sitting at the helm; but, like his predecessors, he was the slave of priests, particularly St. Dunstan. His reign, however, was pacific and happy, though he was obliged to cede to the Scots all the territory to the north of the Tyne. He was succeeded in 975, by his eldest son Edward, who was barbarously murdered by his step-mother, whose son Ethelred, by the aid of priests, mounted the throne in 978. The English nation, at this time, was over-run with barbarians, and the Danes by degrees became possessed of the finest parts of the country, while their countrymen made sometimes dreadful descents in the western parts. To get rid of them, he agreed to pay them 30,000l. which was levied by way of tax, and called *Danegeld*, and was the first land tax in England. In the year 1002 they had made such settlements in England, that Ethelred consented to a general massacre of them by the English; but it is improbable that it was ever put into execution. Some attempts of that kind were undoubtedly made in particular counties; but they served only to enrage the Danish king Swein, who, in 1013, drove Ethelred, his queen and two sons, out of England into Normandy, a province of France, at that time governed by its own princes, styled the dukes of Normandy. Swein being killed, was succeeded by his son Canute the Great: but Ethelred returning to England, forced Canute to retire to Denmark, from whence he invaded England with a vast army, and obliged Edmund Ironside, (so called for his great bodily strength) Ethelred's son, to divide with him the kingdom. Upon Edmund's being assassinated, Canute succeeded to the undivided kingdom;

and dying in 1035, his son, Harold Harefoot, did nothing memorable; and his successor Hardicanute was so degenerate a prince, that the Danish royalty ended with him in England.

The family of Ethelred was now called to the throne; and Edward, who is commonly called the Confessor, mounted it, though Edgar Athelings, by being descended from an elder branch, had the lineal right, and was alive. Upon the death of the Confessor, in the year 1066, Harold, son to Goodwin earl of Kent, mounted the throne of England.

William duke of Normandy, though a bastard, was then in the unrivalled possession of that great duchy, and resolved to assert his right to the crown of England. For that purpose he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vassals, to join him, and made liberal promises to his followers, of lands and honours in England, to induce them to assist him effectually. By these means he collected 40,000 of the bravest and most regular troops in Europe; and while Harold was embarrassed with the fresh invasions from the Danes, William landed in England without opposition. Harold, returning from the North, encountered William at the place now called Battle, which took its name from that event, near Hastings in Suffex, and a most bloody battle was fought between the two armies; but Harold being killed, the crown of England devolved upon William, in the year 1066.

We have very particular accounts of the value of provisions and manufactures in those days; a palfrey cost 1s. an acre of land, (according to bishop Fleetwood in his Chronicon Pretiosum) 1s. a hide of land, containing 120 acres, 100s. but there is great difficulty in forming the proportion of value which those shillings bore to the present standard of money, though many ingenious treatises have been written on that head. A sheep was estimated at 1s. an ox was computed at 6s. a cow at 4s. a man at 3l. The board-wages of a child the first year was 8s. The tenants of Shireburn were obliged at their choice to pay either 6d. or four hens. Silk and cotton were quite unknown. Linen was not much used. In the Saxon times, land was divided among all the male children of the deceased. Entails were sometimes practised in those times.

With regard to the manners of the Anglo-Saxons we can say little, but that they were in general a rude uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unskilful in the mechanical arts, untamed to submission under law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot, and disorder. Even so low as the reign of Canute, they sold their children and kindred into foreign parts. Their best quality was their military courage, which yet was not supported by discipline or conduct. Even the Norman historians, notwithstanding the low state of the arts in their own country, speak of them as barbarians, when they mention the invasion made upon them by the duke of Normandy. Conquest put the people in a situation of receiving slowly from abroad all the rudiments of science and cultivation, and of correcting their rough and licentious manners. Their uncultivated state might be owing to the clergy, who always discouraged manufactures.

We are however to distinguish between the secular clergy, and the regulars or monks. Many of the former, among the Anglo-Saxons, were men of exemplary lives, and excellent magistrates. The latter depended upon the see of Rome, and directed the conscience of the king and the great men, and were generally ignorant, and often sanguinary. A great part of the Saxon barbarism was likewise owing to the Danish invasions, which left little room for civil or literary improvements.

Amidst all those defects, public and personal liberty were well understood and guarded by the Saxon institutions; and we owe to them at this day the most valuable privileges of the English subject.

The loss which both sides suffered at the battle of Hastings is uncertain. Anglo-Saxon authors say, that Harold was so impatient to fight, that he attacked William with half of his army, so that the advantage of numbers was on the side of the Norman; and, indeed, the death of Harold seems to have decided the day; and William, with very little farther difficulty, took possession of the throne, and made a considerable alteration in the constitution of England, by converting lands into knights' fees *, which are said to have amounted to 62,000, and were held of the Norman and other great persons who had assisted him in his conquest, and who were bound to attend him with their knights and their followers in his wars. He gave, for instance, to one of his barons the whole county of Chester, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almost independent of the crown; and here, according to some historians, we have the rise of the feudal law in England. William found it no easy matter to keep possession of his crown. Edgar Atheling, and his sister, the next Anglo-Saxon heirs, were affectionately received in Scotland, and many of the Saxon lords took arms, and formed conspiracies in England. William got the better of all difficulties, especially after he had made a peace with Malcolm king of Scotland, who married Atheling's sister; but not without exercising horrible cruelties upon the Anglo-Saxons. He introduced the Norman laws and language. He built the stone square tower at London, commonly called the White Tower; bridled the country with forts, and disarmed the old inhabitants; in short, he attempted every thing possible to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon constitution; though, at his coronation, he took the same oath that used to be taken by the ancient Saxon kings.

He caused a general survey of all the lands in England to be made, or rather to be completed (for it was begun in Edward the Confessor's time), and an account to be taken of the villains or servile tenants, slaves, and live stock, upon each estate; all which were recorded in a book called Doomsday-book, which is now kept in the Exchequer. But the repose of this fortunate and victorious king was disturbed in his old age, by the rebellion of his eldest son Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but now assumed the government as sovereign of that province, in which he was favoured by the king of France. And here we have the rise of the wars between England and France; which have continued longer, drawn more noble blood, and been attended with more memorable achievements, than any other national quarrel we read of in ancient or modern history. William, seeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his usual vigour; and with incredible celerity, transporting a brave English army, invaded France, where he was every where victorious, but died before he had finished the war, in the year 1087, the sixty-first year of his age, and twenty-first of his reign in England, and was buried in his own abbey at Caen in Normandy.

By the Norman conquest, England not only lost the true line of her ancient Saxon kings, but also her principal nobility, who either fell in battle in defence of their country and liberties, or fled to foreign countries, particularly Scotland, where, being kindly received by king Mal-

* Four hides of land made one knight's fee; a barony was twelve times greater than that of a knight's fee; and when Doomsday-book was framed, the number of great barons amounted to 700.

colm, they established themselves; and, what is very remarkable, introduced the Saxon or English, which has been the prevailing language in the Lowlands of Scotland to this day.

On the other hand, England, by virtue of the conquest, became much greater, both in dominion and power, by the accession of so much territory upon the continent. For though the Normans, by the conquest, gained much of the English land and riches, yet England gained the large and fertile dukedom of Normandy, which became a province to this crown. England likewise gained much by the great increase of naval power, and multitude of ships wherein Normandy then abounded. This, with the perpetual intercourse between England and the continent, gave us an increase of trade and commerce, and of treasure to the crown and kingdom, as appeared soon afterwards. England, by the conquest, gained likewise a natural right to the dominion of the Channel, which had been before acquired only by the greater naval power of Edgar, and other Saxon kings. For the dominion of the narrow seas seem naturally to belong, like that of rivers, to those who possess the banks or coasts on both sides; and thus the former title was confirmed by so long a coast as that of Normandy on one side, and of England on the other side of the Channel. This dominion of the Channel, though we have long ago lost all our possessions in France, we have continued to defend and maintain by the bravery of our seamen, and the superior strength of our navy to any other power.

The succession to the crown of England was disputed between the Conqueror's sons Robert and William (commonly called Rufus, from his being red-haired), and was carried in favour of the latter. He was a brave and intrepid prince, but no friend to the clergy, who have therefore been unfavourable to his memory. He was likewise hated by the Normans, who loved his elder brother; and consequently he was engaged in perpetual wars with his brothers, and rebellious subjects. About this time the crusades of the Holy Land began; and Robert, who was among the first to engage, accommodated matters with William for a sum of money, which he levied from the clergy. William behaved with great generosity towards Edgar Atheling and the court of Scotland, notwithstanding all the provocations he had received from that quarter; but was accidentally killed as he was hunting in New Forest in Hampshire, in the year 1100, and the forty-fourth year of his age.

This prince built Westminster-hall, as it now stands, and added several works to the tower, which he surrounded with a wall and a ditch. In the year 1100 happened that inundation of the sea, which overflowed the part of earl Goodwin's estate in Kent, and formed those shallows in the Downs, now called the Goodwin Sands.

He was succeeded by his brother Henry I. surnamed Beauclerc, on account of his learning, though his brother Robert was then returning from the Holy Land. Henry may be said to have purchased the throne, first by his brother's treasures, which he seized at Winchester; secondly, by a charter in which he restored his subjects to the rights and privileges they had enjoyed under the Anglo-Saxon kings; and thirdly, by his marriage with Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III. king of Scotland, and niece to Edgar Atheling, of the ancient Saxon line. His reign in a great measure restored the clergy to their influence in the state; and they formed, as it were, a separate body dependent upon the pope, which afterwards created great convulsions in England. Henry, partly by force and partly by stratagem, made himself master of his brother Robert's

person, and duchy of Normandy; and with the most ungenerous meanness, detained him a prisoner for twenty-eight years, till the time of his death; in the mean while quieting his conscience by founding an abbey. He was afterwards engaged in a bloody but successful war with France; and before his death he settled the succession upon his daughter, the empress Matilda, widow to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and her son Henry, by her second husband Geoffry Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. Henry died of a surfeit in the seventy-eighth year of his age, in 1135.

Notwithstanding the late settlement of succession, the crown of England was claimed and seized by Stephen earl of Blois, the son of Adela, fourth daughter to William the Conqueror. Matilda and her son were then abroad; and Stephen was assisted in his usurpation by his brother the bishop of Winchester, and the other great prelates, that he might hold the crown dependent, as it were, upon them. Matilda, however, found a generous protector in her uncle, David, king of Scotland; and a worthy subject in her natural brother Robert Earl of Gloucester, who headed her party before her son grew up. A long and bloody war ensued, the clergy having absolved Stephen and all his friends from their guilt of breaking the act of succession; but at length, the barons, who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Matilda; and Stephen, who depended chiefly on foreign mercenaries, having been abandoned by the clergy, was defeated and taken prisoner in 1141; and being carried before Matilda, she scornfully upbraided him, and ordered him to be put in chains.

Matilda was proud and weak; the clergy were bold and ambitious; and, when joined with the nobility, who were factious and turbulent, were an overmatch for the crown. They demanded to be governed by the Saxon laws, according to the charter that had been granted by Henry I. upon his accession: and finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England in 1142. Stephen, having been exchanged for the earl of Gloucester who had been taken prisoner likewise, upon his obtaining his liberty, found that his clergy and nobility had in fact excluded him from the government, by building 100 castles, where each owner lived as an independent prince. We do not, however, find that this alleviated the feudal subjection of the inferior ranks. Stephen was ill enough advised to attempt to force them into compliance with his will, by declaring his son Eustace heir apparent to the kingdom; and this exasperated the clergy so much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who had been acknowledged duke of Normandy, and was son to the empress; and he accordingly landed in England with an army of foreigners.

This measure divided the clergy from the barons, who were apprehensive of a second conquest; and the earl of Arundel, with the heads of the lay aristocracy, proposed an accommodation, to which both parties agreed. Stephen, who about that time lost his son Eustace, was to retain the name and office of king; but Henry, who was in fact invested with the chief executive power, was acknowledged his successor. Though this accommodation was only precarious and imperfect, yet it was received by the English, who had suffered so much during the late civil wars, with great joy; and Stephen dying very opportunely, Henry mounted the throne, without a rival, in 1154.

Henry II. surnamed Plantagenet, was by far the greatest prince of his time. He soon discovered extraordinary abilities for government, and had performed, in the sixteenth year of his age, actions that would have

dignified the most experienced warriors. At his accession to the throne, he found the condition of the English boroughs greatly bettered, by the privileges granted them in the struggles between their late kings and the nobility. Henry perceived the good policy of this, and brought the boroughs to such a height, that if a bondman or servant remained in a borough a year and a day, he was by such residence made free. He erected Wallingford, Winchester, and Oxford, into free boroughs, for the services the inhabitants had done to his mother and himself; by discharging them from every burthen, excepting the fixed fee-farm rent of such towns; and this throughout all England, excepting London. This gave a vast accession of power to the crown, because the crown alone could support the boroughs against their feudal tyrants; and enabled Henry to reduce his overgrown nobility.

Without being very scrupulous in adhering to his former engagements, he resumed the excessive grants of crown-lands made by Stephen, which were represented as illegal. He demolished many of the castles that had been built by the barons; but when he came to attack the clergy, he found their usurpations not to be shaken. He perceived that the root of all their enormous disorders lay in Rome, where the popes had exempted churchmen, not only from lay courts, but civil taxes. The bloody cruelties and disorders occasioned by those exemptions, all over the kingdom, would be incredible, were they not attested by the most unexceptionable evidence. Unfortunately for Henry, the head of the English church, and chancellor of the kingdom, was the celebrated Thomas Becket. This man, powerful from his office, and still more so by his popularity, arising from a pretended sanctity, was violent, intrepid, and a determined enemy to temporal power of every kind, but at the same time cool and politic. The king assembled his nobility at Clarendon, the name of which place is still famous for the constitutions there enacted, which, in fact, abolished the authority of the Romish see over the English clergy. Becket, finding it in vain to resist the stream, signed those constitutions till they could be satisfied by the pope, who, as he foresaw, rejected them. Henry, though a prince of the most determined spirit of any of his time, was then embroiled with all his neighbours; and the see of Rome was in its meridian grandeur. Becket having been arraigned and convicted of robbing the public while he was chancellor, fled to France, where the pope and the French king espoused his quarrel. The effect was, that all the English clergy who were on the king's side were excommunicated, and the laity absolved from their allegiance. This disconcerted Henry so much, that he submitted to treat, and even to be insulted by his rebel prelate, who returned triumphantly through the streets of London in 1170. His return swelled his pride, and increased his insolence, till both became insupportable to Henry, who was then in Normandy. Finding that he was in fact only the first subject in his own dominions, he was heard to say, in the anguish of his heart, "Is there none who will revenge his monarch's cause upon this audacious priest?" These words reached the ears of four knights, Reginald Fitzurse, William de Tracy, Hugh de Morville, and Richard Brito; who, without acquainting Henry with their intentions, went over to England, where they beat out Becket's brains before the altar of his own church at Canterbury, in the year 1171. Henry was in no condition to second the blind obedience of his knights; and the public resentment rose so high, on the supposition that he was privy to the murder, that he submitted to be scourged by monks at the tomb of the pretended martyr.

Henry, in consequence of his well-known maxim, endeavoured to cancel all the grants which had been made by Stephen to the royal family of Scotland, and actually resumed their most valuable possessions in the north of England. This occasioned a war between the two kingdoms, in which William king of Scotland was taken prisoner; and, to deliver himself from captivity, was obliged to pay liege homage to king Henry for his kingdom of Scotland, and for all his other dominions. It was also agreed, that liege homage should be done, and fealty sworn to Henry, without reserve or exception, by all the earls and barons of the territories of the king of Scotland, from whom Henry should derive it, in the same manner as by his other vassals. The heirs of the king of Scotland, and the heirs of his earls, barons, and tenants in chief, were likewise obliged to render liege homage to the heirs of the king of England.

Henry likewise distinguished his reign by the conquest of Ireland; and by marrying Eleanor the divorced queen of France, but the heiress of Guienne and Poitou, he became almost as powerful in France as the French king himself, and the greatest prince in Christendom. In his old age, however, he was far from being fortunate. He had a turn for pleasure, and embarrassed himself in intrigues with women, particularly the fair Rosamond, which were resented by his queen Eleanor, who even engaged her sons, Henry (whom his father had unadvisedly caused to be crowned in his own life-time), Richard, and John, into repeated rebellions, which affected their father so much as to throw him into a fever, and he died at Chinon, in France, in the year 1189, and fifty-seventh of his age. The sum he left in ready money at his death has perhaps been exaggerated; but the most moderate accounts make it amount to 200,000 pounds of our money.

During the reign of Henry, corporation charters were established all over England; by which, as I have already hinted, the power of the barons was greatly reduced. Those corporations encouraged trade; but manufactures, especially those of silk, seem still to have been confined to Spain and Italy; for the silk coronation robes, made use of by young Henry and his queen, cost 871. 10s. 4d. in the sheriff of London's account, printed by Mr. Maddox; a vast sum in those days. Henry introduced the use of glass in windows into England, and stone arches in buildings.

In this reign, and in those barbarous ages, it was a custom in London, for great numbers, to the amount of a hundred or more, of the sons and relations of eminent citizens, to form themselves into a licentious confederacy, to break into rich houses and plunder them, to rob and murder passengers, and to commit, with impunity, all sorts of disorders. Henry, about the year 1176, divided England into six parts, called *circuits*, appointing judges to go at certain times of the year and hold *assizes*, or administer justice to the people, as is practised at this day.

Henry so far abolished the barbarous and absurd practice of forfeiting ships which had been wrecked on the coast, that if one man or animal were alive in the ship, the vessel and goods were restored to the owners. This prince was also the first who levied a tax on the moveable and personal estates of his subjects, nobles as well as people. To show the genius of these ages, it may not be improper to mention the quarrel between Roger archbishop of York, and Richard archbishop of Canterbury. We may judge of the violence of military men and laymen, when ecclesiastics could proceed to such extremities. The pope's legate having summoned an assembly of the clergy at London, both the

archbishops claimed the privilege of sitting on his right hand; which question of precedency begot a controversy between them. The monks and retainers of archbishop Richard fell upon Roger, in the presence of the cardinal and of the synod, threw him on the ground, trampled him under foot, and so bruised him with blows, that he was taken up half dead, and his life was with difficulty saved from their violence.

Richard I. surnamed Cœur de Lion, from his great courage, was the third but eldest surviving son of Henry II. The clergy had found means to gain him over; and for their own ends they persuaded him to make a most magnificent but ruinous crusade to the Holy Land, where he took Ascalon, and performed actions of valour that gave countenance even to the fables of antiquity. After several glorious but fruitless campaigns, he made a truce of three years with Saladin emperor of the Saracens; and in his return to England was treacherously surprised by the duke of Austria, who, in 1193, sent him a prisoner to the emperor Henry VI. His ransom was fixed by the sordid emperor at 150,000 marks; about 300,000 pounds of our present money.

Whilst the Scottish kings enjoyed their lands in England, they found it their interest, once generally in every king's reign, to perform homage; but when they were deprived of their said lands, they paid it no more.*

Woollen broad cloths were made in England at this time. An ox sold for three shillings, which answers to nine shillings of our money, and a sheep at four pence, or one shilling. Weights and measures were now ordered to be the same all over the kingdom. Richard was slain in besieging the castle of Chalon, in the year 1199, the forty-second of his age, and tenth of his reign.

The reign of his brother John, who succeeded him, is infamous in the English history. He is said to have put to death Arthur the eldest son of his brother Geoffrey, who had the hereditary right to the crown. The young prince's mother, Constance, complained to Philip, the king of France; who, upon John's non-appearance at his court as a vassal, deprived him of Normandy. John, notwithstanding, in his wars with the French, Scotch, and Irish, gave many proofs of personal valour; but became at last so apprehensive of a French invasion, that he rendered himself a tributary to the pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the foot of the legate Pandulph, who kept them for five days. The great barons resented his meanness, by taking arms; but he repeated his shameful submissions to the pope; and after experiencing various fortunes of war, John was at last brought so low, that the barons obliged him, in 1216, to sign the great deed so well known by the name of *Magna Charta*. Though this charter is deemed the foundation of English liberty, yet it is in fact no other than a renewal of those immunities which the barons and their followers had possessed under the Saxon princes, and which they claimed by the charters of Henry I. and Henry II. As the principles of liberty; however, came to be more enlarged, and property to be better secured, this charter, by various subsequent acts and explanations, came to be applicable to every English subject, as well as to the barons, knights, and burghesses. John had scarcely signed it, but he retracted, and called upon the pope for protection; when the

* It appears, however, that William I. king of Scotland, and his subjects, consented to acknowledge the king of England and his heirs, to all perpetuity, to be their sovereigns and liege lords, and that they did homage for the kingdom of Scotland accordingly; but this advantage was given up by Richard I. Vide Lord Lytton's History of Henry II. Vol. v. p. 220, 223, 225. 8vo. edit.

barons withdrew their allegiance from John, and transferred it to Lewis, the eldest son of Philip Augustus, king of France. This gave umbrage to the pope; and the barons being apprehensive of their country becoming a province to France, they returned to John's allegiance; but he was unable to protect them, till the pope refused to confirm the title of Lewis. John died in 1216, in the eighteenth year of his reign, and the forty-ninth of his age, just as he had a glimpse of resuming his authority.

The city of London owes some of her privileges to him. The office of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave them a charter to choose a mayor out of their own body, annually, and to elect their sheriffs and common council annually, as at present.

England was in a deplorable situation when the crown devolved upon Henry III. the late king's son, who was but nine years of age. The earl of Pembroke was chosen his guardian, and the pope taking part with the young prince, the French were defeated and driven out of the kingdom, and their king obliged to renounce all claims upon the crown of England. The regent, earl of Pembroke, who had thus retrieved the independency of his country, died 1219, and the regency devolved upon the bishop of Winchester. The king was of a soft pliable disposition, and had been persuaded to violate the Great Charter. Indeed he seemed always endeavouring to evade the privileges which had been compelled to grant and confirm. An association of the barons was formed against him and his government; and a civil war breaking out, Henry seemed to be abandoned by all but his Gascons and foreign mercenaries. His profusion brought him into inexpressible difficulties, and the famous Stephen Montfort, who had married his sister, and was made earl of Leicester, being chosen general of the association, the king and his two sons were defeated, and taken prisoners, at the battle of Lewes. A difference happening between Montfort and the earl of Gloucester, a nobleman of great authority, prince Edward, Henry's eldest son, obtained his liberty, and assembling as many as he could of his father's subjects, who were jealous of Montfort, and weary of the tyranny of the barons, he gave battle to the rebels, whom he defeated at Evesham, August 4th, 1265, and killed Montfort. The representatives of the commons of England, both knights and burgesses, formed now part of the English legislature, in a separate house; and this gave the first blow to feudal tenures in England: but historians are not agreed in what manner the commons before this time formed any part of the English parliaments or great councils. Prince Edward being afterwards engaged in a crusade, Henry, during his absence, died in 1272, the sixty-fourth year of his age, and fifty-sixth of his reign, which was uncomfortable and inglorious; and yet, to the struggles of this reign, the people in great measure owe the liberties of the present day. Interest had in that age mounted to an enormous height. There are instances of 50 per cent. being paid for money, which tempted the Jews to remain in England, notwithstanding the grievous oppression they laboured under, from the bigotry of the age, and Henry's extortions. In 1255 Henry made a fresh demand of 8000 marks from the Jews, and threatened to hang them if they refused compliance. The Jews now lost all patience, and desired leave to retire with their effects out of the kingdom: but the king replied, "How can I remedy the oppression you complain of? I am myself a beggar; I am despoiled; an stripped of all my revenues; I owe above 200,000 marks; and if I had 500,000 I should not exceed the truth; I am obliged to pe-

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my son prince Edward 15,000 marks a year; I have not a farthing, and I must have money from any hand, from any quarter, or by any means." King John, his father, once demanded 10,000 marks from a Jew at Bristol; and, on his refusal, ordered one of his teeth to be drawn every day till he should consent. The Jew lost seven teeth, and then paid the sum required of him. Trial by *ordeal* was now entirely dis- used, and that by *duel* discouraged. Bracton's famous law treatise was published in this reign.

Edward returning to England, on the news of his father's death, in- vited all who held of his crown *in capite*, to his coronation dinner, which consisted (that the reader may have some idea of the luxury of the times) of 278 bacon hogs, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 sheep, 22,600 hens and capons, and 13 fat goats. (See Rymer's *Fœdera*.) Alexander III, king of Scotland, was at the solemnity, and on the occasion 700 horses were let loose, for those that could catch them to keep them.

Edward was a brave and politic prince; and being perfectly well ac- quainted with the laws, interests, and constitution of his kingdom, his regulations, and reformation of the laws, have justly given him the title of the English Justinian. He passed the famous Mortmain act, whereby all persons "were restrained from giving, by will or *otherwise*, their estates to (those *so called*) religious purposes, and the societies that never die, without a licence from the crown." He granted certain privileges to the Cinque Ports, which, though now very inconsiderable, were then obliged to attend the king when he went beyond sea, with fifty-seven ships, each having twenty armed soldiers on board, and to maintain them at their own costs for the space of fifteen days. He reduced the Welch to pay him tribute, and annexed that principality to his crown, and was the first who gave the title of prince of Wales to his eldest son.

His vast connections with the continent were productive of many benefits to his subjects, particularly by the introduction of reading- glasses and spectacles; though they are said to have been invented in the late reign, by the famous friar Bacon. Windmills were erected in England about the same time, and the regulation of gold and silver workmanship was ascertained by an assay, and mark of the goldsmiths' workshop. After all, Edward's continental wars were unfortunate both to his subjects and the English, by draining them of their wealth; and it is to be regretted, that he too much neglected the woollen manufactures of his kingdom, which was often embroiled with the pope, especially upon the affairs of Scotland; and he died in 1307, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, and thirty fifth of his reign, while he was engaged in a new expedition against Scotland. He ordered his heart to be sent to the Holy Land, with 32,000 pounds for the maintenance of the *Holy Sepulchre*.

His son and successor Edward II. shewed early dispositions for en- couraging favourites; but Gaveston, his chief minion, a Gascon, being banished by his father Edward, he mounted the throne with vast advantages, both political and personal, all which he soon forfeited by his imprudence. He recalled Gaveston, and loaded him with honours, and married Isabella, daughter of the French king, who re- ceived in full right of the territories which Edward I. had lost in France. The barons, however, obliged him once more to banish his favourite, and to confirm the Great Charter, while king Robert Bruce recovered Scotland, excepting the castle of Stirling; near to which, at Ban- burn, Edward in person received the greatest defeat England ever sustained, in 1314. Gaveston being beheaded by the barons, they fixed

upon young Hugh Spencer as a spy upon the king; but he soon became his favourite. He, through his pride, avarice, and ambition, was banished, together with his father, whom he had procured to be made earl of Winchester. The queen, a furious, ambitious woman, persuaded her husband to recall the Spencers, while the common people, from their hatred to the barons, joined the king's standard, and, after defeating them, restored him to the exercise of all his prerogatives. A cruel use was made of those successes; and many noble patriots, with their estates, fell victims to the queen's revenge; but at last she became enamoured with Roger Mortimer, who was her prisoner, and had been one of the most active of the anti-royalist lords. A breach between her and the Spencers soon followed; and going over to France with her lover, she found means to form such a party in England, that, returning with some French troops, she put the eldest Spencer to an ignominious death, made her husband prisoner, and forced him to abdicate his crown in favour of his son Edward III. then fifteen years of age. Nothing now but the death of Edward II. was wanting to complete her guilt; and he was most barbarously murdered in Berkley castle, by ruffians, supposed to be employed by her and her paramour Mortimer, in the year 1327.

Upon an equal quantity of silver, the difference of living, then and now, seems to be nearly as five to one; always remembering that their money contained thrice as much silver as our money or coin of the same denomination does. Thus, for example, if a goose then cost 2d. that is, $\frac{2}{100}$ of our money, or according to the proportion of six to one, it would now cost us 3s. 6d. The knights Templars were suppressed in this reign, owing to their enormous vices.

Edward III. mounted the throne in 1327. He was then under the tuition of his mother, who cohabited with Mortimer; and they endeavoured to keep possession of their power by executing many popular measures, and putting an end to all national differences with Scotland; for which Mortimer was created earl of March. Edward, young as he was, was soon sensible of their designs. He surprised them in person at the head of a few chosen friends in the castle of Nottingham. Mortimer was put to a public death, hanged as a traitor on the common gallows at Tyburn, and the queen herself was shut up in confinement twenty-eight years, to her death. It was not long before Edward found means to quarrel with David, king of Scotland, though he had married his sister. David was driven to France by Edward Baliol, who acted as Edward's tributary, king of Scotland and general, and did the same homage to Edward for Scotland, as his father had done to Edward I. Soon after, upon the death of Charles the Fair, king of France (without issue), who had succeeded by virtue of the Salic law, which the French pretended, cut off all female succession to that crown, Philip of Valois claimed it, as being the next heir male by succession; but he was opposed by Edward, as being the son of Isabella, who was sister to the three last-mentioned kings of France, and first in the female succession. The former was preferred; but the case being doubtful, Edward pursued his claim, and invaded France with a powerful army.

On this occasion, the vast difference between the feudal constitution of France, which were then in full force, and the government of England, more favourable to public liberty, appeared. The French officers knew no subordination. They and their men were equally undisciplined and disobedient, though far more numerous than their enemies in the field. The English footmen, on the other hand, having

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now vast property to fight for, which they could call their own, inde-
 pendent of a feudal law, knew its value, and had learned to defend it by
 providing themselves with proper armour, and submitting to military
 exercises; and proper subordination in the field. The war, on the part
 of Edward, was therefore a continued scene of success and victory.
 In 1340 he took the title of king of France, using it in all public acts,
 and quartered the arms of France with his own, adding this motto,
Dieu et mon droit, "God and my right." At Cressy, August 26th, 1346,
 above 100,000 French were defeated, chiefly by the valour of the prince
 of Wales, who was but sixteen years of age (his father being no more
 than thirty-four); though the English did not exceed 30,000. The loss
 of the French far exceeded the number of the English army, whose
 loss consisted of no more than three knights and one esquire, and about
 fifty private men. The battle of Poitiers was fought in 1356, between
 the prince of Wales and the French king John, but with great superior
 advantages of numbers on the part of the French, who were totally de-
 feated; and their king and his favourite son Philip taken prisoners. It
 is thought that the number of French killed in this battle was double
 that of all the English army; but the modesty and politeness with which
 the prince treated his royal prisoners, formed the brightest wreath in
 his garland.
 Edward's glories were not confined to France. Having left his queen
 Philippa, daughter to the earl of Hainault, regent of England, she had
 the good fortune to take prisoner David king of Scotland, who had
 ventured to invade England, about six weeks after the battle of Cressy
 was fought, and remained a prisoner eleven years. Thus Edward had
 the glory to see two crowned heads his captives at London. Both kings
 were afterwards ransomed; David for 100,000 marks, and John for
 three millions of gold crowns; but John returned to England, and died
 at the palace of the Savoy. After the treaty of Breigny, into which
 Edward III. is said to have been frightened by a dreadful storm, his
 fortunes declined. He had resigned his French dominions entirely to
 the prince of Wales; and he sunk in the esteem of his subjects at home,
 on account of his attachment to his mistress, one Alice Pierce. The
 prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince, from his wear-
 ing that armour while he was making a glorious campaign in Spain,
 where he reinstated Peter the Cruel on that throne, was seized with a
 consumption disorder, which carried him off in the year 1372. His
 father did not long survive him; for he died, dispirited and obscure,
 at Sheene in Surry, in the year 1377, the sixty-fifth of his age, and fifty-
 first of his reign.
 No prince ever understood the balance and interests of Europe better
 than Edward did; and he was one of the best and most illustrious kings
 that sat on the English throne. Bent on the conquest of France, he
 satisfied the more readily his people in their demands for protection
 and security to their liberties and properties; but he thereby exhausted
 his regal dominions; neither was his successor, when he mounted the
 throne, so powerful a prince as he was in the beginning of his reign.
 He was the glory of inviting over and protecting fullers, dyers, weavers,
 and other artificers from Flanders, and of establishing the woollen ma-
 nufacture among the English, who, till his time, generally exported the
 raw materials.
 He was also the first in England that had the title of *Duke*, being created by his
 father Duke of Cornwall; and, ever since, the eldest son of the king of England is by
 birth duke of Cornwall.

unwrought commodity. The rate of living in his reign seems to have been much the same as in the preceding; and few of the English ships, even if war, exceeded forty or fifty tons. But notwithstanding the vast increase of property in England, villanage still continued in the royal, episcopal, and baronial manors. Historians are not agreed whether Edward made use of artillery in his first invasion of France: but it certainly was well known before his death. The magnificent castle of Windsor was built by Edward III. and his method of conducting that war may serve as a specimen of the condition of the people of that age. Instead of alluring workmen by contracts and wages, he affected every county in England to send him so many masons, tilers, and carpenters, as if he had been levying an army. Soldiers were enlisted only for a short time; they lived idle all the rest of the year, and commonly all the rest of their lives; one successful campaign, by pay and plunder, and the ransom of prisoners, was supposed to be a small fortune to a man, which was a great allurements to enter into the service. The wages of a master carpenter was limited through the whole year to three pence a day, a common carpenter to two pence, money of that

age. **John Wickliffe**, a secular priest, educated at Oxford, began in the latter end of this reign, to spread the doctrines of reformation, by his discourses, sermons, and writings; and he made many disciples of all ranks and stations. He was a man of parts, learning, and piety; and he has the honour of being the first person in Europe who publicly called in question those doctrines which had generally passed for certain and undoubted during so many ages. The doctrines of Wickliffe, being derived from his search into the scriptures, and into ecclesiastical antiquity, were nearly the same with those propagated by the reformers in the sixteenth century. But though the age seemed strongly disposed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution, which was reserved for a more free and inquiring age. He had many friends in the university of Oxford, and at court; and was powerfully protected against the evil designs of the pope and bishops; by John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, one of the king's sons, and other great men. His disciples were distinguished by the name of Wickliffites or Lollards.

Richard II. son of the Black Prince, was only eleven years of age when he mounted the throne. The English arms were then unsuccessful in France and Scotland; but the doctrines of Wickliffe took root under the influence of the duke of Lancaster, the king's uncle, and one of his guardians, and gave enlarged notions of liberty to the villains, and lower ranks of people. The truth is, agriculture was then in so flourishing a state, that corn, and other victuals, were suffered to be transported, and the English had fallen upon a way of manufacturing, for exportation, their leather, horns, and other native commodities; and with regard to the woollen manufactures, they seem, from records, to have been exceeded by none in Europe. John of Gaunt's foreign connections with the crowns of Portugal and Spain were of prejudice to England; and so many men were employed in unsuccessful wars, that the commons of England, like powder receiving a spark of fire, all at once flamed out into rebellion, under the conduct of Ball, a priest, Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and others, the lowest of the people. The conduct of these insurgents was very violent, and in many respects extremely unjustifiable; but it cannot justly be denied, that the common people of England then laboured under many op-

pressions, particularly a poll-tax, and had abundant reason to be discontented with the government.

Richard was not then above sixteen; but he acted with great spirit and wisdom. He faced the storm of the insurgents, at the head of the Londoners, while Walworth the mayor, and Philpot an alderman, had the courage to put Tyler, the leader of the malcontents, to death, in the midst of his adherents. Richard then associated to himself a new set of favourites. His people and great lords again took up arms, and being headed by the duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle, they forced Richard once more into terms; but being insincere in all his compliances, he was upon the point of becoming more despotic than any king in England ever had been, when he lost his crown and life by a sudden catastrophe.

A quarrel happened between the duke of Hereford, son to the duke of Lancaster, and the duke of Norfolk; and Richard banished them both, with particular marks of injustice to the former, who now became duke of Lancaster by his father's death. Richard carrying over a great army to quell a rebellion in Ireland, a strong party formed in England, the natural result of Richard's tyranny, who offered the duke of Lancaster the crown. He landed from France at Raynham in Yorkshire, and was soon at the head of 60,000 men, all of them English. Richard hurried back to England, where, his troops refusing to fight, and his subjects, whom he had affected to despise, generally deserting him, he was made prisoner with no more than twenty attendants, and being carried to London, he was deposed in full parliament, upon a formal charge of tyranny and misconduct; and, soon after, he is supposed to have been starved to death in prison, in the year 1399, the thirty-fourth of his age, and the twenty-third of his reign. He had no issue by either of his two marriages.

Though the nobility of England were possessed of great power at the time of this revolution, yet we do not find that it abated the influence of the commons. They had the courage to remonstrate boldly in parliament against the usury, which was but too much practised in England, and other abuses of both clergy and laity; and the destruction of the feudal powers soon followed.

Henry the Fourthth, son of John of Gaunt duke of Lancaster, fourth son of Edward III. being settled on the throne of England, in preference to the elder branches of Edward III.'s family, the great nobility were in hopes that this glaring defect in his title would render him dependent upon them. At first some conspiracies were formed against him among the great men, as the dukes of Surry and Exeter, the earls of Gloucester, and Salisbury, and the archbishop of York; but he crushed them by his activity and steadiness, and laid a plan for reducing their overgrown power. This was understood by the Percy family, the greatest in the north of England, who complained of Henry having deprived them of some Scotch prisoners, whom they had taken in battle; and the danger-

* The throne being now vacant, the duke of Lancaster stepped forth, and having crossed himself on his forehead and on his breast, and called upon the name of Christ, he pronounced these words, which I shall give in the original language, because of their singularity.

In the name of Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, I Henry of Lancaster, challenge this realm of England; and the crown, with all the members, and the appurtenances; as I that am descended by right line of the blood (meaning a claim in right of his mother) coming from the wife of Henry Third, and throve that right that God of his grace hath sent me, with help of his good will, and of my friends, to recover it; the which realm was in paynt to be undone by default of government, and enoying of the gude lawes.

ous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberland, and his son the famous Henry Percy, surnamed Hotspur; but it ended in the defeat of the rebels, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales. With equal good fortune, Henry suppressed the insurrection of the Welch, under Owen Glendower; and by his prudent concessions to his parliament, to the commons particularly, he at last conquered all opposit^{ion}, while, to save the defect of his title, the parliament entailed the crown upon him, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten, thereby shutting out all female succession. The young duke of Rothsay, heir to the crown of Scotland (afterwards James I. of that kingdom), falling a prisoner into Henry's hands, about this time, was of infinite service to his government; and, before his death, which happened in 1413, in the forty-sixth year of his age, and thirteenth of his reign, he had the satisfaction to see his son and successor, the prince of Wales, disengage himself from many youthful follies, which till then had disgraced his conduct.

The English marine was now so greatly increased, that we find an English vessel of 200 tons in the Baltic, and many other ships of equal burden, carrying on an immense trade all over Europe, but with the Hanse towns in particular. With regard to public liberty, Henry IV. as I have already hinted, was the first prince who gave the different orders in parliament, especially that of the commons, their due weight. It is however a little surprising, that learning was at this time in a much lower state in England, and all over Europe, than it had been 200 years before. Bishops, when testifying synodal acts, were often forced to do it by proxy, in the following terms, viz. "As I cannot read myself, N. N. hath subscribed for me;" or, "As my lord bishop cannot write himself, at his request, I have subscribed." By the influence of the court, and the intrigues of the clergy, an act was obtained in the session of parliament 1401, for the burning of heretics, occasioned by the great increase of the Wickliffites or Lollards; and immediately after, one *St. Thomas*, parish priest of St. Osithe in London, was burnt alive by the king's writ, directed to the mayor and sheriffs of London.

The balance of trade with foreign parts was against England at the accession of Henry V. in 1413; so greatly had luxury increased. The Lollards, or the followers of Wickliffe, were excessively numerous; and Sir John Oldcastle and lord Cobham having joined them, it was pretended that he had agreed to put himself at their head, with a design to overturn the government; but this appears to have been a groundless accusation, from a bloody zeal of the clergy, though he was put to death in consequence of it. His only real crime seems to have been the spirit with which he opposed the superstition of the age; and he was the first of the nobility who suffered on account of religion. Henry was about this time engaged in a contest with France, which he had many incitements for invading. He demanded a restitution of Normandy, and other provinces that had been taken from England in the preceding reigns; also the payment of certain arrears due for king John's ransom since the reign of Edward III. and availing himself of the distracted state of that kingdom by the Orleans and Burgundy factions, he invaded it, where he first took Harfleur, and then defeated the French in the battle of Agincourt, which equalled those of Cressy and Poitiers in glory to the English, but exceeded them in its consequences, on account of the vast number of French princes of the blood, and other great noblemen, who were there killed. Henry, who was as great a politician as a warrior, made such alliances, and divided the French

among themselves so effectually, that he forced the queen of France, whose husband, Charles VI. was a lunatic, to agree to his marrying her daughter, the princess Catharine, to disinherit the dauphin, and to declare Henry regent of France during her husband's life, and him and his issue successors to the French monarchy, which must at this time have been exterminated, had not the Scots (though their king still continued Henry's captive) furnished the dauphin with vast supplies, and preserved the French crown for his head. Henry, however, made a triumphal entry into Paris, where the dauphin was proscribed; and after receiving the fealty of the French nobility, he returned to England to levy a force that might crush the dauphin and his Scottish auxiliaries. He probably would have been successful, had he not died of a pleuritic disorder, 1422, the thirty-fourth year of his age, and the tenth of his reign.

Henry V.'s vast successes in France revived the trade of England, and at the same time increased and established the privileges and liberties of the English commonalty. As he died when he was only thirty-four years of age, it is hard to say, if he had lived, whether he might not have given the law to all the continent of Europe, which was then greatly distracted by the divisions among its princes; but whether this would have been of service or prejudice to the growing liberties of his English subjects, we cannot determine.

By an authentic and exact account of the ordinary revenues of the crown during this reign, it appears that they amounted only to 557,14 l. a year, which is nearly the same with the revenues in Henry III.'s time; and the kings of England had neither become much richer nor poorer in the course of 200 years. The ordinary expenses of the government amounted to 52,507 l. so that the king had of surplus only 3,207 l. for the support of his household, for his wardrobe, for the expenses of embassies, and other articles. This sum was not nearly sufficient even in time of peace; and to carry on his wars, this great conqueror was reduced to many miserable shifts; he borrowed from all quarters, he pawned his jewels, and sometimes the crown itself; he ran in arrears to his army; and he was often obliged to stop in the midst of his career of victory, and to grant a truce to the enemy. I mention these particulars that the reader may judge of the simplicity and temperance of our predecessors three centuries ago, when the expenses of the greatest king in Europe were scarcely equal to the pension of a superannuated courtier of the present age.

It required a prince equally able with Henry IV. and V. to confirm the title of the Lancaster house to the throne of England. Henry VI. surnamed of Windsor, was no more than nine months old, when, in consequence of the treaty of Troyes, concluded by his father with the French court, he was proclaimed king of France as well as England. He was under the tuition of his two uncles, the dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, both of them princes of great accomplishments, virtues, and courage, but unable to preserve their brother's conquests. Upon the death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his family revived in the person of his son and successor Charles VII. The duke of Bedford, who was regent of France, performed many glorious actions, and at last laid siege to Orleans, which, if taken, would have completed the conquest of France. The siege was raised by the valour and good conduct of the Maid of Orleans, a phenomenon hardly to be paralleled in history, she being born of the lowest extraction, and bred a cow-keeper, and some time a helper in stables in public inns. She must, notwith-

standing, have possessed an amazing fund of sagacity as well as valour. After an unparalleled train of heroic actions, and placing the crown upon her sovereign's head, she was taken prisoner by the English in making a sally during the siege of Compiegne, who burnt her alive for a witch, at Roen, May 30, 1431.

The death of the duke of Bedford, and the agreement of the duke of Burgundy, the great ally of the English, with Charles VII. contributed to the utter ruin of the English interest in France, and the loss of all their fine provinces in that Kingdom, notwithstanding the amazing courage of Talbot the first earl of Shrewsbury, and their other officers. The capital misfortune of England, at this time, was its division at home. The duke of Gloucester lost his authority in the government, and the king married Margaret of Anjou, daughter to the needy king of Sicily; a woman of a high spirit, but an implacable disposition; while the cardinal of Winchester, who was the richest subject in England, if not in Europe, presided at the head of the treasury, and by his avarice ruined the interest of England, both at home and abroad. Next to the cardinal, the duke of York, who was lord lieutenant of Ireland, was the most powerful subject in England. He was descended by the mother's side from Lionel, an elder son of Edward III. and prior in claim to the reigning king, who was descended from John of Gaunt, Edward's youngest son; and he affected to keep up the distinction of a white rose; that of the house of Lancaster being red. It is certain that he paid no regard to the parliamentary entail of the crown upon the reigning family; and he lost no opportunity of forming a party to assert his rights; but acted at first with a most profound dissimulation. The duke of Suffolk was a favourite of the queen, who was a professed enemy to the duke of York; but being impeached in parliament, he was banished for five years, and had his head struck off on board a ship, by a common sailor. This was followed by an insurrection of 20,000 Kentish-men, headed by one Jack Cade, a man of low condition, who sent to the court a list of grievances; but he was defeated by the valour of the citizens of London, and the queen seemed to be perfectly secure against the duke of York. The inglorious management of the English affairs in France befriended him; and upon his arrival in England from Ireland, he found a strong party of the nobility his friends; but being considered as the fomentor of Cade's rebellion, he professed the most profound reverence to Henry.

The persons in high power and reputation in England, next to the duke of York, were the earl of Salisbury, and his son the earl of Warwick. The latter had the greatest land estate of any subject in England, and his vast abilities, joined to some virtues, rendered him equally popular. Both father and son were secretly on the side of York; and during a fit of illness of the king, that duke was made protector of the realm. Both sides now prepared for arms, and the king recovering, the queen with wonderful activity assembled an army; but the royalists were defeated in the first battle of St. Alban's, and the king himself was taken prisoner. The duke of York was once more declared protector of the kingdom, but it was not long before the queen resumed all her influence in the government, and the king, though his weaknels became every day more and more visible, recovered all his authority.

The duke of York upon this threw off the mask, and, in 1459, he openly claimed the crown, and the queen was again defeated by the earl of Warwick, who was now called the king-maker. A parliament upon this being assembled, it was enacted that Henry should possess the

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throne for life, but that the duke of York should succeed him, to the exclusion of all Henry's issue. All, excepting the magnanimous queen, agreed to this compromise. She retreated northwards; and the king being still a prisoner, she pleaded his cause so well, that, assembling a fresh army, she fought the battle of Wakefield, where the duke of York was defeated and slain, in 1460.

It is remarkable, that, though the duke of York and his party openly asserted his claim to the crown, they still professed allegiance to Henry; but the duke of York's son, afterwards Edward IV. prepared to revenge his father's death, and obtained several victories over the royalists. The queen, however, advanced towards London; and defeating the earl of Warwick, in the second battle of St. Alban's, she delivered her husband; but the disorders committed by her northern troops disgusted the Londoners so much, that she durst not enter London, where the duke of York was received, on the 23rd of February 1461, while the queen and her husband were obliged to retreat northwards. She soon raised another army, and fought the battle of Towton, the most bloody perhaps that ever happened in any civil war. After prodigies of valour had been performed on both sides, the victory remained with young king Edward, and near 40,000 men lay dead on the field of battle. Margaret and her husband were once more obliged to fly to Scotland, where they met with generous protection.

This civil war was carried on with greater animosity than any perhaps ever known. Margaret was as blood-thirsty as her opponents; and when prisoners on either side were made, their deaths, especially if they were of any rank, were deferred only for a few hours.

Margaret, by the concessions she made to the Scots, soon raised a fresh army there, and in the north of England; but met with defeat upon defeat, till at last her husband, the unfortunate Henry, was carried prisoner to London.

The duke of York, now Edward IV. being crowned on the 20th of June, fell in love with, and privately married Elizabeth, the widow of sir John Gray, though he had some time before sent the earl of Warwick to demand the king of France's sister in marriage, in which embassy he was successful, and nothing remained but the bringing over the princess into England. When the secret of Edward's marriage broke out, the haughty earl, deeming himself affronted, returned to England inflamed with rage and indignation; and, from being Edward's best friend, became his most formidable enemy; and gaining over the duke of Clarence, Edward was made prisoner, but escaping from his confinement, the earl of Warwick and the French king, Lewis XI. declared for the restoration of Henry, who was replaced on the throne, and Edward narrowly escaped to Holland. Returning from thence, he advanced to London, under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York; but being received into the capital, he resumed the exercise of royal authority, made king Henry once more his prisoner, and defeated and killed Warwick, in the battle of Barnet. A few days after he defeated a fresh army of Lancastrians, and made queen Margaret prisoner, together with her son prince Edward, whom Edward's brother, the duke of Gloucester, murdered in cold blood, as he is said (but with no great show of probability) to have done his father Henry VI. then a prisoner in the tower of London, a few days after, in the year 1471.

Edward, partly to amuse the public, and partly to supply the vast expenses of his court, pretended sometimes to quarrel, and sometimes to

tract with France: but his irregularities brought him to his death (1483) in the twenty-third year of his reign, and forty-second of his age.

Notwithstanding the turbulence of the times, the trade and manufactures of England, particularly the woollen, increased during the reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. So early as 1440, a navigation act was thought of by the English, as the only means to preserve to themselves the benefit of being the sole carriers of their own merchandise; but foreign influence prevented Henry's passing the bill for that purpose. The invention of printing, which is generally supposed to have been imported into England by William Caxton, and which received some countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign; but learning in general was then in a poor state in England. The lord Tiptoft was its great patron, and seems to have been the first English nobleman who cultivated what are now called the belles lettres. The books printed by Caxton are mostly re-translations, or compilations from the French or monkish Latin; but it must be acknowledged, at the same time, that literature, after this period, made a more rapid and general progress among the English, than it did in any other European nation. The famous Littleton, judge of the Common Pleas, and Fortescue, chancellor of England, flourished at this period.

Edward IV. left two sons by his queen, who had exercised her power with no great prudence, by having nobilitated many of her obscure relations. Her eldest son, Edward V. was about thirteen; and his uncle, the duke of Gloucester, taking advantage of the queen's unpopularity among the great men, found means to bastardise her issue, by act of parliament, under the scandalous pretext of a pre-contract between their father and another lady. The duke, at the same time, was declared guardian of the kingdom, and at last accepted the crown, which was offered him by the Londoners; having first put to death all the nobility and great men, whom he thought to be well affected to the late king's family. Whether the king and his brother were murdered in the Tower by his direction, is doubtful. The most probable opinion is, that they were clandestinely sent abroad by his orders; and that the elder died, but that the younger survived, and was the same who was well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck. Be this as it will, the English were prepossessed so strongly against Richard, as being the murderer of his nephews, that the earl of Richmond, who still remained in France, carried on a secret correspondence with the remains of Edward IV.'s friends; and by offering to marry his eldest daughter, he was encouraged to invade England at the head of about 2000 foreign troops; but they were soon joined by 7000 English and Welch. A battle between him and Richard, who was at the head of 15,000 men, ensued at Bosworth field, in which Richard, after displaying most astonishing acts of personal valour, was killed, having been first abandoned by a main division of his army, under lord Stanley and his brother, in the year 1485.

Though the same act of bastardy affected the daughters as well as the sons of the late king, yet no disputes were raised upon the legitimacy of the princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter to Edward IV. and who, as had been before concerted, married Henry of Lancaster, earl of Richmond, thereby uniting both houses; which happily put an end to the long and bloody wars between the contending houses of York and Lancaster. Henry, however, rested his right upon conquest, and seemed to pay little regard to the advantages of his marriage. He was the first who

instituted that guard called *Yeomen*, which still subsists; and, in imitation of his predecessor, he gave an irrecoverable blow to the dangerous privileges assumed by the barons, in abolishing liveries and retainers, by which every malefactor could shelter himself from the law, on assuming a nobleman's livery, and attending his person. The despotic court of star-chamber owed its original to Henry; but, at the same time, it must be acknowledged, that he passed many acts, especially for trade and navigation, that were highly for the benefit of his subjects; and, as a finishing stroke to the feudal tenures, an act passed, by which the barons and gentlemen of landed interest were at liberty to sell and mortgage their lands, without fines or licences for the alienation.

This, if we regard its consequences, is perhaps the most important act that ever passed in an English parliament, though its tendency seems only to have been known to the politic king. Luxury, by the increase of trade, and the discovery of America, had broken with irresistible force into England; and moneyed property being chiefly in the hands of the commons, the estates of the barons became theirs, but without any of their dangerous privileges; and thus the baronial powers were gradually extinguished in England.

Henry, after encountering and surmounting many difficulties both in France and Ireland, was attacked in the possession of his throne by a young man, one Perkin Warbeck, who pretended to be the duke of York, second son to Edward IV. and was acknowledged as such by the duchess of Burgundy, Edward's sister. We shall not follow the adventures of this young man, which were various and uncommon; but it is plain that many of the English, with the courts of France and Scotland, believed him to be what he pretended. Henry endeavoured to procure the death of Edward V. and his brother, but never did it to the public satisfaction; and though James IV. of Scotland dismissed Perkin out of his dominions, being engaged in a treaty of marriage with Henry's eldest daughter, yet, by the kind manner in which he entertained and dismissed him, it is plain that he believed him to be the real duke of York, especially as he refused to deliver up his person; which he might have done with honour, had he thought him an impostor. Perkin, after various unfortunate adventures, fell into Henry's hands, and was shut up in the Tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to escape along with the innocent earl of Warwick; for which Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded. In 1499, Henry's eldest son, Arthur prince of Wales, was married to the princess Catharine of Arragon, daughter to the king and queen of Spain; and he dying soon after, such was Henry's reluctance to refund her great dowry, 200,000 crowns of gold, that he consented to her being married again to his second son, then prince of Wales, on pretence that the first match had not been consummated. Soon after, Henry's eldest daughter, the princess Margaret, was sent with a most magnificent train to Scotland, where she was married to James IV. Henry, at the time of his death, which happened in 1509, the sixty-second year of his age, and twenty-fourth of his reign, was possessed of 1,600,000l. sterling, which is equivalent to five millions at present; so that he may be supposed to have been master of more ready money than all the kings in Europe besides possessed, the mines of Peru and Mexico being then only beginning to be worked. He was immoderately fond of replenishing his coffers, and often tricked his parliament to grant him subsidies for foreign alliances which he intended not to pursue.

The vast alteration which happened in the constitution of England during Henry VII.'s reign, has been already mentioned. His excessive love of money, and his avarice, was the probable reason why he did not become master of the West Indies, he having the first offer of the discovery from Columbus; whose proposals being rejected by Henry, that great man applied to the court of Spain, and he set out upon the discovery of a new world in the year 1492, which he effected after a passage of thirty-three days, and took possession of the country in the name of the king and queen of Spain. Henry, however, made some amends by encouraging Cabot, a Venetian, who discovered the main land of North America in 1498; and we may observe, to the praise of this king, that sometimes, in order to promote commerce, he lent to merchants sums of money without interest, when he knew that their stock was not sufficient for those enterprises which they had in view. From the proportional prices of living, produced by Maddox, Fleetwood; and other writers, agriculture and breeding of cattle must have been prodigiously advanced before Henry's death. An instance of this is given in the case of lady Anne, sister to Henry's queen, who had an allowance of 20s. per week for her exhibition, sustentation, and convenient diet of meat and drink; also for two gentlewomen, one woman child, one gentleman, one yeoman, and three grooms (in all eight persons); 51l. 11s. 8d. per annum for their wages, diet, and clothing; and for the maintenance of seven horses, 16l. 9s. 4d. i. e. for each horse, 2l. 7s. 6½d. yearly, money being still 1¼ times as weighty as our modern silver coin. Wheat was at that day no more than 3s. 4d. a quarter, which answers to 5s. of our money; consequently it was about seven times as cheap as at present: so that, had all other necessaries been equally cheap, she could have lived as well as on 1260l. 10s. 6d. of our modern money, or ten times as cheap as at present.

The fine arts were as far advanced in England at the accession of Henry VIII. 1509, as in any European country, if we except Italy; and perhaps no prince ever entered with greater advantages than he did on the exercise of royalty. Young, vigorous, and rich, without any rival, he held the balance of power in Europe; but it is certain that he neglected those advantages in commerce with which his father became too lately acquainted. Imagining he could not stand in need of a supply, he did not improve Cabot's discoveries; and he suffered the East and West Indies to be engrossed by Portugal and Spain. His vanity engaged him too much in the affairs of the continent; and his flatterers encouraged him to make preparations for the conquest of all France. These projects, and his establishing what is properly called a *naval royal*, for the permanent defence of the nation (a most excellent measure), led him into incredible expenses. He became a candidate for the German empire, during its vacancy; but soon resigned his pretensions to Francis I. of France, and Charles of Austria, king of Spain, who was elected in 1519. Henry's conduct, in the long and bloody wars between those princes, was directed by Wolsey's views upon the papedom, which he hoped to gain by the interest of Charles; but finding himself twice deceived, he persuaded his master to declare himself for Francis, who had been taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia. Henry, however, continued to be the dupe of all parties, and to pay great part of their expenses, till at last he was forced to lay vast burthens upon his subjects.

Henry continued all this time the great enemy of the reformation, and the champion of the popes and the Romish church. He wrote a

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book against Luther, "of the *Seven Sacraments*," about the year 1521, for which the pope gave him the title of *Defender of the Faith*, which his successors retain to this day; but, about the year 1527, he began to have some scruples with regard to the validity of his marriage with his brother's widow. I shall not say, how far on this occasion he might be influenced by scruples of his conscience, or aversion to the queen; or the charms of the famous Anne Boleyn, maid of honour to the queen, whom he married, before he had obtained from Rome the proper bulls of divorce from the pope. The difficulties he met with in this process, ruined Wolsey, who died heart-broken, after being stripped of his immense power and possessions.

A variety of circumstances, it is well known, induced Henry at last to throw of all relation to, or dependence upon, the church of Rome; and to bring about a reformation; in which, however, many of the Romish errors and superstitions were retained. Henry never could have effected this mighty measure, had it not been for his despotic disposition, which broke out on every occasion. Upon a slight suspicion of his queen's inconstancy, and after a sham trial, he cut off her head in the Tower, and put to death some of her nearest relations; and in many respects he acted in the most arbitrary manner; his wishes, however unreasonable, being too readily complied with, in consequence of the shameful servility of his parliaments. The dissolution of the religious houses, and the immense wealth that came to Henry by seizing all the ecclesiastical property in his kingdom, enabled him to give full scope to his sanguinary disposition; so that the best and most innocent blood of England was shed on scaffolds, and seldom any long time passed without being marked with some illustrious victim of his tyranny. Among others, was the aged countess of Salisbury, descended immediately from Edward IV. and mother to cardinal Pole; the marquis of Exeter, the lord Montague, and others of the blood royal, for holding a correspondence with that cardinal.

His third wife was Jane Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune and family; but she died in bringing Edward VI. into the world. His fourth wife was Anne, sister to the duke of Cleves. He disliked her so much, that he scarcely bedded with her; and obtaining a divorce, he suffered her to reside in England on a pension of 3000*l.* a year. His fifth wife was Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whose head he cut off for ante-nuptial incontinency. His last wife was queen Catharine Par, in whose possession he died, after she had narrowly escaped being brought to the stake, for her religious opinions, which favoured the reformation. Henry's cruelty increased with his years, and was now exercised promiscuously on protestants and catholics. He put the brave earl of Surry to death, without a crime being proved against him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, must have suffered the next day, had he not been saved by Henry's own death, 1547, in the 56th year of his age, and the 38th of his reign.

The state of England, during the reign of Henry VIII. is, by the means of printing, better known than that of his predecessors. His attention to the naval security of England was highly commendable; and it is certain that he employed the unjust and arbitrary power he frequently assumed, in many respects for the glory and interest of his subjects. Without inquiring into his religious motives, it must be candidly confessed, that, had the reformation gone through all the forms prescribed by the laws and the courts of justice, it probably never could have taken place, or at least not for many years: and whatever

Henry's personal crimes or failings might have been, the partition he made of the church's property among his courtiers and favourites, and thereby rescuing it from dead hands, undoubtedly promoted the present greatness of England. With regard to learning and the arts, Henry was a generous encourager of both. He gave a pension to Erasmus, the most learned man of his age. He brought to England, encouraged, and protected Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign, noblemen's houses began to have the air of Italian magnificence and regularity. He was a constant and generous friend to Cranmer; and though he was, upon the whole, rather whimsical than settled in his own principles of religion, he advanced and encouraged many who became afterwards the instruments of a more pure reformation.

In this reign the Bible was ordered to be printed in English. Wales was united and incorporated with England. Ireland was created into a kingdom, and Henry took the title of king instead of lord of Ireland.

Edward VI. was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death; and after some disputes were over, the regency was settled in the person of his uncle the earl of Hertford, afterwards the protector, and duke of Somerset, a declared friend and patron of the reformation, and a bitter enemy to the see of Rome.

The reader is to observe in general, that the reformation was not effected without many public disturbances. The common people, during the reigns of Henry and Edward, being deprived of the last relief they had from abbeyes and religious houses, and being ejected from their small corn-growing farms, had often taken arms, but had been as often suppressed by the government; and several of these insurrections were crushed in this reign.

The reformation, however, went on rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer, and others, some of them foreign divines. In some cases, particularly with regard to the princess Mary, they lost sight of that moderation which the reformers had before so strongly recommended; and some cruel sanguinary executions, on account of religion, took place. Edward's youth excuses him from blame; and his charitable endowments, as Bridewell, and St. Thomas's hospitals, and also several schools which still exist and flourish, show the goodness of his heart. He died of a deep consumption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age, and the 7th of his reign.

Edward, on his death-bed, from his zeal for religion, had made a very unconstitutional will; for he set aside his sister Mary from the succession, which was claimed by lady Jane Grey, daughter to the duchess of Suffolk, younger sister to Henry VIII. This lady, though she had scarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the English nation recognised the claim of the princess Mary, who cut off lady Jane's head. Her husband, lord Guildford Dudley, son to the duke of Northumberland, also suffered in the same manner.

Mary being thus settled on the throne, suppressed an insurrection under Wyatt, and proceeded like a female Fury to re-establish popery, which she did all over England. She recalled cardinal Pole from banishment, made him instrumental in her cruelties, and lighted up the flames of persecution, in which archbishop Cranmer, the bishops Ridley, Hooper, and Latimer, and many other illustrious confessors of the English reformed church, were consumed; not to mention a vast number of other sacrifices of both sexes, and all ranks, that suffered through

every quarter of the kingdom. Bonner, bishop of London, and Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, were the chief executioners of her bloody mandates; and had she lived, she would have endeavoured to exterminate all her protestant subjects.

Mary now married Philip II. of Spain, who, like herself, was an unfeeling bigot to popery; and the chief praise of her reign is, that by the marriage-articles, provision was made for the independency of the English crown. By the assistance of troops which she furnished to her husband, he gained the important batt: of St. Quintin; but that victory was so ill improved, that the French, under the duke of Guise, soon after took Calais, the only place then remaining to the English in France, and which had been held ever since the reign of Edward III. This loss, which was chiefly owing to cardinal Pole's secret connections with the French court, is said to have broken Mary's heart; who died in 1558, in the 42d year of her life, and 6th of her reign. In the heat of her persecuting flames (says a contemporary writer of credit) were burnt to ashes, one archbishop, 4 bishops, 21 divines, 18 gentlemen, 84 artificers, and 100 husbandmen, servants, and labourers, 20 wives, 20 widows, 9 virgins, 2 boys, and 2 infants; one of them whipped to death by Bonner, and the other, springing out of the mother's womb from the stake, as she burned, thrown again into the fire. Several also died in prison, and many were otherwise cruelly treated.

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, mounted the throne under the most discouraging circumstances; both at home and abroad. Popery was the established religion of England; her title to the crown, on account of the circumstances attending her mother's marriage and death, was disputed by Mary queen of Scots, grandchild to Henry VII.'s eldest daughter, and wife to the dauphin of France; and the only ally she had on the continent was Philip king of Spain, who was the life and soul of the popish cause, both abroad and in England. Elizabeth was no more than 25 years of age at the time of her inauguration; but her sufferings under her bigoted sister, joined to the superiority of her genius, had taught her caution and policy; and she soon conquered all her difficulties.

In matters of religion she succeeded with surprising facility; for in her first parliament in 1559, the laws establishing popery were repealed, her supremacy was restored, and an act of uniformity passed soon after. And it is observed, that of 9400 beneficed clergymen in England, only about 100 refused to comply with the reformation. With regard to her title, she took advantage of the divided state of Scotland, and formed a party there, by which Mary, now become the widow of Francis II. of France, was obliged to renounce, or rather to suspend, her claim. Elizabeth, not contented with this, sent troops and money, which supported the Scotch malcontents, till Mary's unhappy marriage with lord Darnley, and then with Bothwell, the supposed murderer of the former, and her other misconduct and misfortunes, drove her to take refuge in Elizabeth's dominions, where she had often been promised a safe and honorable asylum. It is well known how unfaithful Elizabeth was to this profession of friendship, and that she detained the unhappy prisoner 18 years in England, then brought her to a sham trial, pretending that Mary aimed at the crown, and without sufficient proof of her guilt, cut off her head; an action which greatly tarnished the glories of her reign.

The same Philip who had been the husband of her late sister, upon Elizabeth's accession to the throne, offered to marry her: but she dextrously avoided his addresses; and by a train of skilful negotiations between her court and that of France, she kept the balance of Europe so undetermined, that she had leisure to unite her people at home, and to establish an excellent internal policy in her dominions. She supported the protestants of France, against their persecuting princes and the papists; and gave the dukes of Anjou and Alençon, brothers of the French king, the strongest assurances that one or other of them should be her husband; by which she kept that court, who dreaded Spain, at the same time in so good humour with her government, that it showed no resentment when she cut off queen Mary's head.

When Philip was no longer to be imposed upon by Elizabeth's arts, which had amused and baffled him in every quarter, it is well known that he made use of the immense sums he drew from Peru and Mexico, in equipping the most formidable armament that perhaps ever had been put to sea, and a numerous army of veterans, under the prince of Parma, the best captain of that age; and that he procured a papal bull for absolving Elizabeth's subjects from their allegiance. The largeness of the Spanish ships proved disadvantageous to them on the seas where they fought; the lord admiral Howard, and the brave sea officers under him, engaged, beat, and chased the Spanish fleet for several days; and the seas and tempests finished the destruction which the English arms had begun, and few of the Spanish ships recovered their ports. Next to the admiral, lord Howard of Effingham, sir Francis Drake, captain Hawkins, and captain Frobisher, distinguished themselves against this formidable invasion, in which the Spaniards are said to have lost 83 ships of war, large and small, and 13,500 men.

Elizabeth had for some time supported the revolt of the Hollanders from Philip, and had sent them her favourite, the earl of Leicester, who acted as her viceroy and general in the Low Countries. Though Leicester behaved ill, yet her measures were so wise, that the Dutch established their independency; and then she sent forth her fleets under Drake, Raleigh, the earl of Cumberland, and other gallant naval officers, into the East and West Indies, whence they brought prodigious treasures, taken from the Spaniards; into England.

Elizabeth in her old age grew distrustful, peevish, and jealous. Though she undoubtedly loved the earl of Essex, she teased him by her capriciousness into the madness of taking arms, and then cut off his head. She complained that she had been betrayed into this sanguinary measure, and this occasioned a sinking of her spirits, which brought her to her grave in 1603, the seventieth year of her age, and 45th of her reign, having previously named her kinsman James VI. king of Scotland, and son to Mary, for her successor.

The above form the great lines of Elizabeth's reign; and from them may be traced, either immediately or remotely, every act of her government. She supported the protestants in Germany against the house of Austria, of which Philip king of Spain was the head. She crushed the papists in her own dominions for the same reason, and made a farther reformation in the church of England, in which state it has remained ever since. In 1600 the English East-India company received its charter, that trade being then in the hands of the Portuguese (in consequence of their having first discovered the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, by Valco de Gama, in the reign of Henry VII.), w

who at that time were subjects to Spain; and factories were established in China, Japan, India, Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.

As to Elizabeth's internal government, the successes of her reign have disguised it; for she was far from being a friend to personal liberty, and she was guilty of many stretches of power against the most sacred rights of Englishmen. The severe statutes against the puritans, debarring them of liberty of conscience, and by which many suffered death, must be condemned.

We can scarcely require a stronger proof that the English began to be tired of Elizabeth, than the joy testified by all ranks at the accession of her successor, notwithstanding the long, inveterate animosities between the two kingdoms. James was far from being destitute of natural abilities for government; but he had received wrong impressions of the regal office, and too high an opinion of his own dignity, learning, and political talents. It was his misfortune that he mounted the English throne under a full conviction that he was entitled to all the unconstitutional powers that had been occasionally exercised by Elizabeth and the house of Tudor, and which various causes had prevented the people from opposing with proper vigour. The nation had been wearied and exhausted by the long and destructive wars between the houses of Lancaster and York, in the course of which, the ancient nobility were in great part cut off; and the people were inclined to endure much, rather than again involve themselves in the miseries of civil war. Neither did James make any allowance for the glories of Elizabeth, which, as I have observed, disguised her most arbitrary acts; and none for the free, liberal sentiments, which the improvement of knowledge and learning had diffused through England. It is needless to point out the vast increase of property through trade and navigation, which enabled the English at the same time to defend their liberties. James's first attempt of great consequence was to effect an union between England and Scotland; but though he failed in this through the aversion of the English to that measure, on account of his loading his Scotch courtiers with wealth and honours, he showed no violent resentment at the disappointment. It was an advantage to him at the beginning of his reign, that the courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enemies; and this opinion was increased by the discovery and defeat of the gunpowder treason*.

* This was a scheme of the Roman catholics to cut off at one blow the king, lords, and commons, at the meeting of Parliament; when it was also expected that the queen and prince of Wales would be present. The manner of enlisting any new conspirator was by oath, and administering the sacrament; and this dreadful secret, after being religiously kept near eighteen months, was happily discovered in the following manner: about ten days before the long-wished-for meeting of parliament, a Roman catholic peer received a letter, which had been delivered to his servant by an unknown hand, earnestly advising him to shift off his attendance in parliament at that time; but which contained no kind of explanation. The nobleman, though he considered the letter as a foolish attempt to frighten and ridicule him, thought proper to lay it before the king, who studying the contents with more attention, began to suspect some dangerous contrivance by gunpowder; and it was judged advisable to inspect all the vaults below the houses of parliament; but the search was purposely delayed till the night immediately preceding the meeting, when a justice of peace was sent with proper attendants; and before the door of the vault, under the upper house, finding one Fawkes, who had just finished all his preparations, he immediately seized him, and at the same time discovered in the vault 36 barrels of powder, which had been carefully concealed under faggots, and piles of wood. The match, with every thing proper for setting fire to the train, were found in Fawkes's pocket, whose countenance, bespoke his savage disposition, and who, after regretting that he had lost the opportunity of destroying to

James and his ministers were continually inventing new ways to raise money, as by monopolies, benevolences, loans, and other illegal methods. Among other expedients, he sold the titles of baron, viscount, and earl, at a certain price; made a number of knights of Nova Scotia, each to pay such a sum, and instituted a new order of knights baronets, which was to be hereditary, for which each person paid 1095l.

His pacific reign was a series of theological contests with ecclesiastical casuists, in which he proved himself more a theologian than a prince; and in 1617 he instituted a new order of episcopacy in Scotland; but the zeal of the people baffled his design.

James gave his daughter, the princess Elizabeth, in marriage to the elector Palatine, the most powerful protestant prince in Germany, and he soon after assumed the crown of Bohemia. The memory of James has been much abused for his tame behaviour, after that prince had lost his kingdom and electorate by the imperial arms; but it is to be observed, that he always opposed his son-in-law's assuming the crown of Bohemia; that, had he kindled a war to re-instate him in that and his electorate, he probably would have stood single in the same, excepting the feeble and uncertain assistance he might have received from the elector's dependents and friends in Germany. It is certain, however, that James furnished the elector with large sums of money to retrieve them, and that he actually raised a regiment of 2200 men under sir Horace Vere, who carried them over to Germany, where the Germans, under the marquis of Anspach, refused to second them against Spinola the Spanish general.

James has been greatly and justly blamed for his partiality to favourites. His first was Robert Carr, a private Scotch gentleman, who was raised to be first minister and earl of Somerset. His next favourite was George Villiers, a private English gentleman, who, upon Somerset's disgrace, was admitted to an unusual share of favour and familiarity with his sovereign. James had at that time formed a system of policy for attaching himself intimately to the court of Spain, that it might assist him in recovering the Palatinate; and to this system he had sacrificed the brave sir Walter Raleigh on a charge of having committed hostilities against the Spanish settlements in the West-Indies. James having lost his eldest son, Henry prince of Wales, who had an invincible antipathy to a popish match, threw his eyes upon the infant of Spain as a proper wife for his son Charles, who had succeeded to that principality. Buckingham, who was equally a favourite with the son as with the father, fell in with the prince's romantic humour; and, against the king's will, they travelled in disguise to Spain, where a most solemn farce of courtship was played; but the prince returned without his bride; and had it not been for the royal partiality in his favour, the earl of Bristol, who was then ambassador in Spain, would probably have brought Buckingham to the block.

James was all this while perpetually jarring with his parliament, whom he could not persuade to furnish money equal to his demands; and at last he agreed to his son's marrying the princess Henrietta Maria, sister to Lewis XIII. and daughter to Henry the Great of France. James died

many heretics, made a full discovery; and the conspirators, who never exceeded eighty in number, being seized by the country people, confessed their guilt, and were executed in different parts of England. Notwithstanding this horrid crime, the bigoted catholics were so devoted to Garnet, a Jesuit, one of the conspirators, that they fancied miracles to be wrought by his blood, and in Spain he was considered as a martyr.

before the completion of this match; and it is thought that, had he lived, he would have discarded Buckingham. His death happened in 1625, in the 59th year of his age, after a reign over England of twenty-two years. As to the progress of the arts and learning under his reign, it has been already described. James encouraged and employed that excellent painter sir Peter Paul Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who restored the pure taste of architecture in England; and in his reign, poetical genius, though not much encouraged at court, shone with great lustre. Mr. Middleton also at this time projected the bringing water from Hertfordshire to London, and supplying the city with it by means of pipes. This canal is still called the *New River*.

The death of the duke of Buckingham, the king's favourite, who was assassinated by one Felton, a subaltern officer, in 1628, did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings, which the English patriots in that enlightened age justly considered as so many acts of tyranny. He, without authority of parliament, laid arbitrary impositions upon trade, which were refused to be paid by many of the merchants and members of the house of commons. Some of them were imprisoned, and the judges were checked for admitting them to bail. The house of commons resented those proceedings by drawing up a protest, and denying admittance to the gentleman-usher of the black rod, who came to adjourn them, till it was finished. This served only to widen the breach, and the king dissolved the parliament; after which he exhibited information against nine of the most eminent members, among whom was the great Mr. Selden, who was as much distinguished by his love of liberty, as by his uncommon erudition. They objected to the jurisdiction of the court; but their plea was over-ruled, and they were sent to prison during the king's pleasure.

Every thing now operated towards the destruction of Charles. The commons would vote no supplies without some redress of the national grievances; upon which, Charles, presuming on what had been practised in reigns when the principles of liberty were imperfectly or not at all understood, levied money upon monopolies of salt, soap, and such necessaries, and other obsolete claims, particularly for knighthood; and raised various taxes without authority of parliament. His government becoming every day more and more unpopular, Burton, a divine, Prynne, a lawyer, and Bastwick, a physician, men of no great eminence or abilities, but warm and resolute, published several pieces which gave offence to the court, and which contained some severe strictures against the ruling clergy. They were prosecuted for these pieces in the star-chamber in a very arbitrary and cruel manner, and punished with much rigour, as excited an almost universal indignation against the authors of their sufferings. Thus was the government rendered still more odious; and unfortunately for Charles, he put his conscience into the hands of Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, who was as great a bigot as himself, both in church and state. Laud advised him to prosecute the puritans, and, in the year 1637, to introduce episcopacy into Scotland. The Scots upon this formed secret connections with the discontented English, and invaded England in August, 1640, where Charles was so ill served by his officers and his army, that he was forced to agree to an inglorious peace with the Scots, who made themselves masters of Newcastle and Durham; and being now openly befriended by the house of commons, they obliged the king to comply with their demands.

Charles had made Wentworth earl of Strafford, a man of great abilities; president of the council of the North, and lord lieutenant of Ireland: and he was generally believed to be the first minister of state. Strafford had been a leading member of the opposition to the court; but he afterwards, in conjunction with Laud, exerted himself so vigorously in carrying the king's despotic schemes into execution, that he became an object of public detestation. As lord president of the North, as lord lieutenant of Ireland, and as a minister and privy-counsellor in England, he behaved in a very arbitrary manner, and was guilty of many actions of great injustice and oppression. He was, in consequence, at length on the 22d of May, 1641, brought to the block, though much against the inclination of the king, who was in a manner forced by the parliament and people to sign the warrant for his execution. Archbishop Laud was also beheaded; but his execution did not take place till a considerable time after that of Strafford, the 10th of January, 1645.

In the fourth year of his reign, Charles had passed the *petition of right* into a law, which was intended by the parliament, as the future security of the liberty of the subject. It established particularly, "That no man hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax, or such like charge, without common consent by act of parliament;" but he afterwards violated it in numerous instances, so that an universal discontent at his administration prevailed throughout the nation. A rebellion also broke out in Ireland, on October 23, 1641, where the protestants, without distinction of age, sex, or condition, to the amount of many thousands, were massacred by the papists; and great pains were taken to persuade the public that Charles secretly favoured them out of hatred to his English subjects. The bishops were expelled the house of peers, on account of their constantly opposing the designs and bills of the other house; and the leaders of the English house of commons still kept up a correspondence with the discontented Scots. Charles was ill enough advised to go in person to the house of commons, January 4, 1642, and there demanded that lord Kimbolton, Mr. Pym, Mr. Hampden, Mr. Hollis, sir Arthur Haselrig, and Mr. Stroud, should be apprehended; but they had previously made their escape. This act of Charles was resented as high treason against his people; and the commons rejected all the offers of satisfaction he could make them.

Notwithstanding the many acts of tyranny and oppression, of which the king and his ministers had been guilty, yet, when the civil war broke out, there were great numbers who repaired to the regal standard. Many of the nobility and gentry were much attached to the crown, and considered their own honours as connected with it; and a great part of the landed interest was joined to the royal party. The parliament, however, took upon themselves the executive power, and were favoured by most of the trading towns and corporations; but its great resource lay in London. The king's general was the earl of Lindsey, a brave but not an enterprising commander; but he had great dependence on his nephews, the princes Rupert and Maurice, sons to the elector Palatine, by his sister the princess Elizabeth. In the beginning of the war, the royal army had the ascendency; but, in the progress of it, affairs took a very different turn. The earl of Essex was made general under the parliament, and the first battle was fought at Edgehill in Warwickshire, the 23d of October, 1642. Both parties claimed the victory, though the advantage lay with Charles; for the parliament

was so much distressed, that they invited the Scots to come to their assistance; and they accordingly entered England anew, with about 20,000 horse and foot. Charles attempted to remove the parliament to Oxford, where many members of both houses met; but his enemies were still sitting at Westminster, and continued to carry on the war against him with great animosity. The independent party, which had scarcely before been thought of, began now to increase and to figure at Westminster. They were averse to the presbyterians, who till then had conducted the war against the king, nearly as much as to the royalists; and such was their management, under the direction of the famous Oliver Cromwell, that a plan was formed for dismissing the earls of Essex and Manchester, and the heads of the presbyterians, from the parliament's service, on the suggestion that they were not for bringing the war to a speedy end; or not for reducing the king too low; and for introducing Fairfax, who was an excellent officer, but more manageable, though a presbyterian, and some independent officers. In the meanwhile the war went on with resentment and loss on both sides. Two battles were fought at Newbury, one on September 20th, 1643, and the other October 27th, 1644, in which the advantage inclined to the king. He had likewise many other successes; and having defeated sir William Waller, he pursued the earl of Essex, who remained still in command, into Cornwall, whence he was obliged to escape by sea; but his infantry surrendered themselves prisoners to the royalists, though his cavalry delivered themselves by their valour.

The first fatal blow the king's army received, was at Marston-moor, July 2d, 1644, where, through the imprudence of prince Rupert, the earl of Manchester defeated the royal army, of which 4000 were killed, and 1500 taken prisoners. This victory was owing chiefly to the courage and conduct of Cromwell; and though it might have been retrieved by the successes of Charles in the West, yet his whole conduct was a series of mistakes, till at last his affairs became irretrievable. It is true, many treaties of peace, particularly one at Uxbridge, were set on foot during the war; and the heads of the presbyterian party would have agreed to terms that very little bounded the king's prerogative. They were outwitted and over-ruled by the independents; who were assisted by the stiffness, insincerity, and unamiable behaviour of Charles himself. In short, the independents at last succeeded in persuading the members at Westminster that Charles was not to be trusted, whatever his concessions might be. From that moment the affairs of the royalists continually became more desperate; Charles by piece-meal lost all his towns and forts, and was defeated by Fairfax and Cromwell, at the decisive battle of Naseby, June 14, 1645, owing partly, as usual, to the misconduct of prince Rupert. This battle was followed with fresh misfortunes to Charles, who retired to Oxford, the only place where he thought he could be safe.

The Scots were then besieging Newark, and no good understanding subsisted between them and the English parliamentarians; but the best and most loyal friends Charles had, thought it prudent to make their peace. In this melancholy situation of his affairs, he escaped in disguise from Oxford, and came to the Scotch army before Newark, on May 6, 1646, upon a promise of protection. The Scots, however, were so intimidated by the resolutions of the parliament at Westminster, that, in consideration of 400,000*l.* of their arrears being paid, they put the person of Charles into the hands of the parliament's commissioners, probably not suspecting the consequences.

The presbyterians were now more inclined than ever to make peace with the king; but they were no longer masters, being forced to receive laws from the army and the independents. The army now avowed their intentions. They first by force took Charles out of the hands of the commissioners, June 4, 1647; and then dreading that a treaty might still take place with the king, they imprisoned 41 of the presbyterian members, voted the house of peers to be useless, and that of the commons was reduced to 150, most of them officers of the army. In the mean while, Charles, who unhappily promised himself relief from those dissensions, was carried from prison to prison, and sometimes cajoled by the independents with hopes of deliverance, but always narrowly watched. Several treaties were set on foot, but all miscarried; and he had been imprudent enough, after his effecting an escape, to put himself into colonel Hammond's hands, the parliament's governor of the Isle of Wight. A fresh negotiation was begun, and almost finished, when the independents, dreading the general disposition of the people for peace, and strongly persuaded of the insincerity of the king, once more seized upon his person, brought him prisoner to London, carried him before a court of justice of their own erecting; and, after an extraordinary trial, his head was cut off, before his own palace at Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1648-9, being the 49th year of his age, and the 24th of his reign.

Charles is allowed to have had many virtues; and some have supposed that affliction had taught him so much wisdom and moderation, that, had he been restored to his throne, he would have become an excellent prince; but there is abundant reason to conclude, from his private letters, that he retained his arbitrary principles to the last, and that he would again have regulated his conduct by them, if he had been re-instated in power. It is however certain, that, notwithstanding the tyrannical nature of his government, his death was exceedingly lamented by great numbers; and many in the course of the civil war, who had been his great opponents in parliament, became converts to his cause, in which they lost their lives and fortunes. The surviving children of Charles were Charles and James, who were successively kings of England, Henry duke of Gloucester, who died soon after his brother's restoration, the princess Mary, married to the prince of Orange, and mother to William prince of Orange, who was afterwards king of England, and the princess Henrietta Maria, who was married to the duke of Orleans, and whose daughter was married to Victor Amadeus, duke of Savoy, and king of Sardinia.

They who brought Charles to the block, were men of different persuasions and principles; but many of them possessed very extraordinary abilities for government. They omitted no measure that could give a perpetual exclusion to kingly power in England; and it cannot be denied, that, after they erected themselves into a commonwealth, they made very successful exertions for retrieving the glory of England by sea. They were joined by many of the presbyterians, and both parties hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards against the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber upon the royal domains, they produced a fleet superior to any that had ever been seen in Europe. Their general, Cromwell, invaded Scotland; and though he was there reduced to great difficulties, he totally defeated the Scots at the battles of Dunbar and Worcester. The same commonwealth passed an act of navigation; and declaring war against the Dutch, who were thought till then invincible by sea, they effectually humbled those republicans in repeated engagements.

By this time, Cromwell, who hated subordination to a parliament, had the address to get himself declared commander in chief of the English army. Admiral Blake, and the other English admirals, carried the terror of the English name by sea to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell, having now but little employment, began to be afraid that his services would be forgotten; for which reason he went, April 20, 1653, without any ceremony, with about 300 musqueteers, and dissolved the parliament, opprobriously driving all the members, about a hundred, out of their house. He next annihilated the council of state, with whom the executive power was lodged, and transferred the administration of government to about 140 persons, whom he summoned to Whitehall, on the 4th of July, 1653.

The war with Holland, in which the English were again victorious, still continued. Seven bloody engagements by sea were fought in little more than the compass of one year; and in the last, which was decisive in favour of England, the Dutch lost their brave admiral, Van Tromp. Cromwell all this time wanted to be declared king; but he perceived that he must encounter unsurmountable difficulties from Fleetwood and his other friends, if he should persist in his resolution. He was, however, declared *lord protector* of the commonwealth of England; a title under which he exercised all the power that had been formerly annexed to the royal dignity. No king ever acted, either in England or Scotland, more despotically in some respects than he did; yet no tyrant ever had fewer real friends; and even those few threatened to oppose him, if he should take upon him the title of king. Historians, in drawing the character of Cromwell, have been imposed upon by his amazing success, and dazzled by the lustre of his fortune; but when we consult his secretary Thurloe's, and other state papers, the imposition in a great measure vanishes. After a most uncomfortable usurpation of four years, eight months, and thirteen days, he died on the 3d of September, 1658, in the 60th year of his age.

It is not to be denied that England acquired much more respect from foreign powers, between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell, than she had been treated with since the death of Elizabeth. This was owing to the great men who formed the republic which Cromwell abolished, and who, as it were instantaneously, called forth the naval strength of the kingdom. In the year 1656, the charge of the public amounted to one million three hundred thousand pounds; of which a million went to the support of the navy and army, and the remainder to that of the civil government. In the same year Cromwell abolished all tenures *in capite*, by knight's service, and the socage in chief, and likewise the courts of wards and liveries. Several other grievances that had been complained of during the late reigns, were likewise removed. Next year the total charge or public expence of England amounted to two millions three hundred twenty-six thousand nine hundred and eighty-nine pounds. The collections by assessments, excise, and customs, paid into the Exchequer, amounted to two millions three hundred and sixty-two thousand pounds, four shillings.

Upon the whole, it appears that England, from the year 1648, to the year 1658, was improved equally in riches and in power. The legal interest of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent. a sure symptom of increasing commerce. The famous and beneficial navigation act, that palladium of the English trade, was now planned and established, and afterwards confirmed under Charles II. Monopolies of all kinds were abolished, and liberty of conscience to all sects was granted, to the vast

advantage of population and manufactures, which had suffered greatly by Laud's intolerant schemes having driven numbers of artisans to America, and foreign countries. To the above national meliorations we may add the modesty and frugality introduced among the common people, and the citizens in particular, by which they were enabled to increase their capitals. It appears, however, that Cromwell, had he lived, and been firmly settled in the government, would have broken through the sober maxims of the republicans; for some time before his death, he affected great magnificence in his person, court, and attendants. He maintained the honour of the nation much, and in many instances interposed effectually in favour of the protestants abroad. Arts and sciences were not much patronised, and yet he had the good fortune to meet, in the person of Cooper, an excellent miniature painter; and his coins done by Simon exceed in beauty and workmanship any of that age. He certainly did many things worthy of praise; and as his genius and capacity led him to the choice of fit persons for the several parts of administration, so he showed some regard to men of learning, and particularly to those intrusted with the care of youth at the universities.

The fate of Richard Cromwell, who succeeded his father Oliver as protector, sufficiently proves the great difference there was between them, as to spirit and parts, in the affairs of government. Richard was placed in his dignity by those who wanted to make him the tool of their own government; and he was soon after driven, without the least struggle or opposition, into obscurity. It is in vain for historians of any party to ascribe the restoration of Charles II. (who with his mother and brothers, during the usurpation, had lived abroad on a very precarious subsistence) to the merits of any particular persons. The presbyterians were very zealous in promoting it; but it was effected by the general concurrence of the people, who seemed to have thought that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained, but by restoring the ancient constitution of monarchy. General Monk, a man of military abilities, but of no principles, excepting such as served his ambition or interest, had the sagacity to observe this; and after temporising in various shapes, being at the head of the army, he acted the principal part in restoring Charles II. For this he was created duke of Albemarle, confirmed in the command of the army, and loaded with honours and riches.

Charles II. being restored in 1660, in the first year of his reign seemed to have a real desire to promote his people's happiness. Upon his confirming the abolition of all the feudal tenures, he received from the parliament a gift of the excise for life; and in this act, coffee and tea are first mentioned. By his long residence and that of his friends abroad, he imported into England the culture of many useful vegetables; such as that of asparagus, artichokes, cauliflowers, and several kinds of beans, peas, and sallads. Under him, Jamaica, which had been conquered by the English under the auspices of Cromwell, was greatly improved, and made a sugar colony. The Royal Society was instituted, and many popular acts respecting trade and colonisation were passed. In short, Charles knew and cultivated the true interests of his kingdom, till he was warped by pleasure, and sunk in indolence; fallings that had the same consequences as despotism itself. He appeared to interest himself in the sufferings of his citizens, when London was burnt down in 1666; and its being rebuilt with greater lustre and conveniences, is a proof of the increase of her trade: but there were no bounds to Charles's love of pleasure, which led him into the most extravagant expenses. He has been severely censured for selling Duukirk to the French king to supply

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his necessities, after he had squandered the immense sums granted him by parliament. The price was about 250,000l. sterling. But even in this, his conduct was more defensible than in his secret connections with France, which were of the most scandalous nature, utterly repugnant to his welfare of the kingdom, and such as must ever reflect infamy on his memory.

Among the evidences of his degeneracy as a king, may be mentioned his giving way to the popular clamour against the lord Clarendon, as the chief adviser of the sale of Dunkirk; a man of extensive knowledge, and great abilities, and more honest in his intentions than most of his other ministers, but whom he sacrificed to the sycophants of his pleasurable hours. The first Dutch war, which began in 1665, was carried on with great resolution and spirit under the duke of York; but through Charles's misapplication of the public money which had been granted for the war, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was depending at Breda, found means to insult the royal navy of England, by sailing up the Medway as far as Chatham, and destroying several capital ships of war. Soon after this, a peace was concluded at Breda between Great Britain and the States-general, for the preservation of the Spanish Netherlands; and Sweden having acceded to the treaty, 1668, it was called the *triple alliance*.

In 1671, Charles was so ill advised as to seize upon the money of the bankers, which had been lent him at 8l. per cent. and to shut up the Exchequer. This was an indefensible step; and Charles pretended to justify it by the necessity of his affairs, being then on the eve of a fresh war with Holland. This was declared in 1672, and had almost proved fatal to that republic; for in this war the English fleet and army acted in conjunction with those of France. The duke of York commanded the English fleet, and displayed great gallantry in that station. The duke of Monmouth, the eldest and favourite natural son of Charles, commanded 6000 English forces, who joined the French in the Low Countries; and all Holland must have fallen into the hands of the French, had it not been for the vanity of their monarch Lewis XIV. who was in a hurry to enjoy his triumph in his capital, and some very unforeseen circumstances. All confidence was now lost between Charles and his parliament, notwithstanding the glory which the English fleet obtained by sea against the Dutch. The popular clamour at last obliged Charles to give peace to that republic, in consideration of 200,000l. which was paid him.

In some things, Charles acted very despotically. He complained of the freedom taken with his prerogative in coffee-houses, and ordered them to be shut up; but in a few days afterwards they were opened again. Great rigour and severity were exercised against the presbyterians, and all other nonconformists to episcopacy, which was again established with a high hand in Scotland as well as in England. His parliament addressed him, but in vain, to make war with France in the year 1677; for he was entirely devoted to that crown, regularly received its money as a pensioner, and hoped, through its influence and power, to be absolute. It is not however to be denied, that the trade of England was now incredibly increased, and Charles entered into many vigorous measures for its protection and support.

Charles's connections with France gave him no merit in the eyes of his parliament, which grew every day more and more exasperated against the French and the papists; at the head of whom was the king's eldest brother, and presumptive heir of the crown, the duke of York. Charles

dreaded the prospect of a civil war, and offered many concessions to avoid it. But many of the members of parliament were bent upon such a revolution as afterwards took place, and were secretly determined that the duke of York never should reign. In 1678, the famous Titus Oates, and some others, pretended to discover a plot, charging the papists with a design to murder the king, and to introduce popery by means of Jesuits in England, and from St. Omer's. Though nothing could be more ridiculous, and more self-contradictory, than some parts of their narrative, yet it was supported with the utmost zeal on the part of the parliament. The aged lord Stafford, Coleman, secretary to the duke of York, with many Jesuits, and other papists, were publicly executed on the testimony of evidences, supposed now have been perjured, by those who believe the whole plot to have been a fiction. The queen herself escaped with difficulty; the duke of York was obliged to retire into foreign parts; and Charles, though convinced, as it is said, that the whole was an imposture, yielded to the torrent. At last it spent its force. The earl of Shaftesbury, who was at the head of the opposition, pushed on the total exclusion of the duke of York from the throne. He was seconded by the ill-advised duke of Monmouth; and the bill, after passing the commons, miscarried in the house of peers. All England was again in a flame; but the king, by a well-timed adjournment of the parliament to Oxford, seemed to recover the affections of his people to a very great degree.

The duke of York and his party made a scandalous use of their victory. They fabricated on their side a pretended plot of the protestants for seizing and killing the king, and altering the government. This plot was as false as that with which the papists had been charged. The excellent lord Russell, who had been remarkable in his opposition to the popish succession, Algernon Sidney, and several other distinguished protestants, were tried, condemned, and suffered death; and the king set his foot on the neck of opposition. Even the city of London was intimidated into the measures of the court, as were almost all the corporations in the kingdom. The duke of Monmouth and the earl of Shaftesbury were obliged to fly, and the duke of York returned in triumph to Whitehall. It was thought, however, that Charles repented of some of his arbitrary steps, and intended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth, and have executed some measures for the future quiet of his reign; when he died, February 6th, 1684-5, in the 55th year of his age, and 25th of his reign. He had married Catharine, infant of Portugal, with whom he received a large fortune in ready money, besides the town and fortress of Tangier in Africa; but he left behind him no lawful issue. The descendants of his natural sons and daughters are now amongst the most distinguished of the British nobility.

The reign of Charles has been celebrated for wit and gallantry, but both were coarse and indelicate. The court was the nursery of vice, and the stage exhibited scenes of impurity. Some readers were found, who could admire Milton as well as Dryden; and never perhaps were the pulpits of England so well supplied with preachers as in this reign. Our language was harmonised, refined, and rendered natural; and the days of Charles may be called the Augustan age of mathematics and natural philosophy. Charles loved and understood the arts more than he encouraged or rewarded them, especially those of English growth; but this neglect proceeded not from narrow-mindedness, but indolence and want of reflection. If the memory of Charles II. has been traduced for being the first English prince who formed a body of standing forces, as

guards to his person; it ought to be remembered, at the same time, that he carried the art of ship-building to the highest perfection: and that the royal navy of England, at this day, owes its finest improvements to his and his brother's knowledge of naval affairs and architecture. As to his religion, James, soon after his death, published to the world, that his brother, notwithstanding his repeated professions of regard to the protestant faith, was a papist, and died such; of which there are now incontestable proofs.

All the opposition which, during the late reign, had shaken the throne, seems to have vanished, at the accession of James II. The popular affection towards him was increased by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the late reign, had formally pronounced all resistance to the reigning king to be unlawful. This doctrine proved fatal to James, and almost ruined protestantism. The army and people supported him in crushing an ill-contrived rebellion of the duke of Monmouth, who pretended to be the lawful son of Charles II. and as such had assumed the title of king. That duke's head being cut off, July 15, 1685, and some hundreds of his followers hanged, drawn, and quartered, in the West of England, exhibiting a scene of barbarity scarcely ever known in this country, by the instrumentality of Jefferies and colonel Kirke, James desperately resolved to try how far the practice of the church of England would agree with her doctrine of non-resistance. The experiment failed him. He had recourse to the most offensive and at the same time most injudicious measures to render popery the established religion of his dominions. He pretended to a power of dispensing with the known laws; he instituted an illegal ecclesiastical court; he openly received and admitted into his privy council the pope's emissaries, and gave them more respect than was due to the ministers of a sovereign prince. He sent an embassy to Rome, and received at his court the pope's nuncio. The encroachments he made upon both the civil and religious liberties of his people, are almost beyond description, and were disapproved of by the pope himself, and all sober Roman catholics. His sending to prison, and prosecuting for a libel, seven bishops, for presenting a petition against reading his declaration for liberty of conscience, and their acquittal upon a legal trial, alarmed his best protestant friends.

In this extremity, many great men in England and Scotland, though they wished well to James, applied for relief to William prince of Orange, in Holland, a prince of great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Louis XIV. who then threatened Europe with chains. The prince of Orange was the nephew and son-in-law of James, having married the princess Mary, that king's eldest daughter; and he at last embarked with a fleet of 500 sail for England, avowing it to be his design to restore the church and state to their true rights. Upon his arrival in England, he was joined not only by the Whigs, but by many whom James had considered as his best friends; and even his daughter the princess Anne, and her husband, George prince of Denmark, left him, and joined the prince of Orange. James might still have reigned; but he was surrounded with French emissaries, and ignorant Jesuits, who wished him not to reign rather than not to restore popery. They secretly persuaded him to send his queen, and son, real or pretended, then but six months old, to France, and to follow them in person; which he did: and thus, in 1688, ended his reign in England; which event in English history is termed *the Revolution*.

It is well known that king William's chief object was to humble the

power of France, and his reign was spent in an almost uninterrupted course of hostilities with that power, which were supported by England, at an expense she had never known before. The nation had grown cautious, through the experience of the two last reigns; and he gave his consent to the *bill of rights*, by which the liberties of the people were confirmed and secured; though the friends of liberty in general complained that the bill of rights was very inadequate to what ought to have been insisted on, at a period so favourable to the enlargement and security of liberty, as a crown bestowed by the free voice of the people. The two last kings had made a very bad use of the whole national revenue, which was put into their hands, and which was found to be sufficient to raise and maintain a standing army. The revenue was therefore now divided: part was allotted for the current national service of the year, and was to be accounted for to parliament; and part, which is still called the civil list money, was given to the king, for the support of his house and dignity.

It was the just sense the people of England had of their civil and religious rights alone, that could provoke them to agree to the late revolution; for they never in other respects had been at so high a pitch of wealth and prosperity as in the year 1688. The tonnage of their merchant ships, as appears from Dr. Davenant, was, that year, nearly double what it had been in 1666; and the tonnage of the royal navy, which, in 1660, was only 62,594 tons, was in 1688 increased to 101,032 tons. The increase of the customs, and the annual rental of England, was in the same proportion. The war with France, which, on the king's part, was far from being successful, required an enormous expense; and the Irish continued, in general, faithful to king James. But many English, who wished well to the Stuart family, dreaded their being restored by conquest: and the parliament enabled the king to reduce Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyne, against James, who there lost all the military honour he had acquired before. The marine of France proved superior to that of England, in the beginning of the war; but in the year 1692, that of France received an irrecoverable blow in the defeat at La Hogue.

Invasions were threatened, and conspiracies discovered every day against the government, and the supply of the continental war forced the parliament to open new resources for money. A land-tax was imposed, and every subject's lands were taxed, according to their valuations given in by the several counties. Those who were the most loyal gave the highest valuations, and were the heaviest taxed; and this preposterous burthen continues; but the greatest and boldest operation in finances that ever took place, was established in that reign, which was the carrying on the war by borrowing money upon the parliamentary securities, and which form what are now called the *public funds*. The chief projector of this scheme is said to have been Charles Montague, afterwards lord Halifax. His chief argument for such a project was, that it would oblige the moneyed part of the nation to befriend the Revolution interest, because, after lending their money, they could have no hopes of being repaid but by supporting that interest, and the weight of taxes would oblige the commercial people to be more industrious.

William, notwithstanding the vast service he had done to the nation, and the public benefits which took place under his auspices, particularly in the establishment of the bank of England, and the recoining the silver money, met with so many mortifications from his parliament, that he actually resolved upon an abdication, and had drawn up a speech for

that purpose, which he was prevailed upon to suppress. He long bore the affronts he met with, in hopes of being supported in his war with France; but at last, in 1697, he was forced to conclude the peace of Ryfwick, with the French king, who acknowledged his title to the crown of England. By this time William had lost his queen*, but the government was continued in his person. After peace was restored, the commons obliged him to disband his army, all but an inconsiderable number, and to dismiss his favourite Dutch guards. Towards the end of his reign, his fears of seeing the whole Spanish monarchy in possession of France at the death of the catholic king Charles II. which was every day expected, led him into a very impolitic measure, which was the partition treaty with France, by which that monarchy was to be divided between the houses of Bourbon and Austria. This treaty was highly resented by the parliament, and some of his ministry were impeached for advising it. It was thought William saw his error when it was too late. His ministers were acquitted from their impeachment; and the death of king James discovered the insincerity of the French court, which immediately proclaimed his son king of Great Britain.

This perfidy rendered William again popular in England. The two houses passed the bill of abjuration, and an address for a war with France. The last and most glorious act of William's reign was his passing the bill for settling the succession to the crown in the house of Hanover, on the 12th of June, 1701. His death was hastened by a fall from his horse, soon after he had renewed the grand alliance against France, on the 8th of March, 1702, in the 52d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign in England. This prince was not made by nature for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding; he seemed also sometimes almost to lose sight of those principles of liberty, for the support of which he had been raised to the throne; and though he owed his royalty to the Whigs, yet he often favoured the Tories. The former had the mortification of seeing those who had acted the most inimical to their party, and the free principles of the constitution, as the marquis of Halifax, the earl of Danby, and lord Nottingham, taken into favour, and resume their places in the cabinet; and the whole influence of government extended to silence all inquiries into the guilt of those who had been the chief instruments in the cruel persecutions of the past reign, and to the obtaining such an act of indemnity as effectually screened every delinquent from the just retaliation of injured patriotism. The rescue and preservation of religion and public liberty were the chief glory of William's reign; for England under him suffered severely both by sea and land; and the public debt, at the time of his death, amounted to the unheard-of sum of 14,000,000l.

Anne, princess of Denmark, by virtue of the act of settlement, and being the next protestant heir to her father James II. succeeded to the throne. As she had been ill treated by the late king, it was thought she would have deviated from his measures; but the behaviour of the French in acknowledging the title of her brother, who has since been well known by the name of the Pretender, left her no choice; and she resolved to fulfil all William's engagements with his allies, and to employ the earl of Marlborough, who had been imprisoned in the late reign on a suspicion of Jacobitism, and whose wife was her favourite, as her general. She could not have made a better choice of a general and statesman, for that earl excelled in both capacities. No sooner was he placed at the head of the English army abroad, than his genius and acti-

* She died of the small-pox, Dec. 23, 1694, in the thirty-third year of her age.

vity gave a new turn to the war, and he became as much the favourite of the Dutch as his wife was of the queen.

Charles II. of Spain, in consequence of the intrigues of France, and at the same time resenting the partition treaty, to which his consent had not been asked, left his whole dominions by will to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson of Lewis XIV. and Philip was immediately proclaimed king of Spain; which laid the foundation of the family alliance between France and that nation. Philip's succession was disputed by the second son of the emperor of Germany, who took upon himself the title of Charles III. and his cause was favoured by the empire, England, Holland, and other powers, who joined in a confederacy against the house of Bourbon, now become more dangerous than ever by the acquisition of the whole Spanish dominions.

The capital measure of continuing the war against France being fixed, the queen found no great difficulty in forming her ministry, who were for the most part Tories: and the earl of Godolphin, who (though afterwards a leading Whig) was thought all his life to have a predilection for the late king James and his queen, was placed at the head of the treasury. His son had married the earl of Marlborough's eldest daughter; and the earl could trust no other with that important department.

In the course of the war, several glorious victories were obtained by the earl, who was soon made duke of Marlborough. Those of Blenheim and Ramillies gave the first effectual checks to the French power. By that of Blenheim in 1704, the empire of Germany was saved from immediate destruction. Though prince Eugene was that day joined in command with the duke, yet the glory of the day was confessedly owing to the latter. The French general Tallard was taken prisoner, and sent to England; and 20,000 French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, or drowned in the Danube, besides about 13,000 who were taken, and a proportionable number of cannon, artillery, and trophies of war. About the same time, the English admiral, sir George Rooke, reduced Gibraltar, which still remains in our possession. The battle of Ramillies, in 1706, was fought and gained under the duke of Marlborough alone. The loss of the enemy there has been variously reported; it is generally supposed to have been 8000 killed or wounded, and 6000 taken prisoners; but the consequences showed its importance.

After the battle of Ramillies, the states of Flanders assembled at Ghent, and recognised Charles for their sovereign, while the confederates took possession of Louvain, Brussels, Mechlin, Ghent, Oudenarde, Bruges, and Antwerp; and several other considerable places in Flanders and Brabant acknowledged the title of king Charles. The next great battle gained over the French was at Oudenarde, 1708, where they lost 3000 on the field, and about 7000 taken prisoners; and the year after, September 11, 1709, the allies forced the French lines at Malplaquet near Mons, after a bloody action, in which the French lost 15,000 men. These flattering successes of the English were balanced, however, by great misfortunes.

The queen had sent a very fine army to assist Charles III. in Spain, under the command of lord Galway: but in 1707, after he had been joined by the Portuguese, the English were defeated in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies. Though some advantages were obtained at sea, yet that war in general was carried on to the detriment, if not the disgrace, of England. Prince George of Denmark, husband to the queen, was then lord high admiral. At the same

time England felt severely the scarcity of hands in carrying on her trade and manufactures.

As Lewis XIV. professed a readiness for peace, and sued earnestly for it, the Whigs at last gave way to a treaty, and the conferences were held at Gertruydenburgh, 1710. They were managed on the part of England by the duke of Marlborough and the lord Townshend, and by the marquis de Torcy for the French. But all the offers of the latter were rejected by the duke and his associates, as only designed to amuse and divide the allies; and the war was continued.

The unreasonable haughtiness of the English plenipotentiaries at Gertruydenburgh (as some term it), and the then expected change of the ministry in England, saved France; and affairs from that day took a turn in its favour. Means were found to convince the queen, who was faithfully attached to the church of England, that the war in the end, if continued, must prove ruinous to her and her people, and that the Whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry of the deluded people was, that "the church was in danger," which, though groundless, had great effects. One Sacheverel, an ignorant, worthless preacher, had espoused this clamour in one of his sermons, with the ridiculous, impracticable doctrines of passive obedience and non-resistance. It was, as it were, agreed by both parties to try their strength in this man's cause. He was impeached by the commons, and found guilty by the lords, who ventured to pass upon him only a very small censure. After this trial, the queen's affections were entirely alienated from the duchess of Marlborough, and the Whig administration. Her friends lost their places, which were supplied by Tories; and even the command of the army was taken from the duke of Marlborough, in 1712, and given to the duke of Ormond, who produced orders for a cessation of arms; but they were disregarded by the queen's allies in the British pay. And, indeed, the removal of the duke of Marlborough from the command of the army, while the war continued, was an act of the greatest imprudence, and excited the astonishment of all Europe. So numerous had been his successes, and so great his reputation, that his very name was almost equivalent to an army. But the honour and interest of the nation were sacrificed to private court intrigues, managed by Mrs. Masham, a relation of the duchess of Marlborough, who had supplanted her benefactress, and by Mr. Harley.

Conferences were opened for peace at Utrecht, in January, 1712, to which the queen and the French king sent plenipotentiaries; and the allies being defeated at Denain, they grew sensible they were no match for the French, now that they were abandoned by the English. In short, the terms were agreed upon between France and England. The reader need not be informed of the particular cessions made by the French, especially that of Dunkirk; but after all, the peace would have been all more indefensible and shameful than it was, had it not been for the success of the emperor Joseph, by which his brother Charles III. for whom the war was chiefly undertaken, became emperor of Germany, as well as king of Spain; and the dilatoriness, if not bad faith, of the English allies, in not fulfilling their engagements, and throwing upon the exhausted state of the kingdom. Such was the state of affairs at this critical period; and I am apt to think from their complexion that the peace was, by some secret influence, which never has yet been discovered, and was even concealed from some of her ministers, inclined to offer her brother to the succession. The rest of the queen's life was ren-

dered uneasy by the jarring of parties, and the contentions among her ministers. The Whigs demanded a writ for the electoral prince of Hanover, as duke of Cambridge, to come to England; and she was obliged hastily to dismiss her lord-treasurer, when she fell into a lethargic disorder, which carried her off the first of August 1714, in the fiftieth year of her age, and the thirteenth of her reign *. Notwithstanding the exhausted state of England before the peace of Utrecht was concluded, yet the public credit was little or nothing affected by her death, though the national debt then amounted to about fifty millions; so firm was the dependence of the people upon the security of parliament.

Anne had no strength of mind, by herself, to carry any important solve into execution; and she left public measures in so indecisive a state, that, upon her death, the succession took place in terms of the act of settlement, and George I. elector of Hanover, son of the princess Sophia, grand-daughter of James I. was proclaimed king of Great Britain; his mother, who would have been next in succession, having died but a few days before. He came over to England with strong prepossessions against the Tory ministry, most of whom he displaced. This did not make any great alteration to his prejudice in England; but many of the Scots, by the influence of the earl of Mar, and other chiefs, were driven into rebellion in 1715, which was happily suppressed the beginning of the next year.

After all, the nation was in such a disposition that the ministry durst not venture to call a new parliament; and the members of that which was sitting, voted a continuance of their duration from three to seven years; which is thought to have been the greatest stretch of parliamentary power ever known, and a very indefensible step. Several other extraordinary measures took place about the same time. Mr. Shippen, an excellent speaker, and member of parliament, was sent to the Tower for saying that the king's speech was calculated for the meridian of Hanover rather than that of London; and one Matthews, a young journeyman printer, was hanged for composing a silly pamphlet, that in latter times would not have been thought worthy of animadversion. The truth is, the Whig ministry were excessively jealous of every thing that seemed to affect their master's title: and George I. though a sagacious moderate prince, undoubtedly rendered England too subservient to continental connections, which were very various and complicated. He quarrelled with the czar of Muscovy about their German concerns, and, had not Charles XII. king of Sweden, been killed so critically as he was, Great Britain probably would have been invaded by that northern conqueror, great preparations being made for that purpose; he be-

* With her ended the line of the Stuarts, who, from the accession of James I. in 1603, had swayed the sceptre of England 111 years, and that of Scotland 143 years to the accession of Robert II. anno 1371. James, the late pretender, son of James and brother to queen Anne, upon his father's decease, anno 1701, was proclaimed king of England, by Lewis XIV. at St. Germain's, and for some time treated at the courts of Rome, France, Spain, and Turin. He resided at Rome, where he kept up the appearance of a court, and continued firm in the Romish faith till his death, which happened in 1765. He left two sons, viz. Charles Edward, born 1720, who was defeated at Culloden in 1746, and upon his father's death repaired to Rome, where he continued for some time, and afterwards resided at Florence, under the title of count Albany, but died lately. Henry, his second son, who enjoyed a distinguished place in the church of Rome, and is known by the name of cardinal York, died March 28th, 1771, Charles married Louisa Maximiliena, born Sept. 17th, 1752, daughter to a prince of the family of Stolberg Grudern, in the Circle of Upper Saxony, and grand-daughter, by the mother, of Thomas Bruce, late earl of Ailesbury.

incensed at George, as elector of Hanover, for purchasing Bremen and Verden of the Danes; which had been a part of his dominions.

In 1718, George quarrelled with Spain on account of the quadruple alliance that had been formed between Great Britain, France, Germany, and the States General; and his admiral, sir George Byng, by his orders destroyed the Spanish fleet at Syracuse. A trifling war with Spain then commenced, but it was soon ended by the Spaniards delivering up Sardinia and Sicily, the former to the duke of Savoy, and the latter to the emperor.

A national punishment, different from plague, pestilence, and famine, overtook England in the year 1720, by the sudden rise of the South Sea stock, one of the trading companies; but of this we have already given an account, under the article of SOUTH SEA COMPANY.

The Jacobites thought to avail themselves of the national discontent at the South Sea scheme, and England's connections with the continent, which every day increased. One Lyster, a lawyer, was tried and executed for high treason. Several persons of great quality and distinction were apprehended on suspicion: but the storm fell chiefly on Francis Atterbury, lord bishop of Rochester, who was deprived of his see and seat in parliament, and banished for life. There was some irregularity in the proceedings against him; and therefore the justice of the bishop's sentence has been questioned, though there is little or no reason to doubt that there was sufficient proof of his guilt.

So fluctuating was the state of Europe at this time, that, in September 1725, a fresh treaty was concluded at Hanover, between the kings of Great Britain, France, and Prussia, to counterbalance an alliance that had been formed between the courts of Vienna and Madrid. A squadron was sent to the Baltic, to hinder the Russians from attacking Sweden; another to the Mediterranean, and a third, under admiral Hofer, to the West Indies, to watch the Spanish plate-fleets. This last was a fatal as well as an inglorious expedition. The admiral and most of his men perished by epidemical diseases, and the hulks of his ships rotted so as to render them unfit for service. The management of the Spaniards was little better. They lost near 10,000 men in the siege of Gibraltar, which they were obliged to raise.

A quarrel with the emperor was the most dangerous to Hanover of any that could happen; but though an opposition in the house of commons was formed by sir William Wyndham and Mr. Pulteney, the parliament continued to be more and more lavish in granting money and subsidies, for the protection of Hanover, to the kings of Denmark and Sweden, and the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel. Such was the state of affairs in Europe, when George I. suddenly died on the 11th of June 1727, at Edinburgh, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign. The reign of George I. is remarkable for an incredible number of bubbles and cheating projects, by which it was reckoned that almost a million and a half was won and lost; and for the great alteration of the system of Europe; by the concern which the English took in the affairs of the continent. The institution of the sinking fund for diminishing the national debt, took place likewise at this period. The value of the northern parts of the kingdom began now to be better understood than formerly, and the state of manufactures began to shift. This was chiefly owing to the unequal distribution of the land-tax, which rendered it difficult for the poor to subsist in certain counties, which had been forward in giving in the true value of their estates when that tax took

Sir Robert Walpole was considered as first minister of England when George I. died: and some differences having happened between him and the prince of Wales, it was generally thought, upon the accession of the latter to the crown, that Sir Robert would be displaced. That might have been the case, could another person have been found, equally capable to manage the house of commons, and to gratify that predilection for Hanover which George II. inherited from his father. No minister ever understood better the temper of the people of England, and none, perhaps, ever tried it more. He filled all places of power, trust, and profit, and almost the house of commons itself, with his own creatures; but peace was his darling object, because he thought that war must be fatal to his power. During his long administration he never lost a question that he was in earnest to carry. The excise scheme was the first measure that gave a shock to his power; and even that he could have carried, had he not been afraid of the spirit of the people without doors, which might have either produced an insurrection, or endangered his interest in the next general election.

His pacific system brought him, however, into inconveniences both at home and abroad. It encouraged the Spaniards to continue their depredations upon the British shipping in the American seas, and the French to treat the English court with insolence and neglect. At home, many of the great peers thought themselves slighted, and they interested themselves more than ever they had done in elections. This, together with the disgust of the people at the proposed excise scheme, and passing the *Gin Act* in the year 1736, increased the minority in the house of commons to 130; some of whom were as able men and as good speakers as ever had sat in a parliament; and taking advantage of the increasing complaints against the Spaniards, they attacked the minister with great strength of argument and with great eloquence. In justice to Walpole it should be observed, that he filled the courts of justice with able and upright judges, nor was he ever known to attempt any perversion of the law of the kingdom. He was so far from checking the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the most scurrilous abuse that was thrown out against him. He gave way to one or two prosecutions for libels, in compliance to his friends, who thought themselves affected by them; but it is certain, that the press of England never was more open or free than during his administration. And as to his pacific system, it undoubtedly more than repaid to the nation all that was required to support it, by the increase of her trade and the improvements of her manufactures.

Queen Caroline, consort to George II. had been always a firm friend to the minister: but she died November 20th, 1737, when a variance subsisted between the king and his son, the prince of Wales. The latter complained, that through Walpole's influence he was deprived of only of the power but the provision to which his birth entitled him; and he put himself at the head of the opposition with so much firmness, that it was generally foreseen Walpole's power was drawing to a crisis. Admiral Vernon, who hated the minister, was sent, in 1739, with a squadron of six ships to the West Indies, where he took and demolished Porto Bello; but being a hot, intractable man, he miscarried in his other attempts, especially that upon Carthagena, in which some thousand British lives were wantonly thrown away. The opposition exulted in Vernon's success, and afterwards imputed his miscarriages to the minister's serving the war, by withholding the means for carrying it. The general election approaching, so prevalent was the interest of

prince of Wales in England, and that of the duke of Argyle in Scotland; that a majority was returned to parliament who were no friends to the minister; and, after a few trying divisions, he retired from the house, on the 9th of February, 1742, was created earl of Orford, and on the 11th resigned all his employments.

George II. bore the loss of his minister with the greatest equanimity, and even conferred titles of honour, and posts of distinction, upon the heads of the opposition. By this time, the death of the emperor Charles VI. the danger of the pragmatic sanction (which meant the succession of his daughter to all the Austrian dominions), through the ambition of France, who had filled all Germany with her armies, and many other concurrent causes, induced George to take the leading part in a continental war. He was encouraged to this by lord Carteret, afterwards earl of Granville, an able but headstrong minister, whom George had made his secretary of state, and indeed by the voice of the nation in general. George accordingly put himself at the head of his army, fought and gained the battle of Dettingen, June 6, 1743; and his not suffering his general, the earl of Stair, to improve the blow, was thought to proceed from tenderness for his electoral dominions.

Great Britain was then engaged in a very expensive war both against the French and Spaniards; and her enemies thought to avail themselves of the general discontent that had prevailed in England on account of Hanover, and which, even in parliamentary debates, was thought by some to exceed the bounds of decency. This naturally suggested to them the idea of applying to the Pretender, who resided at Rome; and he agreed that his son Charles, who was a sprightly young man, should repair to France, from whence he set sail, and narrowly escaped with a few followers, in a frigate, to the western coasts of Scotland, between the islands of Mull and Sky, where he discovered himself, assembled his followers, and published a manifesto exciting the nation to a rebellion. It is necessary, before we relate the true cause of this enterprise, to make a short retrospect to foreign parts.

The war of 1741 proved unfortunate in the West Indies, through the fatal divisions between admiral Vernon, and general Wentworth, who commanded the land troops; and it was thought that above 20,000 British soldiers and seamen perished in the impracticable attempt on Carthagena, and by the inclemency of the air and climate during other idle expeditions. The year 1742 had been spent in negotiations with the courts of Peterburgh and Berlin, which, though expensive, proved of little or no service to great Britain: so that the victory of Dettingen left the French troops in much the same situation as before. A difference between the admirals Matthews and Lestock had given an opportunity to the Spanish and French fleets to escape out of Toulon with but little loss; and soon after, the French, who had before only acted as allies to the Spaniards, declared war against Great Britain, who, in her turn, declared war against the French. The Dutch, the natural allies of England, during this war, carried on a most lucrative trade; nor could they be brought to act against the French till the people entered into associations and insurrections against the government. Their marine was in a miserable condition; and when they at last sent a body of troops to join the British and Austrian armies, which had been wretchedly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it in such a manner, that it was plain they did not intend to act in earnest. When the duke of Cumberland took upon himself the command of the army, the French, to the great reproach of the allies, were almost masters of the barrier of the

Netherlands, and were besieging Tournay. The duke attempted to raise the siege: but by the coldness of the Austrians, the cowardice of the Dutch, whose government all along held a secret correspondence with France, and misconduct somewhere else, he lost the battle of Fontenoy, and 7000 of his best men; though it is generally allowed that his dispositions were excellent, and both he and his troops behaved with unexampled intrepidity. To counterbalance such a train of misfortunes, admiral Anson returned this year to England, with an immense treasure (about a million sterling), which he had taken from the Spaniards in his voyage round the world; and commodore Warren, with colonel Pepperel, took from the French the important town and fortress of Louisburgh, in the island of Cape Breton.

Such was the state of affairs abroad in August, 1745, when the Pretender's eldest son, at the head of some Highland followers, surprised and disarmed a party of the king's troops in the western Highlands, and advanced with great rapidity to Perth. The government never so thoroughly experienced, as it did at that time, the benefit of the public debt for the support of the Revolution. The French and the Jacobite party (for such there was at that time in England) had laid a deep scheme of distressing the Bank; but common danger abolished all distinctions, and united them in the defence of one interest, which was private property. The merchants undertook, in their address to the king, to support it by receiving bank notes in payment. This seasonable measure saved public credit; but the defeat of the rebels by the duke of Cumberland at Culloden, in the year 1746, did not restore tranquillity to Europe. Though the prince of Orange, son-in-law to his majesty George II. was, by the credit of his majesty, and the spirit of the people of the United Provinces, raised to be their stadtholder, the Dutch never could be brought to act heartily in the war. The allies were defeated at Val, near Maeltricht, and the duke of Cumberland was in danger of being made prisoner. Bergen-op-zoom was taken in a manner that has never yet been explained. The allies suffered other disgraces on the continent; and it now became the general opinion in England, that peace was necessary to save the duke and his army from total destruction. By this time, however, the French marine and commerce were in danger of being annihilated by the English at sea, under the command of the admirals Anson, Warren, Hawke, and other gallant officers; but the English arms were not so successful as could have been wished under rear admiral Boscawen in the East Indies. In this state of affairs, the successes of the French and English during the war may be said to have been balanced, and both ministers turned their thoughts to peace.

However this might be, preliminaries for peace were signed in April, 1748, and a definitive treaty was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle in October; the basis of which was the restitution, on both sides, of all places taken during the war. The next year the interest of the national debt was reduced from four to three and a half per cent. for seven years, after which the whole was to stand reduced to three per cent.

This was the boldest stroke of financing that ever was attempted perhaps in any country, consistently with public faith; for the creditors of the government, after a small ineffectual opposition, continued their money in the funds; and a few who sold out, even made interest to have it replaced on the same security, or were paid off their principal sums out of the sinking fund.

A new treaty of commerce was signed at Madrid, between Great Bri-

tain and Spain, by which, in consideration of 100,000*l.* the South Sea company gave up all their future claims to the assiento contract, by virtue of which that company had supplied the Spanish West Indies with negroes. In March, 1750, died, universally lamented, his royal highness Frederic, prince of Wales. In May, 1751, an act passed for regulating the commencement of the year, by which the old style was abolished, and the new style established, to the vast conveniency of the subjects. This was done by sinking eleven days in September, 1752, and from that time beginning the year on the first of January. In 1753, the famous act passed for preventing clandestine marriages: but whether it is for the benefit of the subject, is a point that is still very questionable.

The open encroachments of the French, who had built forts on our back settlements in America, and the dispositions they made for sending over vast bodies of veteran troops to support those encroachments, produced a wonderful spirit in England, especially after admiral Boscawen was ordered, with eleven ships of the line, besides a frigate and two regiments, to sail to the banks of Newfoundland, where he came up with and took two French men of war, the rest of their fleet escaping up the river St. Laurence, by the straits of Belleisle. No sooner was it known that hostilities were begun, than the people of England poured their money into the government's loan, and orders were issued for making general reprisals in Europe as well as in America; and that all the French ships, whether outward or homeward bound, should be stopped and brought into British ports. These orders were so effectual, that, before the end of the year 1765, above 500 of the richest French merchant ships, and above 8,000 of their best sailors, were brought into the kingdom. This well-timed measure had such an effect, that the French had neither hands to navigate their merchantmen, nor to man their wips of war; for, about two years after, near 30,000 French seamen were found to be prisoners in England.

In July, 1755, general Braddock, who had been injudiciously sent from England to attack the French, and reduce the forts on the Ohio, was defeated and killed, by falling into an ambuscade of the French and Indians near Fort du Quêne (now called Fort Pitt, or Pittsburg); but major general Johnson defeated a body of French near Crown Point, of whom he killed about 1000.

In proportion as the spirits of the public were elevated by the formidable armaments which were prepared for carrying on the war, they were sunk with an account that the French had landed 11,000 men in Minorca, to attack Fort St. Philip there; that admiral Byng, who had been sent out with a squadron, at least equal to that of the French, had been baffled, if not defeated, by their admiral Gallissoniere, and that at last Minorca was surrendered by general Blakeney. The English were far more alarmed than they ought to have been at those events. The loss of Minorca was more shameful than detrimental to the kingdom; but the public outcry was such, that the king gave up Byng to public justice, and he was shot at Portsmouth for not doing all that was in his power against the enemy.

It was about this time that Mr. Pitt was placed, as secretary of state, at the head of administration. He had long been known to be a bold, eloquent, and energetic speaker, and he soon proved himself to be as spirited a minister. The miscarriages in the Mediterranean had no consequence but the loss of Fort St. Philip, which was more than repaired by the vast success of the English privateers, both in Europe and America. The successes of the English in the East Indies, under colonel Clive, are

almost incredible. He defeated Suraja Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, and placed Jaffer Ally Cawn in the ancient seat of the nabobs of those provinces. Suraja Dowla, who was in the French interest, a few days after his being defeated, was taken by the new nabob, Jaffer Ally Cawn's son, and put to death. This event laid the foundation of the present amazing extent of riches and territory which the English now possess in the East Indies.

Mr. Pitt introduced into the cabinet a new system of operations against France, than which nothing could be better calculated to restore the spirits of his countrymen, and to alarm their enemies. Far from dreading an invasion, he planned an expedition for carrying the arms of England into France itself; and the descent was to be made at Rochefort under general sir John Mordaunt, who was to command the land troops. Nothing could be more promising than the dispositions for this expedition. It failed on the 8th of September 1757; and admiral Hawke brought both the sea and land forces back on the 6th of October, to St. Helen's, without the general making any attempt to land on the coast of France. He was tried and acquitted, without the public murmuring; so great an opinion had the people of the minister, who, to do him justice, did not suffer a man or a ship belonging to the English army or navy to lie idle.

The French having attacked the electorate of Hanover with a most powerful army, the English parliament voted large supplies of men and money in defence of the electoral dominions. The duke of Cumberland had been sent thither to command an army of observation, but was so powerfully pressed by a superior army, that he found himself obliged to lay down his arms; and the French, under the duke of Richelieu, took possession of that electorate and its capital. At this time, a scarcity, next to a famine, raged in England; and the Hessian troops, who, with the Hanoverians, had been sent to defend the kingdom from an invasion threatened by the French, remained still in England. So many difficulties concurring, in 1758, a treaty of mutual defence was agreed to between his majesty and the king of Prussia: in consequence of which, the parliament voted 670,000*l.* to his Prussian majesty; and also voted large sums, amounting in the whole to two millions a year, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Saxe-Gotha, Wolfenbuttel, and Buckeburg. This treaty, which proved afterwards so burthensome to England, was intended to unite the protestant interest in Germany.

George II. with the consent of his Prussian majesty, declaring that the French had violated the convention concluded between them and the duke of Cumberland at Closterseven, ordered his Hanoverian subjects to resume their arms under prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, a Prussian general, who instantly drove the French out of Hanover; and the duke of Marlborough, after the English had repeatedly insulted the French coasts by destroying their stores and shipping at St. Malo and Cherbourg, marched into Germany, and joined prince Ferdinand with 12,000 British troops, which were afterwards increased to 25,000. A war ensued, in the course of which the English every where performed wonders, and were every where victorious; but nothing decisive followed, and the enemy opened every campaign with advantage. Even the battle of Minden, the most glorious, perhaps, in the English annals, in which about 7000 English defeated 80,000 of the French regular troops, contributed nothing to the conclusion of the war, or towards weakening the French in Germany.

The expenses of the war were borne with cheerfulness, and the ad-

of Bengal, Bahar, and the French interest, new nabob, Jaffer, the foundation of which the English

operations against to restore the spirit. Far from dreading the arms of England at Rochefort under the land troops. No for this expedition. Admiral Hawke brought over, to St. Helen's, the coast of France, murmuring; so great an him justice, did not y or navy to lie idle. Hanover with a most supplies of men and the duke of Cumberland of observation, but that he found himself er the duke of Richemont. At this time, and the Hessian troops, and the kingdom from still in England. So of mutual defence was ussia: in consequence Prussian majesty; and o two millions a year, er, Hesse-Cassel, Saxony, which proved as- ed to unite the pro-

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and spirit of Mr. Pitt's administration were greatly applauded. Admiral Boscawen and general Amherst, in August 1758, reduced and demolished Louisburgh in North America, which had been restored to the French by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle; and was become the scourge of the British trade, and took five or six French ships of the line; Varennes and Fort du Quene; in the same quarter, fell also into the hands of the English; acquisitions that far overbalanced a check which the English received at Ticonderoga, and the loss of above 300 of the English guards, as they were returning under general Bliquin from the coast of France.

The English affairs in the East Indies this year proved equally fortunate; and the lords of the admiralty received letters from thence, with an account that admiral Pococke had engaged the French fleet near Fort St. David's on the 30th of March; in which engagement a French man of war, called the *Bien-aimé*, of 74 guns, was so much damaged that they ran her on shore; that, on the 3d of August following, he engaged the French fleet a second time near Pondicherry; when, after a brisk firing of ten minutes, the French bore away with all the sail they could make, and got safe into the road of Pondicherry; and that on the 14th of December following, general Lally, commander of the French army in those parts, marched to besiege Madras, which was defended by the English colonels Lawrence and Draper; and after a brisk cannonade, which lasted till the 16th of February following, the English having received a reinforcement of 600 men, general Lally thought proper to raise the siege, and retire with precipitation, leaving behind him forty pieces of cannon.

This year 1759 was introduced by the taking of the island of Gorée, on the coast of Africa, by commodore Keppel. Three capital expeditions had been planned for this year in America, and all of them proved successful. One of them was against the French islands in the West Indies, where Guadaloupe was reduced. The second expedition was against Quebec, the capital of Canada. The command was given, by the minister's advice, to general Wolfe, a young officer of a truly military genius. Wolfe was opposed, with far superior force; by Montcalme, the best and most successful general the French had. Though the situation of the country which Wolfe was to attack, and the works the French threw up to prevent a descent of the English, were deemed impregnable, yet Montcalme never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perseverance, however, surmounted incredible difficulties: he gained the heights of Abraham, near Quebec, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was himself killed, as was Montcalme; general Monkton; who was next in command, being wounded, the completion of the French defeat, and the glory of reducing Quebec, was reserved for brigadier-general (now lord viscount) Townshend.

General Amherst, who was the first English general in command in America, conducted the third expedition. His orders were to reduce all Canada, and to join the army under general Wolfe on the banks of the river St. Lawrence. It is to the honour of the minister, Mr. Amherst in this expedition was so well provided with every thing that could make it successful, that there scarcely appeared any chance for its miscarriage; and thus the French empire in North America became subject to Great Britain.

The affairs of the French being now desperate, and their credit ruined, they resolved upon an attempt to retrieve all by an invasion of Great Britain: but on the 8th of August, 1759, admiral Boscawen attacked the Toulon Squadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the straits of Gib-

raltar, took *Le Centaure* of 74, *Le Téméraire* of 74, and *Le Modeste* of 74 guns; and burnt *L'Océan* of 80, and *Le Redoutable* of 74 guns. The rest of the fleet, consisting of seven ships of the line and three frigates, made their escape in the night; and on Nov. 20, sir Edward Hawke defeated the *Brest* fleet, commanded by admiral Conflans, off the island of Dunnet, in the bay of Biscay. The *Formidable*, a French man of war of 80 guns, was taken; the *Thésée* of 74, and the *Superbe* of 70 guns, were sunk; and the *Soleil Royal* of 80, and the *Héros* of 74 guns, were burnt, and afterwards the *Juste* of 74 perished in the mouth of the Loire. Seven or eight French men of war of the line got up the river Vilaine, by throwing their guns overboard; and the rest of the fleet, consisting of five ships of the line and three frigates, escaped in the night. The English lost, on this occasion, the *Essex* of 64, and the *Resolution* of 74 guns, which ran ashore in the chase. After this engagement, the French gave over all thoughts of their invasion of Great Britain.

In February 1760, captain Thurot, a French marine adventurer, who had, with three sloops of war, alarmed the coasts of Scotland, and actually made a descent at Carrickfergus in Ireland, was, on his return from thence, met, defeated, and killed by captain Elliot, the commander of three ships, inferior in force to the Frenchman's squadron. In short, Great Britain now reigned as sole mistress of the main, and succeeded in every measure that had been projected for her own safety and advantage.

The war in Germany, however, continued still as undecided as it was expensive; and many in England began to consider it now as foreign to the internal interests of Great Britain. The French again and again showed dispositions for treating; and the charges of the war, which began now to amount to little less than eighteen millions sterling yearly, inclined the British minister to listen to their proposals. A negotiation was accordingly entered upon, which proved abortive, as did many other projects for accommodation; but on the 25th of October 1760, George II. died suddenly (from a rupture in the right ventricle of the heart), full of years and glory, in the 77th year of his age, and 34th of his reign, and was succeeded by his grandson, now George III. eldest son to the late prince of Wales.

The memory of George II. is reprehensible on no head but his predilection for his electoral dominions. He never could separate an idea that there was any difference between them and his regal dominions; and he was sometimes ill enough advised to declare so much in his speeches to parliament. We are, however, to remember, that his people gratified him in this partiality, and that he never acted by power or prerogative. He was not very accessible to conversation; and therefore it was no wonder, that, having left Germany after he had attained to man's estate, he still retained foreign notions both of men and things. In government he had no favourite, for he parted with sir Robert Walpole's administration with great indifference, and showed very little concern at the subsequent revolutions among his servants. In his personal disposition he was passionate, but placable, fearless of danger, fond of military parade, and enjoyed the memory of the campaigns in which he served when young. His affections, either public or private, were never known to interfere with the ordinary course of justice; and though his reign was distracted by party, the courts of justice were never better filled than under him; this was a point in which all factions were agreed.

King George III. ascended the throne with great advantages. His being a native of England prejudiced the people in his favour; he was in

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the bloom of youth; in his person tall and comely, and at the time of his accession, Great Britain was in the highest degree of reputation and prosperity, and the most salutary unanimity and harmony prevailed among the people. The first acts of his reign seemed also calculated to convince the public that the death of his predecessor should not relax the operations of the war. Accordingly, in 1761, the Island of Belleisle, on the coast of France, surrendered to his majesty's ships and forces under commodore Keppel and general Hodgson; as did the important fortress of Pondicherry, in the East Indies, to colonel Coote and Admiral Stevens. The operations against the French West Indies still continued under general Monkton, lord Rollo, and sir James Douglas; and in 1762, the island of Martinico, hitherto deemed impregnable; with the islands of Grenada, St. Lucia, Grenadillas, St. Vincent, and others of less note, were subdued by the British arms with inconceivable rapidity.

In the mean time Mr. Pitt, who had conducted the war against France with such eminent ability, and who had received the best information of the hostile intentions and private intrigues of the court of Spain, proposed in council an immediate declaration of war against that kingdom. But he was over-ruled in the council, all the members of which declared themselves of a contrary opinion, excepting his brother-in-law earl Temple. Mr. Pitt now found the decline of his influence; and it was supposed that the earl of Bute, who had a considerable share in directing the education of the king, had acquired an ascendancy in the royal favour*. Mr. Pitt, however, said, "that, as he was called to the ministry by the voice of the people, to whom he considered himself as accountable for his conduct, he would no longer remain in a situation which made him responsible for measures that he was not allowed to guide." He therefore resigned the seals, and lord Temple also gave up the post which he held in the administration. But the next day the king settled a pension of three thousand pounds a year upon Mr. Pitt, and at the same time a title was conferred upon his lady and her issue; and the pension was to be continued for three lives.

The war still continued to be carried on with vigour after the resignation of Mr. Pitt, and the plans were pursued that he had previously concerted. Lord Egremont was appointed to succeed him, as secretary for the southern department. It was at length also found indispensably necessary to engage in a war with Spain; the famous family compact among all the different branches of the Bourbon family being generally known; and accordingly war was declared against that kingdom, on the 4th of January, 1762. A respectable armament was fitted out under admiral Pococke, having the earl of Albemarle on board to command the land forces; and the vitals of the Spanish monarchy were struck at by the reduction of the Havannah, the strongest and most important fort which his catholic majesty held in the West Indies, after a siege of two months and eight days. The capture of the Hermione, a large Spanish register ship, bound from Lima to Cadiz, the cargo of which was valued at a million sterling, preceded the birth of the Prince of Wales, and the treasure passed in triumph through Westminster to the bank in the very hour he was born. The loss of the Havannah, with the ships and treasures there taken from the Spaniards, was succeeded by the reduction of Manilla and the Philippine islands in the

* It was on the 25th of March 1761, that the earl of Bute was appointed one of the principal secretaries of state; and on the 5th of October following, Mr. Pitt resigned the seals.

East Indies, under general Duper and admiral Cornish, with the capture of the Trinidad, reckoned worth three millions of dollars. To counteract these successful blows given to the family compact, the French and Spaniards opened their last resource, which was to quarrel with each other and Portugal, which had been always under the peculiar protection of the British arms. Whether this quarrel was real or pretended, is not for us to decide. It certainly embarrassed his Britannic majesty, who was obliged to send thither armaments both by sea and land.

The negotiations for peace were now resumed; and the enemy at last offered such terms as the British ministry thought admissible and adequate on the occasion. The defection of the Russians from the confederacy against the king of Prussia, and his consequent successes, produced a cessation of arms in Germany, and in all other quarters; and on the 10th of February 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majesty, the king of France, and the king of Spain, was concluded at Paris, and acceded to by the king of Portugal; March 10, the ratifications were exchanged at Paris; the 24, the peace was solemnly proclaimed at Westminster and London; and the treaty having on the 18th been laid before the parliament, it met the approbation of a majority of both houses.

By this treaty the extensive province of Canada, with the islands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St. John, were confirmed to Great-Britain; also the two Floridas, containing the whole of this continent of North America, on this side the Mississippi, (except the Town of New Orleans, with a small district round it) were surrendered to us by France and Spain, in consideration of restoring to Spain the island of Cuba; and to France the islands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, Mariegalante, and Desirade; and in consideration of our granting to the French the two small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon on the coast of Newfoundland, and quitting our pretensions to the neutral island of St. Lucia, they yielded to us the islands of Grenada and the Grenadillas, and quitted their pretensions to the neutral islands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. In Africa we retained the settlement of Senegal, by which we nearly engrossed the whole gum trade of that country; but we returned Goree, a small island of little value. The article that relates to the East Indies was dictated by the directors of the English company; which restores to the French all the places they had at the beginning of the war, on condition that they shall maintain neither forts nor forces in the province of Bengal; and the city of Manilla was restored to the Spaniards; but they confirmed to us the liberty of cutting logwood in the Bay of Honduras in America. In Europe, likewise, the French restored to us the island of Minorca, and we restored to them the island of Belleisle. In Germany, after six years spent in marches and counter-marches, numerous skirmishes and bloody battles, Great Britain acquired much military fame, but at the expense of thirty millions sterling! As to the objects of that war, it was agreed that a mutual restitution and oblivion should take place, and each party sit down at the end of the war in the same situation in which they began it. And peace was restored between Portugal and Spain, both sides to be upon the same footing as before the war.

The war to which a period was now put, was the most brilliant, and distinguished with the most glorious events, in the British annals. No national prejudices or party disputes then existed. The same truly British spirit by which the minister was animated, fired the breast of the soldier and seaman. The nation had then arrived at a degree of wealth

unknown to former ages; and the moneyed man, pleased with the aspect of the times, confiding in the abilities of the minister, and courage of the people, cheerfully opened his purse. The incredible sums of 18, 19, and 22 millions, raised by a few citizens of London, upon a short notice, for the service of the years 1759, 1760, and 1761, were no less astonishing to Europe than the success which attended the British fleets and armies in every quarter of the world:

But the peace, though it received the sanction of a majority of both houses of parliament, was far from giving universal satisfaction to the people. And from this period various causes contributed to occasion a great discontent to prevail throughout the nation.

On the 30th of April, 1763, three of the king's messengers entered the house of John Wilkes, esq. member of parliament for Aylesbury, and seized his person, by virtue of a warrant from the secretary of state, which directed them to seize "the authors, printers, and publishers of a seditious and treasonable paper, intitled the North Briton, No 45." The papers published under this title, severely arraigned the conduct of the administration, and represented the earl of Bute as the favourite of the king, and the person from whom measures of government of a very pernicious tendency originated. The 45th number contained strictures on the king's speech. Mr. Wilkes was suspected to be the author, but his name was not mentioned in the warrant by which he was apprehended. He objected to being taken into custody by such a warrant, alleging that it was illegal. However, he was forcibly carried before the secretaries of state for examination, and they committed him close prisoner to the Tower, his papers being also seized. He was likewise deprived of his commission as colonel of the Buckinghamshire militia. A writ of habeas corpus being procured by his friends, he was brought up to the court of Common Pleas, and the matter being there argued, he was ordered to be discharged. This affair made a great noise; people of all ranks interested themselves in it; and Westminster-hall resounded with acclamations when he was set at liberty. An information, however, was filed against him in the court of King's Bench, at his majesty's suit, as author of the North Briton, No 45. On the first day of the meeting of parliament after these transactions, Mr. Wilkes stood up in his place, and made a speech, in which he complained to the house, that in his person the rights of all the commons of England, and the privileges of parliament, had been violated by his imprisonment, the plundering of his house, and the seizure of his papers. The same day a message was sent to acquaint the house of commons with the information his majesty had received, that John Wilkes, esq. a member of that house, was the author of a most seditious and dangerous libel, and the measures that had been taken thereupon. The next day a duel was fought in Hyde Park, between Mr. Wilkes and Mr. Marryn, another member of parliament, and secretary of the treasury, in which Mr. Wilkes received a dangerous wound in the belly with a pistol bullet. Both houses of parliament soon concurred in voting the North Briton, No: 45, to be a false, scandalous, and seditious libel, and ordered it to be burnt by the common hangman. This order was accordingly executed, though not without great opposition from the populace; and Mr. Harley, one of the sheriffs who attended, was wounded, and obliged to take shelter in the mansion-house. Another prosecution was commenced against Mr. Wilkes, for having caused an obscene and profane poem to be printed, intitled, "An Essay on Woman." Of this, only twelve copies had been privately printed: and it did not

appear to have been intended for publication. Finding, however, that he should continue to be prosecuted with the most rigour, when his wound was in some degree healed, he thought proper to quit the kingdom. He was soon after expelled the house of commons; verdicts were also given against him, both on account of the *North Briton* and the *Essay on Woman*; and towards the end of the year 1764, he was outlawed. Sundry other persons had been taken up for being concerned in printing and publishing the *North Briton*; but some of them obtained verdicts against the king's messengers for false imprisonment.

In the mean time, the earl of Bute, who had been made first lord of the treasury, resigned that office, and was succeeded by Mr. George Grenville. And under this gentleman's administration, an act was passed, said to have been framed by him, which was productive of the most pernicious consequences to Great Britain; "an act for laying a *stamp duty* in the British colonies of North America," which received the royal assent on the 22d of March 1765. Some other injudicious regulations had also been made, under pretence of preventing smuggling in America; but which in effect so cramped the trade of the colonies, as to be prejudicial both to them and the mother country. As soon as it was known in North America that the *stamp-act* was passed, the whole continent was kindled into a flame. As the Americans had hitherto been taxed by their own representatives in their provincial assemblies, they loudly asserted that the British parliament, in which they were not represented, had no right to tax them. Indeed, the same doctrine had been maintained in the British parliament, when the *stamp-act* was under consideration: on which occasion it was said, that it was the birth-right of the inhabitants of the colonies, even as the descendants of Englishmen, not to be taxed by any but their own representatives; that, so far from being actually represented, they were not even virtually represented there, as the meanest inhabitants of Great Britain are, in consequence of their intimate connection with those who are actually represented; and that therefore the attempt to tax the colonies in the British parliament was oppressive and unconstitutional. On the other hand, it was contended, that the colonies, who had been protected by Great Britain, ought, in reason and justice, to contribute towards the expense of the mother-country. "Those children of our own planting," said Mr. George Grenville, speaking of the Americans, "nourished by our indulgence, until they are grown to a good degree of strength and opulence, and protected by our arms, will they grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy load of national expense which we lie under?"

When the *stamp-act*, printed by royal authority, reached the colonies, it was treated with every mark of indignation and contempt. Several acts of violence were likewise committed, with a view of preventing the operations of the *stamp-act*; and associations were also formed in the different colonies, whereby the people bound themselves not to import or purchase any British manufactures, till that act should be repealed. The inhabitants of the different colonies also established committees from every colony to correspond with each other, concerning the general affairs of the whole, and even appointed deputies from these committees to meet in CONGRESS at New York. They assembled together in that city, in October 1765; and this was the first congress held on the American continent.

These commotions in America occasioned so great an alarm in England, that the king thought proper to dismiss his ministers. The mar-

quit of Rockingham was appointed first lord of the treasury; and some of his lordship's friends succeeded to the vacant places. In March, 1766, an act was passed for repealing the American stamp-act. This was countenanced and supported by the new ministry; and Mr. Pitt, though not connected with them, yet spoke with great force in favour of the repeal. He also asserted, that the profits of Great Britain from the trade of the colonies, through all its branches, was two millions a year.

At the time that the stamp-act was repealed, an act was also passed for securing the dependence of the American colonies on Great Britain.

The marquis of Rockingham and his friends continued in administration but a short time; though, during their continuance in power, several public measures were adopted, tending to relieve the burthens of the people, and to the security of their liberties. But on the 30th of July, 1766, the duke of Grafton was appointed first lord of the treasury, in the room of the marquis of Rockingham; the earl of Shelburne, secretary of state, in the room of the duke of Richmond; Charles Townshend, chancellor of the exchequer; and Mr. Pitt, now created earl of Chatham, was appointed lord privy seal; but that eminent statesman's acceptance of a peerage, as it removed him from the house of commons, greatly lessened his weight and influence. Indeed, this political arrangement was not of any long continuance, and sundry changes followed. Mr. C. Townshend, who was a gentleman of great abilities and eloquence, made for some time a considerable figure both in the cabinet and in parliament; but on his death, the place of chancellor of the exchequer was supplied by lord North, who afterwards became first lord of the treasury, and obtained a great ascendancy in the administration.

In the year 1768, Mr. Wilkes, who had for a considerable time resided in France, came over to England, and again became an object of public attention. The limits of our work will not permit us to enter into all the particulars respecting the prosecution of this gentleman, and the subsequent transactions concerning him: for these we must refer to our quarto edition. It is well known that verdicts were found against him on account of the North Briton, and for the indecent poem, "Essay on Woman;" that he suffered a long imprisonment of two years, and paid two fines of 500l. each; that he displayed great abilities during his contests with the ministry, and was chosen member for the county of Middlesex, on the 28th of March, 1768. He was also again expelled for being the author of some prefatory remarks on a letter which he published, written by one of the secretaries of state to the chairman of the quarter-sessions at Lambeth, in which the secretary had recommended to the magistrates, previous to the unhappy affair of St. George's Fields, their calling in the assistance of the military, and employing them *effectua*; if there should be occasion. In the vote for his expulsion, his former offences, for which he was now suffering imprisonment, were complicated with this charge; and a new writ was ordered to be issued for the election of a member for the county of Middlesex.

The rigour with which Mr. Wilkes was prosecuted only increased his popularity, which was also much augmented by the spirit and firmness which on every occasion he displayed. Before his expulsion, he had been chosen an alderman of London: and on the 16th of February, 1769, he was re-elected, at Brentford, member for the county of Middlesex, without opposition. The return having been made to the house, it was resolved, that Mr. Wilkes, having been expelled that session, was

incapable of being elected a member of that parliament. The late election, therefore, was again declared void, and a new writ issued for another. He was once more unanimously re-elected by the freeholders, and the election was again declared void by the house of commons. After this a new election being ordered, colonel Luttrell, in order to recommend himself to the court, vacated the seat which he already had in parliament, by the acceptance of a nominal peer, and declared himself a candidate for the county of Middlesex. Though the whole weight of court interest was thrown into the scale in the gentleman's favour, yet a majority of near four to one appeared against him on the day of election; the numbers for Wilkes being 1133, and for Luttrell only 26. Notwithstanding this, two days after the election, it was resolved, in the house of commons, that Mr. Luttrell ought to have been returned a knight of the shire for the county of Middlesex; and the deputy clerk of the crown was ordered to amend the return, by erasing the name of Mr. Wilkes, and inserting that of colonel Luttrell in its place. The latter accordingly took his seat in parliament; but this was thought so gross a violation of the rights of the electors, that it excited a very general discontent, and loud complaints were made against it in every part of the kingdom.

After the term of Mr. Wilkes's imprisonment was expired in the year 1771, he was chosen one of the sheriffs for London and Middlesex; and was afterwards again chosen member for the county of Middlesex in the subsequent parliament, and permitted quietly to take his seat there; in the year 1775, he executed the office of lord mayor of the city of London; and has been since elected to the lucrative office of chamberlain of that city. In the year 1783, after the change of lord North's administration, on Mr. Wilkes's motion, all the declarations, orders, and resolutions of the house of commons respecting his election for the county of Middlesex were ordered to be expunged from the journals of that house, "as being subversive of the rights of the whole body of electors of this kingdom." And it should be remembered, that, in consequence of his manly and spirited contests with the government, general warrants were declared to be illegal, and an end was put to such warrants, and to the unlawful seizure of an Englishman's papers by state messengers.

After the repeal of the stamp-act, which was received with great joy in America, all things became quiet there: but unhappily new attempts were made to tax them in the British parliament, though, besides the experience of the ill success of the stamp-act, governor Pownall, a gentleman well acquainted with the disposition of the colonists, said in the house of commons, in 1767, "It is a fact which this house ought to be apprised of in all its extent, that the people of America, universally, unitedly, and unalterably, are resolved not to submit to any internal tax imposed upon them by any legislature, in which they have not a share by representatives of their own election." He added, "this claim must not be understood as though it were only the pretences of party leaders and demagogues; as though it were only the visions of speculative enthusiasts; as though it were the mere ebullition of a faction which must subside; as though it were only temporary and partial:—it is the cool, deliberate, principled maxim of every man of business in the country." The event verified the justice of these observations; yet the same year, an act was passed, laying certain duties on paper, glass, tea, &c. imported into America, to be paid by the colonies, for the purpose of raising a revenue to the government. About two years after, it was thought proper to repeal these duties, excepting that on tea; but as it

was not the amount of the duties, but the right of the parliament of Great Britain to impose taxes in America, which was the subject of dispute, the repealing the other duties answered no purpose while that on tea remained; which accordingly became a fresh subject of contest between the mother-country and the colonies.

In order to induce the East India company to become instrumental in enforcing the tea-duty in America, an act was passed, by which they were enabled to export their teas, duty free, to all places whatsoever. Several ships were accordingly freighted with teas for the different colonies by the company, who also appointed agents there for the disposal of that commodity. This was considered by the Americans as a scheme calculated merely to circumvent them into a compliance with the revenue law, and thereby pave the way to an unlimited taxation. For it was easily comprehended, that if the tea was once landed, and in the custody of the consignees, no associations, or other measures, would be sufficient to prevent its sale and consumption: and it was not to be supposed, that, when taxation was established in one instance, it would restrain itself in others. These ideas being generally prevalent in America, it was resolved by the colonists to prevent the landing of the tea-cargoes amongst them, at whatever hazard. Accordingly, three ships laden with tea having arrived in the port of Boston in December, 1773, a number of armed men, under the disguise of Mohawk Indians, boarded these ships, and in a few hours discharged their whole cargoes of tea into the sea, without doing any other damage, or offering any injury to the captains or crews. Some smaller quantities of tea met afterwards with a similar fate at Boston, and a few other places; but in general, the commissioners for the sale of that commodity were obliged to relinquish their employments; and the masters of the tea vessels, from an apprehension of danger, returned again to England with their cargoes. At New York, indeed, the tea was landed under the cannon of a man of war. But the persons in the service of government there were obliged to consent to its being locked up from use. And in South Carolina some was thrown into the river, as at Boston, and the rest put into damp warehouses, where perished.

These proceedings in America excited so much indignation in the government of England, that, on the 31st of March, 1774, an act was passed removing the custom-house officers from the town of Boston, and shutting up the port. Another act was soon after passed "for better regulating the government in the province of Massachusetts Bay." The design of this act was to alter the constitution of that province as it stood in the charter of king William; to take the whole executive power out of the hands of the people, and to vest the nomination of the counsellors, judges, and magistrates of all kinds, including sheriffs, in the crown, and in some cases in the king's governor, and all to be removable at the pleasure of the crown. Another act was also passed, which was considered as highly injurious, cruel, and unconstitutional, empowering the governor of Massachusetts Bay to send persons accused of crimes there, to be tried in England for such offences. Some time after, an act was likewise passed "for making more effectual provision for the government of the province of Quebec," which excited a great alarm both in England and America. By this act, a legislative council was to be established for the affairs of the province of Quebec, except taxation; which council was to be appointed by the crown, the office to be held during pleasure; and his majesty's Canadian Roman catholic subjects were entitled to a share in it. The French laws, and a trial without jury, were also esta-

blished in civil cases, and the English laws, with a trial by jury, in criminal; and the popish clergy were invested with a legal right to their tithes from all who were of their own religion. No assembly of the people, as in other British colonies, was appointed, it being said in the act, that it was then inexpedient: but the king was to erect such courts of criminal, civil, and ecclesiastical jurisdiction, as he should think proper. The boundaries of the province of Quebec were likewise extended, by the act, thousands of miles at the back of the other colonies, whereby, it was said, a government little better than despotic was established throughout an extensive country.

The measures of government respecting America had so universally exasperated the colonists, that provincial or town meetings were held in every part of the continent, in which they avowed their intentions of opposing, in the most vigorous manner, the measures of administration. Agreements were entered into in the different colonies, whereby the subscribers bound themselves, in the most solemn manner, and in the presence of God, to suspend all commercial intercourse with Great Britain, from the last day of the month of August, 1774, until the Boston port bill, and the other late obnoxious laws, were repealed, and the colony of Massachusetts Bay fully restored to its chartered rights. Other transactions succeeded; and the flame continued to increase and extend in America, till at length twelve of the colonies, including that whole extent of the country which stretches from Nova Scotia to Georgia, had appointed deputies to attend a General Congress, which was to be held at Philadelphia, and opened the 5th of September, 1774. They met accordingly, and the number of delegates amounted to fifty-one; who represented the several English colonies, of New Hampshire (2 delegates), Massachusetts Bay (4), Rhode Island and Providence plantations (2), Connecticut (3), New York (7), New Jersey (4), Pennsylvania (7), the lower counties on Delaware (3), Maryland (4), Virginia (7), North Carolina (3), and South Carolina (5 delegates); Georgia afterwards acceded to the confederacy, and sent deputies to the Congress.

They drew up a petition to the king, in which they enumerated their several grievances, and solicited his majesty to grant them peace, liberty, and safety. They likewise published an address to the people of Great Britain, another to the colonies in general, and another to the inhabitants of the province of Quebec. The congress broke up on the 26th of October, having resolved, that another congress should be held in the same place on the 10th of May following, unless the grievances of which they complained should be redressed before that time; and they recommended to all the colonies to choose deputies, as soon as possible for that purpose.

Shortly after these events, some measures were proposed in the parliament of Great Britain, for putting a stop to the commotions which unhappily subsisted in America. The earl of Chatham, who had been long in an infirm state of health, appeared in the house of lords, and expressed in the strongest terms his disapprobation of the whole system of American measures. He also made a motion for immediately recalling the troops from Boston, as a measure which should be instantly adopted, urging, that an hour then lost, in allaying the ferment in America, might produce years of calamity. He alleged that this conciliatory measure would be well-timed; and, as a mark of affection and good will on our side, would remove all jealousy and apprehension on the other, and instantaneously produce the happiest effects to both. His lordship's motion was rejected by a large majority, 68 against 18; as was also a bill which

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he brought in soon after for settling the American troubles, by 61. to 32.
The methods proposed in the house of commons for promoting an ac-
commodation, met also with a similar fate. The number of his ma-
jesty's troops was ordered to be augmented; and an act was passed for
restraining the commerce of the New England colonies, and to prohibit
their fishery on the banks of Newfoundland. A motion was, indeed,
afterwards made in the house of commons, by lord North, first lord of
the treasury, for suspending the exercise of the right of taxation in Ame-
rica, claimed by the British parliament, in such of the colonies as should,
in their general assemblies, raise such contributions as were approved of
by the king in parliament. This motion was carried, and afterwards
communicated to some provincial assemblies; but it was rejected by
them as delusive and unsatisfactory, and only calculated to disunite
them. The petition from the congress to the king was ordered by his
majesty to be laid before the parliament; whereupon Dr. Franklin, and
two other American agents, solicited to be heard at the bar of the house
of commons, on behalf of the colonies, in support of that petition; but
their application was rejected; it being said, that the American congress
was no legal assembly, and that therefore no petition could be received
from it by the parliament with propriety.

It was on the 19th of April, 1775, that the first blood was drawn in
this unhappy civil war, at Lexington and Concord in New England.
This was occasioned by general Gage sending a body of troops to de-
stroy some military stores that were at Concord. They succeeded in
their design, but were extremely harassed, and forced to a quick retreat;
65 of them were killed, 170 wounded, and about 20 made prisoners.
The Americans were computed not to have lost more than 60, including
killed and wounded. Immediately after, numerous bodies of the Ameri-
can militia invested the town of Boston, in which general Gage and his
troops were. In all the colonies, they prepared for war with the utmost
dispatch; and a stop was almost every where put to the exportation of
provisions. The continental congress met at Philadelphia on the 10th
of May 1775, as proposed, and soon adopted such measures as confirmed
the people in their resolutions to oppose the British government to the
utmost. Among their first acts, were resolutions for the raising of an
army, and the establishment of a large paper currency for its payment.
They assumed the appellation of "The United Colonies of America,"
who were securities for realising the nominal value of this currency.
They also strictly prohibited the supplying of the British fisheries with
any kind of provisions; and to render this order the more effectual, stopt
all exportation to those colonies, islands, and places, which still retained
their obedience.

In the mean time, a body of provincial adventurers, amounting to
about 240 men, surprised the garrisons of Ticonderoga and Crown
point. These fortresses were taken without the loss of a man on either
side; and the provincials found in the forts a considerable number of
pieces of cannon, besides mortars, and sundry kinds of military stores.
The force of Great Britain in America was now augmented, by the ar-
ival at Boston from England of the generals Howe, Burgoyne, and
Clinton, with considerable reinforcements. But the continental con-
gress were so little intimidated by this, that they voted, a few days after,
that the compact between the crown and the people of Massachusetts
was dissolved, by the violation of the charter of William and Mary;
and therefore recommended to the people of that province, to proceed
to the establishment of a new government, by electing a governor, a list-

ants, and house of assembly, according to the powers contained in their original charter.

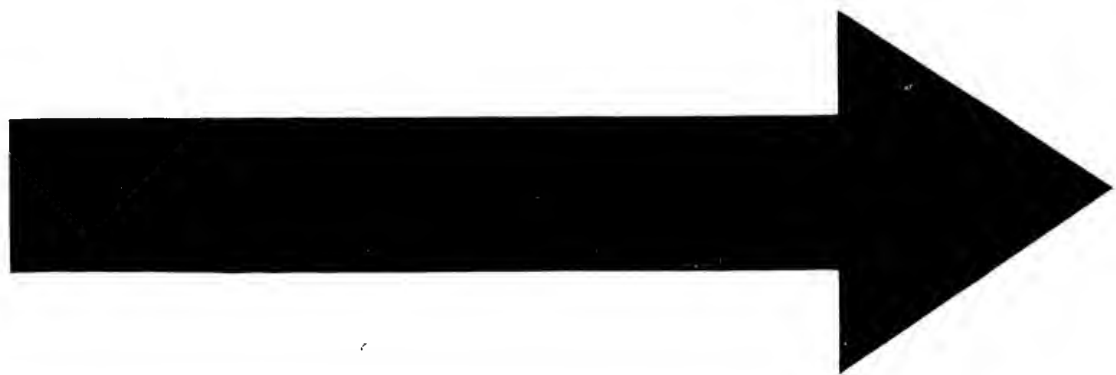
Our limits will not permit us here to relate, as in the quarto edition, all the particulars of this fatal war. We can only mention some of the most important transactions. On the 17th of June, 1775, a bloody action took place at Bunker's Hill, near Boston, in which the king's troops had the advantage, but with the loss of 226 killed, and more than 800 wounded, including many officers. After this action, the Americans immediately threw up works upon another hill, opposite to it, on their side of Charlestown neck; so that the troops were as closely invested in that peninsula as they had been in Boston. About this time the congress appointed George Washington, esq. a gentleman of large fortune in Virginia, of great military talents, and who had acquired considerable experience in the command of different bodies of provincials during the last war, to be general and commander in chief of all the American forces. They also published a declaration, in which they styled themselves, "The representatives of the United Colonies of North America," and assigned their reasons for taking up arms. It was written in a very animated strain, and contained the following passage: "In our own native land, in defence of the freedom that is our birth-right, and which we ever enjoyed till the late violation of it; for the protection of our property, acquired solely by the honest industry of our forefathers and ourselves; against violence actually offered, we have taken up arms. We shall lay them down when hostilities shall cease on the part of the aggressors, and all danger of their being renewed shall be removed, and not before." A second petition to the king was voted by the congress, in which they earnestly solicited his majesty to adopt some method of putting a stop to the unhappy contest between Great Britain and the colonies. This petition was presented by Mr. Penn, late governor, and one of the proprietors, of Pennsylvania, through the hands of lord Dartmouth, secretary of state for the American department; but Mr. Penn was soon after informed, that no answer would be given to it. The refusal of the king to give an answer to this petition, from near three millions of people, by their representatives, contributed exceedingly towards farther exasperating the minds of the Americans. It was a rash and unhappy determination of the cabinet council; and their advice to the king on this point was fatal, if not highly criminal. An address now also was published by the congress to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and to the people of Ireland.

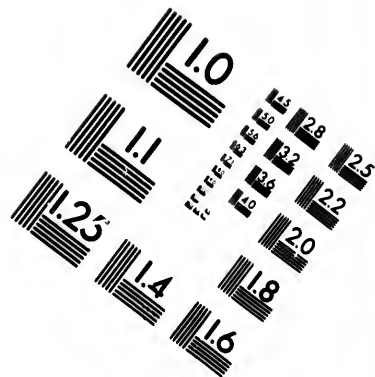
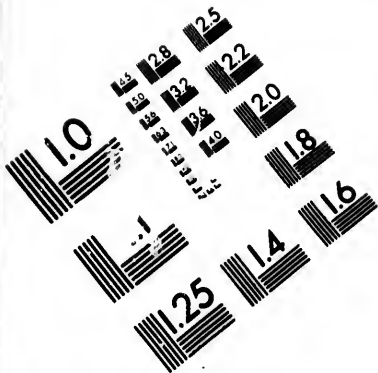
But as no conciliatory measures were adopted, hostilities still continued; and an expedition was set on foot by the Americans against Canada, to which they were induced by an extraordinary commission given to general Carleton, the governor of Canada; by which he was empowered to embody and arm the Canadians, to march out of the country for the subjugation of the other colonies, and to proceed even to capital punishments against all those whom he should deem rebels and opposers of the laws. The American expedition against Canada was chiefly conducted by Richard Montgomery, a gentleman of an amiable character, and of considerable military skill, on whom the congress conferred the rank of brigadier-general. On the 31st of December Montgomery attempted to gain possession of Quebec by storm, but was killed in the first fire from a battery, as advancing in the front of his men: Arnold was also dangerously wounded, about sixty of their men were killed and wounded, and 300 taken prisoners. The besiegers immediately quitted their camp, and retired about three miles from the

city, and the siege was for some months converted into a blockade. On general Carleton's receiving considerable reinforcements and supplies of provisions from England, May, 1776, Arnold was obliged to make a precipitate retreat; Montréal, Chamblee, and St. John's, were retaken, and all Canada recovered by the king's troops.

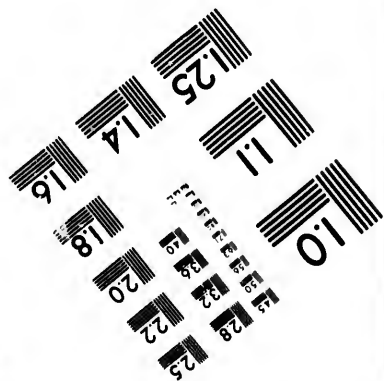
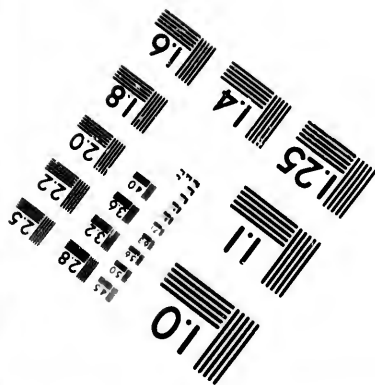
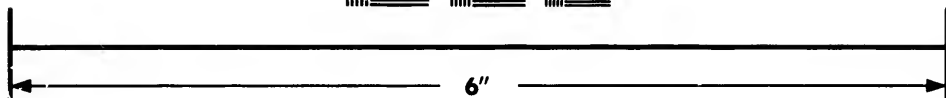
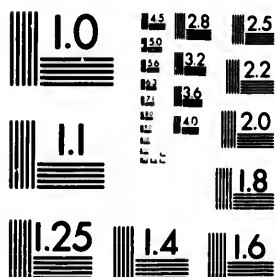
During these transactions, the royal army at Boston was reduced to great distress for want of provisions; the town was bombarded by the Americans; and general Howe, who now commanded the king's troops, which amounted to upwards of seven thousand men, was obliged to quit Boston, and embark for Halifax, leaving a considerable quantity of artillery and some stores behind. The town was evacuated on the 17th of March, 1776, and general Washington immediately took possession of it. On the 4th of July following, the congress published a solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name, and by the authority of the inhabitants of the united colonies, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be, "free and independent states;" that they were absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the kingdom of Great Britain was totally dissolved; and also that, as free and independent states, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do." They likewise published articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they assumed the title of "The United States of America."

In July 1776, an attempt was made by commodore sir Peter Parker, and lieutenant-general Clinton, upon Charles-town in South Carolina. But this place was so ably defended by the Americans under general Lee, that the British commodore and general were obliged to retire; the king's ships having sustained considerable loss; and a twenty-eight gun ship, which ran a-ground, was obliged to be burnt by the officers and seamen. However, a much more important and successful attack against the Americans was soon after made under the command of general Howe, then joined with a large body of Hessians, and a considerable number of Highlanders, so that his whole force was now extremely formidable. The fleet was commanded by his brother vice-admiral lord Howe; and both the general and the admiral were invested with a power, under the title of "Commissioners for granting peace to the colonies," of granting pardon to those who would lay down their arms. But their offers of this kind were treated by the Americans with contempt. An attack upon the town of New York seems to have been expected by the provincials, and therefore they had fortified it in the best manner they were able. On Long Island, near New York, the Americans had also a large body of troops encamped, and several works thrown up. General Howe first landed on Staten Island, where he met with no opposition; but early in the morning of the 22d of August, a descent was made by the British troops upon Long Island, and towards noon about fifteen thousand were landed. They had greatly the advantage of the Americans, by their superior skill and discipline, and being better provided with artillery, and every kind of military accommodation; and the American passes were far from being properly secured. Some actions and skirmishes happened between them during several successive days, in which the British troops engaged their enemies with great ardour,





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and the Americans suffered exceedingly. Finding themselves so much overpowered, they at length resolved to quit the island, and general Washington came over from New York to conduct their retreat, in which he displayed great ability. In the night of the 29th of July, the American troops were withdrawn from the camp, and their different works; their baggage, stores, and part of their artillery, were conveyed to the water-side, embarked, and passed over a long ferry to New York, with such extraordinary silence and order, that the British army did not perceive the least motion, and were surpris'd in the morning at finding the American lines abandoned, and seeing the last of their rear-guard in their boats, and out of danger. The provincials had been so surrounded by the British troops, and the latter had displayed such superior military skill, that it was a subject of wonder that the greatest part of the American army should be able to effectuate their retreat. In the different actions previous to this, the loss of the Americans had been very considerable. Upwards of a thousand of them were taken prisoners, including three generals, three colonels, and many inferior officers: their number killed and wounded was computed to be still greater; they lost also five field-pieces, and a quantity of ordnance was found in their different redoubts and forts on the island; whilst the whole loss of the British troops, if faithfully published, did not amount to more than three hundred killed and wounded.

New York was now soon abandoned, and the royal army obtained some other considerable advantages over the Americans, at the White Plains, taking Fort Washington, with a garrison of 2500 men, and Fort Lee with a great quantity of stores; which losses obliged the American general to retreat through the Jerseys to the river Delaware, a distance of ninety miles. Also on the 8th of December, general Clinton and sir Peter Parker obtained possession of Rhode-island: and the British troops covered the Jerseys. This was the crisis of American danger. All their forts were taken, the time of the greatest part of their army to serve was expired, and the few that remained with their officers were in a destitute state, with a well clothed and disciplined army pursuing: Had general Howe pushed on at that time to Philadelphia, after Washington, it has been maintained there would have been an end to the contest; but Providence directed otherwise; and the general's orders from home are said to have prevented him. This delay gave time for volunteer reinforcements of gentleman, merchant, farmer, tradesman, and labourer, to join general Washington, who, in the night of the 25th of December, amidst snow, storms, and ice, with a small detachment, crossed the Delaware, and surpris'd a brigade of the Hessian troops at Trenton. He took upwards of 900 of them prisoners, with whom he repass'd the river; having also taken three standards, six pieces of brass cannon, and near one thousand stand of arms. Immediately after this surpris'e of the Hessians, and depositing them in safety, Washington recross'd the river to resume his former posts at Trenton. The British troops collected in force to attack him, and only waited for the morning; but the Americans, by a happy stroke of generalship, defeated the plan. Washington, to disguise his retreat in the night, ordered a line of fires in front of his camp, as an indication of their going to rest, and to conceal what was acting behind them. Then he moved completely from the ground with his baggage and artillery, and by a circuitous march of eighteen miles, reach'd Prince-town early in the morning, carried the British post at that place, and set off with near 300 prisoners.

his return to the Delaware, just as the British troops at Trenton were under arms and proceeding to attack him, supposing him in his former position.

In the month of September 1777, two actions of some importance happened between the armies of general Howe and general Washington, in both of which the former had the advantage; and soon after, the city of Philadelphia surrendered to the king's troops. But an expedition, that had for some time been concerted, of invading the northern colonies by way of Canada, proved extremely unsuccessful. The command of this expedition had been given to lieutenant-general Burgoyne, a very experienced officer. He set out from Québec with an army of near 10,000 men, and an extraordinary fine train of artillery, and was joined by a considerable body of Indians. For some time he drove the Americans before him, and made himself master of Ticonderoga; but at length he encountered such difficulties, and was so vigorously opposed by the Americans under Gates and Arnold, that, after two severe actions in which great numbers fell, general Burgoyne, and his army of 5,600 men, were obliged to lay down their arms, October 17, 1777.

About the same time, sir Henry Clinton and general Vaughan made a successful expedition against the Americans up the North River; they made themselves masters of several forts; but the Americans complained, that in this expedition, and some others, the British troops had wantonly set fire to houses and towns, particularly Esopus, and carried on the war in a manner not usual among civilised nations. These devastations greatly increased the aversion of the Americans to the British government, which had already taken a deep root. General Howe soon after returned to England, and the command of the British army in America devolved upon general Clinton; but it was now found necessary to evacuate Philadelphia; and accordingly Clinton retreated with the army to New York, in June 1778. The British troops were attacked on their march by the Americans; but the retreat was so ably conducted, or the American general Lee behaved so ill, that their loss did not amount to 300, killed and wounded.

During part of this unhappy war between Great Britain and the colonies, the latter received considerable supplies of arms and ammunition from France; and the French court seems to have thought this a favourable opportunity for lessening the power of Great Britain. Some French officers also entered into the American service; and on the 6th of February, 1778, a treaty of alliance was concluded at Paris, between the French king and the Thirteen United Colonies; and in this treaty it was declared, that the essential and direct end of it was "to maintain effectually the liberty, sovereignty, and independence, absolute and unlimited, of the United States of North America, as well in matters of government as of commerce."

The parliament and people of Great Britain now began to be in general alarmed at the fatal tendency of the American war: and in June, 1778, the earl of Carlisle, William Eden, and George Johnstone, esqrs. arrived at Philadelphia, as commissioners from his majesty, to settle the disputes between the mother-country and the colonies. But it was now too late: the terms which, at an earlier period of the contest, would have been accepted with gratitude, were now rejected with disdain; and the congress positively refused to enter into any treaty with the British commissioners, if the independency of the United States of America was not previously acknowledged, or the British fleets and armies withdrawn from America. Neither of these requisitions being

complied with, the war continued to be carried on with mutual animosity.

The conduct of France towards Great Britain, in taking part with the revolted colonies, occasioned hostilities to be commenced between the two nations, though without any formal declaration of war on either side. On the 27th of June, 1778, the *Licorne* and *La Belle Poule*, two French frigates, were taken by admiral Keppel. Orders were immediately issued by the French court for making reprisals on the ships of Great Britain; and on the 27th of July, a battle was fought off Brest between the English fleet, under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet, under the command of count d'Orvilliers. The English fleet consisted of 30 ships of the line, and the French 32, besides frigates: they engaged for about three hours; but the action was not decisive, no ship being taken on either side, and the French fleet at length retreated into the harbour of Brest. Of the English, 133 were killed in the action, and 373 wounded; and the loss of the French is supposed to have been very great. After the engagement there was much murmuring throughout the English fleet, because a decisive victory had not been obtained over the French; at last the blame was thrown upon sir Hugh Palliser, vice-admiral of the blue, who was charged in a news-paper with misconduct, and disobedience of orders. Though no regular accusation was brought against him, he requested admiral Keppel publicly to vindicate his conduct from the unfavourable reports that were propagated relative to him. This the admiral declined; which gave rise to some altercation between them; and sir Hugh Palliser afterwards thought proper to exhibit to the board of admiralty (of which he was himself a member) articles of accusation against admiral Keppel, though, for many months after the action, he had continued to act under him, and professed the greatest respect to him. A mode of conduct so extraordinary was very generally and severely censured; but the lords of the admiralty ordered a court-martial to be held for the trial of admiral Keppel. When the court-martial was held, admiral Keppel was acquitted in the most honourable manner; and sir Hugh Palliser's charge against him was declared by the court to be "malicious and ill-founded." But sir Hugh Palliser being afterwards tried by another court-martial, partly composed from some of the captains of his own division, he likewise was acquitted; his disobedience to the admiral's orders was considered as being occasioned by the disabled state of his ship; a slight censure only was passed on him for not making the state of his ship known to the admiral; and his conduct in other respects was declared to have been meritorious.

In the East Indies also an engagement happened between some English ships of war under the command of sir Edward Vernon, and some French ships under the command of Mons. de Tronjolly, on the 10th of August, in which the former obliged the latter to retire; and on the 17th of October following, Pondicherry surrendered to the arms of Great Britain. In the course of the same year, the island of St. Lucia, in the West Indies, was taken from the French; but the latter made themselves masters of Dominica, and the following year they obtained possession of the islands of St. Vincent's and Grenada. In September, 1779, the count D'Estaing arrived at the mouth of the river Savannah, with a large fleet, and a considerable body of French troops, to the assistance of the Americans. The French and Americans soon made an united attack upon the British troops at Savannah, under the command of general Prevost; but the latter defended themselves so well, that the

French and Americans were driven off with great loss, and D'Estaing soon after totally abandoned the coast of America. At the close of the year 1779, several French ships of war, and merchant ships, were taken in the West Indies, by a fleet under the command of sir Hyde Parker.

By the intrigues of the French court, Spain was at length brought to engage with France in the war against England. One of the first enterprises in which the Spaniards engaged was the siege of Gibraltar, which was defended by the garrison with great vigour. The naval force of Spain was also added to that of France, now become extremely formidable, and their combined fleets seemed for a time to ride almost triumphant in the British Channel. So great were their armaments, that the nation was under no inconsiderable apprehensions of an invasion; but they did not venture to make an experiment of that kind; and after parading for some time in the Channel, thought proper to retire to their own ports without effecting any thing. On the 8th of January 1780, sir George Brydges Rodney, who had a large fleet under his command, captured seven Spanish ships and vessels of war belonging to the royal company of Caraccas, with a number of trading vessels under their convoy; and in a few days after, the same admiral engaged, near Cape St. Vincent, a Spanish fleet, consisting of eleven ships of the line, and two frigates, under Don Juan de Langara. Four of the largest Spanish ships were taken, and carried into Gibraltar, and two others driven on shore, one of which was afterwards recovered by the English. A Spanish 70 gun ship, with 600 men, was also blown up in the action. In April and May three actions likewise happened in the West Indies, between the English fleet under admiral Rodney, who was now arrived in that part of the world (having previously thrown supplies into Gibraltar), and the French fleet under the count de Guichen; but none of these actions were decisive, nor was any ship taken on either side. In July following, admiral Geary took twelve valuable French merchant ships from Port au Prince; but on the 8th of August, the combined fleets of France and Spain took five English East Indiamen, and fifty English merchant ships bound for the West Indies, which was one of the most complete naval captures ever made, and a very severe stroke to the commerce of Great Britain. Such a prize never before entered the harbour of Cadiz.

On the 4th of May, 1780, sir Henry Clinton made himself master of Charles-town, South Carolina; and on the 16th of August, earl Cornwallis obtained a very signal victory over general Gates in that province, in which about a thousand American prisoners were taken.

Soon after, major-general Arnold deserted the service of the congress, made his escape to New York, and was made a brigadier-general in the royal service. Major André, who negotiated this desertion, and was concerting measures with him for betraying the important post of West Point into the hands of the English, was taken in the American lines, in his return to New York, and being considered as a spy, suffered death accordingly, much regretted for his amiable qualities.

The great expenses of the American war, and the burthens which were thereby laid upon the people, naturally occasioned much discontent in the nation, and seemed to convince persons of all ranks of the necessity of public economy. Meetings were therefore held in various counties of the kingdom, at the close of the year 1779, and the beginning of the year 1780, at which great numbers of freeholders were present, who agreed to present petitions to the house of commons, stating

the evils which the profuse expenditure of the public money occasioned, &c.

Some trivial attempts were made in parliament to remedy the grievances stated in the petitions, but nothing important was effected: the ministry soon found means to maintain their influence in parliament; a diversity of sentiment occasioned some division among the popular leaders; the spirit which had appeared among the people, by degrees subsided; and various causes at length conspired to bring the greatest part of the nation to a patient acquiescence in the measures of administration.

The middle of the year 1780 was distinguished by one of the most disgraceful exhibitions of religious bigotry that had ever appeared in this country; especially if it be considered as happening in an age in which the principles of toleration were well understood, and very prevalent. An act of parliament had been lately passed "for relieving his majesty's subjects, professing the Romish religion, from certain penalties and disabilities imposed upon them in the 11th and 12th years of "the reign of king William III." This act was generally approved by men of sense, and of liberal sentiments, by whom the laws against papists were justly deemed too severe. The act at first seemed to give little offence to persons of any class in England; but in Scotland it excited much indignation, though it did not extend to that kingdom. Resolutions were formed to oppose any law for granting indulgences to papists in Scotland; and a Romish chapel was burned, and the houses of several papists demolished in the city of Edinburgh. The contagion of bigotry at length reached England: a number of persons assembled themselves together, with a view of promoting a petition to parliament, for a repeal of the late act in favour of the papists, and they assumed the title of the Protestant Association. It was then resolved, in order to give the more weight to their petition, that it should be attended by great numbers of petitioners in person; and a public advertisement was issued for that purpose, signed by lord George Gordon.

Fifty thousand persons are supposed to have assembled with this view, on Friday the 2d of June, in St. George's Fields; from whence they proceeded, with blue cockades in their hats, to the house of commons, where their petition was presented by their president. In the course of the day several members of both houses of parliament were grossly insulted and ill-treated by the populace; and a mob assembled the same evening, by which the Sardinian chapel in Lincoln's-inn Fields, and another Romish chapel in Warwick-street, Golden-square, were entirely demolished. A party of the guards were then sent for, to put a stop to the farther progress of these violences, and thirteen of the rioters were taken, five of whom were afterwards committed to Newgate, escorted by the military. On the Sunday following, another mob assembled, and destroyed a popish chapel in Rope-maker's-alley, Moorfields. On Monday they demolished a school-house, and three dwelling-houses, in the same place, belonging to the Romish priests, with a valuable library of books, and a mass-house, in Virginia-street, Ratcliff-highway. They also destroyed all the household furniture of sir George Saville, one of the most respectable men in the kingdom, because he had brought in the bill in favour of the papists. On Tuesday great numbers again assembled about the parliament house, and behaved so tumultuously, that both houses thought proper to adjourn. In the evening, a most daring and violent attempt was made to force open the gates of Newgate, in order to release the rioters who were confined there; and the keeper having re-

ruled to deliver them, his house was set on fire, the prison was soon in flames, and great part of it consumed, though a new stone edifice of uncommon strength; and more than three hundred prisoners made their escape, many of whom joined the mob. A committee of the Protestant Association now circulated hand-bills, requesting all true protestants to show their attachments to their best interest, by a legal and peaceable deportment: but none of them slept forth, notwithstanding their boasted numbers, to extinguish the flames they had occasioned; violence, tumult, and devastation still continued. The Protestant Association, as they thought proper to style themselves, had been chiefly actuated by ignorance and bigotry; and their new confederates were animated by the love of mischief, and the hope of plunder. Two other prisons, the houses of lord Mansfield, and sir John Fielding, and several other private houses, were destroyed the same evening. The following day, the King's Bench prison, the New Bridewell in St. George's Fields, some popish chapels, several private houses of the papists, and other buildings, were destroyed by the rioters; some were pulled down, and others set on fire; and every part of the metropolis exhibited violence and disorder, tumults and conflagrations.

During these extraordinary scenes, there was a shameful inactivity in the lord-mayor of London, and in most of the other magistrates of the metropolis, and its neighbourhood; and even the ministry appeared to be panic-struck, and to be only attentive to the preservation of their own houses, and of the royal palace. The magistrates, at the beginning of the riots, declined giving any orders to the military to fire upon the insurgents; but at length, as all property began to be insecure, men of all classes began to see the necessity of vigorous opposition to the rioters; large bodies of troops were brought to the metropolis from many miles round it; and an order was issued, by the authority of the king in council, "for the military to act without waiting for directions from the civil magistrates, and to use force for dispersing the illegal and tumultuous assemblies of the people." The troops exerted themselves with diligence in the suppression of these alarming tumults, great numbers of the rioters were killed, many were apprehended, who were afterwards tried and executed for felony*, and the metropolis was at length restored to order and tranquillity. The manner in which these tumults were suppressed by the operations of the military, without any authority from the civil magistrate, however necessary from the peculiar circumstances of the case, was thought to be a very dangerous precedent; and that an act of indemnity ought to have been passed, not only with regard to inferior persons who had acted in the suppression of these riots, but also with respect to the ministry themselves, for the part they had taken in this transaction, in order to prevent its being established as a precedent.

While the internal peace of the kingdom was disturbed by these commotions, there appeared reason to apprehend an increase of its foreign enemies, by a rupture with Holland; loud remonstrances were made by the British minister to the States-general, complaining that a clandestine commerce was carried on between their subjects and the Americans; that this was particularly the case at St. Eustatius; and that the enemies of Great Britain were supplied with naval and military stores by the Dutch.

* Lord George Gordon was himself committed to the Tower, and tried for high treason, but acquitted.

The war with Holland was commenced with great vigour and that republic soon suffered a very severe blow in the loss of the island of St. Eustatius, which was taken by the English on the 2d of February, 1781.

On the 5th of August the same year, a very bloody engagement was fought between an English squadron of ships of war, under the command of admiral Hyde Parker, and a Dutch squadron under the command of admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger Bank. Both the contending squadrons fought with great gallantry, and by both the victory was claimed.

The war continued to be prosecuted with various success; the French made themselves masters of the island of Tobago; and the Spaniards of Pensacola, and the whole province of West Florida, with little effectual resistance. Earl Cornwallis obtained a victory over the Americans under general Greene, at Guildford, in North Carolina, March 19, 1781; but it was a hard fought battle, and the loss on both sides considerable. Indeed the victory was productive of all the consequences of a defeat; for, three days after, lord Cornwallis was obliged to leave part of his sick and wounded behind him to the care of his enemy, and to make a circuitous retreat of 200 miles to Wilmington before he could find shelter, and so left South Carolina entirely exposed to the American general. The generals Philips and Arnold committed some ravages in Virginia, destroyed much shipping, and about 8000 hogheads of tobacco; but none of these events at that time promised any speedy termination of the war; they rather contributed to draw the attention of the Americans and the French at Rhode island to that quarter, where the next year the decisive blow was struck, which firmly established American independence. Lord Cornwallis's situation at Wilmington was very disagreeable, and his force reduced so low that he could not think of marching to Charles-town by land; he turned his thoughts then to a co-operation in Virginia with Philips and Arnold, and began his march, April 25, 1781. In this central province, all the scattered operations of active hostility began at length to converge into a point, and the grand catastrophe of the American war opened to the world. By different reinforcements, lord Cornwallis's force amounted to above 7000 excellent troops; but such was their plundering and devastations on their route, and the order of the Americans, his situation became at length very critical. Sir Henry Clinton, the commander in chief, was prevented from sending those succours to him which he otherwise would have done, by his fears for New York, against which he apprehended Washington meditated a formidable attack. This American general played a game of great address: as many of their posts and dispatches had been intercepted, and the letters published with great parade and triumph in the New York papers, to expose the poverty, weakness, and disunion of the Americans,—Washington soon turned the tables on the British commanders, and derived public advantage from this source of vexation and prejudice. He wrote letters to the southern officers and others, informing them of his total inability to relieve Virginia, unless by a direct attack with the French troops on New York. He asserted it was absolutely determined on, and would soon be executed. These letters were intercepted (as was intended they should), with others of the like kind from the French officers; and the project was successful. Sir Henry Clinton was thus amused and deceived, and kept from forming any suspicion of the real designs of the enemy.

By a variety of judicious military manœuvres, Washington kept New York and its dependencies in a continual state of alarm for a

about six weeks, and then suddenly marched across the Jerseys and through Pennsylvania to the Head of Elk, at the bottom of the Chesapeake, from which the light troops were conveyed by slipping down the bay, and the bulk of the army, after reaching Maryland by forced marches, were also there embarked, and soon joined the other body under the marquis de la Fayette. Sir Henry Clinton receiving information that the count de Grasse was expected every moment in the Chesapeake, with a large French fleet to co-operate with Washington, now seriously attempted to re-inforce lord Cornwallis, but without success; for on the 5th of September, after a partial action of a few hours between the British fleet under admiral Graves, and that of the French under de Grasse, Graves returned to New York to rest, and left the French masters of the navigation of the Chesapeake. Presently the most effectual measures were adopted by general Washington for surrounding lord Cornwallis's army; and on the last of September it was closely invested in York Town, and at Gloucester on the opposite side of the river, with a considerable body of troops on one side, and a large naval force on the other. The trenches were opened in the night between the strand 7th of October, with a large train of artillery. The works which had been raised by the British, sunk under the weight of the enemies' batteries; the troops were much diminished by the sword and sickness, and worn down by constant watching and fatigue; and all hope of relief failing, the 19th of October lord Cornwallis surrendered himself and his whole army by capitulation to general Washington, as prisoners of war*. Fifteen hundred seamen underwent the fate of the garrison; but these, with the Guadalupe frigate of 24 guns, and a number of transports, were assigned to M. de Grasse, as a return for the French naval assistance.

Such was the issue of the Virginian war. The capture of this army, under lord Cornwallis, was too heavy a blow to be soon or easily recovered; it threw a gloom over the whole court and cabinet at home, and put a total period to the hopes of those who had flattered themselves with the subjugation of the colonies by arms. The surrender of this second British army may be considered as the closing scene of the continental war in America; for the immense expense of carrying it on so distant from the seat of preparations and power; the great accumulation of public debt it had brought upon the nation; the plentiful effusion of human blood it had occasioned; the diminution of trade, and the vast increase of taxes—these were evils of such a magnitude, arising from this ever to be lamented contest, as could scarcely be overlooked even by the most insensible and stupid. Accordingly, on the first of March 1782, after repeated struggles in the house of commons, the house addressed the king, requesting him to put a stop to any farther prosecution of the war against the American colonies. This was a most important event; it rendered a change of measures and of councils absolutely necessary, and diffused universal joy throughout the kingdom. Those country gentlemen who had generally voted with the ministry, saw the dangers to which the nation was exposed in an expensive war with France, Spain, and Holland, without a single ally; and feeling the pressure of the public burthens, they at length deserted the standard of administration, and a complete revolution in the cabinet was effected, March 27th, 1782, under the auspices of the marquis of Rockingham, who was appointed first lord of the treasury.

The first business of the new ministry was the taking measures for ef-

* The American return made the number of prisoners 7,447, land and marine.

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securing a general peace. Mr. Grenville was invested with full powers to treat at Paris with all the parties at war, and was also directed to propose the independency of the Thirteen United Provinces of America in the first instance, instead of making it a condition of a general treaty. The commanders in chief in America were also directed to acquaint the congress with the pacific views of the British court, and with the offer to acknowledge the independency of the United States.

Peace every day became more desirable to the nation. A series of losses agitated the minds of the people. January 14th, 1782, the French took Nevis. On the 5th of February, the island of Minorca surrendered to the Spaniards; and on the 13th of the same month, the island of St. Christopher's was given up to the French. The valuable island of Jamaica would soon probably have shared the same fate, had not the British fleet, under admiral Rodney, fallen in with that of the French under the Count de Grasse, in their way to join the Spanish fleet at St. Domingo. The van of the French was too far advanced to support the centre, and a signal victory was obtained over them. The French admiral, in the Ville de Paris of 110 guns (a present from the city of Paris to the French king), was taken, with two seventy-fours, and one of 64 guns; a 74 gun ship blew up by accident soon after she was in our possession, and another 74 sunk during the engagement. A few days after, two more of the same fleet, of 64 guns each, were captured. By this victory of the 12th of April, the design against Jamaica was frustrated. The new ministry had superseded admiral Rodney, and intended to have prosecuted the inquiry into his transactions at St. Eustatius; but this victory silenced all complaints, and procured him the dignity of an English peer.

May 18th, the Bahama islands surrendered to the Spaniards; but the credit of the British arms was well sustained at Gibraltar, under general Elliot, the governor; and the formidable attack on the 13th of September with floating batteries of 212 brass cannon, &c. in ships from 1400 to 600 tons burden, ended in disappointment, and the destruction of all the ships and most of the assailants in them. The garrison was relieved by lord Howe, in the month of October, who offered battle to the combined force of France and Spain, though twelve sail of the line inferior. The military operations after this were few, and of little consequence. Negapatnam, a settlement in the East Indies, and Trincomale on the island of Ceylon, were taken from the Dutch by the British forces; but the French soon receiving considerable succours from Europe, took Cuddalore, retook Trincomale, forced the British fleet in several actions, but none decisive, and enabled Hyder Ally to withstand, with various success, all the efforts of sir Eyre Coote, and his troops.

The death of the marquis of Rockingham, on the 1st of July, occasioned a violent commotion in the cabinet, and lessened the hopes which had been formed of important national benefits from the new administration. Lord Shelburne succeeded the marquis as first lord of the treasury, and, it is said, without the knowledge of his colleagues.

By the treaty of peace between Great Britain and France *, Great Britain ceded to France all her possessions before the war, the island of Tobago, in the West Indies, and the river of Senegal in Africa, with its dependencies and the forts on the river; and gave up a few districts in the East Indies, as dependencies on Pondicherry, and Karical; it agreed also to restore the islands of St. Lucia, St. Pierre, and Miquelon, and

* Preliminary articles settled January 20, 1783.

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the island of Goree; with Pondicherry, Karikal, Mahe, Chandernagore, and the comptoirs of Surat, in the East Indies, which had been conquered from the French during the war. To prevent disputes about boundaries in the Newfoundland fishery, it was agreed, that the French line for fishing should begin from Cape St. John on the eastern side, and going round by the north, should have for its boundary Cape Ray on the western side; and Great Britain renounced every claim by former treaties with respect to the demolition of Dunkirk. France on the other hand was to restore to Great Britain the islands of Grenada, and the Grenadines, St. Christopher's, St. Vincent, Dominica, Nevis, and Montserrat; and guaranteed Fort James, and the river Gambia, agreeing that the gum trade should remain in the same condition as before the war, 1755. The allies of each state in the East Indies were to be invited to accede to the pacification; but if they were averse to peace, no assistance on either side was to be given to them.

By the treaty with Spain, Great Britain gave up to that power East Florida, and also ceded West Florida and Minorca, which Spain had taken during the war. To prevent all causes of complaint and misunderstanding for the future, it was agreed that British subjects should have the right of cutting and carrying away logwood in the district lying between the river Wallis or Bellize, and Rio Hondo, taking the course of the said rivers for unalterable boundaries. Spain agreed to restore the islands of Providence and the Bahamas to Great Britain; but they had been retaken before the peace was signed.

In the treaty with the United States of America, the king of Great Britain acknowledged New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, to be *free, sovereign, and independent states*; and for himself, his heirs and successors, relinquished all claims to the government, propriety, and territorial rights of the same, and every part thereof. To prevent all disputes in future on the subject of boundaries between these states and the remaining provinces of Great Britain, lines were very minutely drawn, which will be noticed in the proper place, and some favourable clauses were obtained for the loyalists. The navigation of the Mississippi to remain open to both parties, as also the Newfoundland fisheries.

In the treaty with the Dutch, great difficulties arose: but at length it was stipulated, that Great Britain should restore Trincomale in the island of Ceylon, but the French had already taken it; and that the Dutch should yield to us the town of Negapatnam, with its dependencies, in the East Indies, with liberty to treat for its restitution on the point of an equivalent.

Thus a period was put to a most calamitous war, in which Great Britain lost the best part of her American colonies, and many thousand valuable lives, and expended or squandered nearly 150 millions of money. The terms of the peace were, to many, a subject of great regret; but, had the war continued, it would have been necessary to have borrowed annually 17 millions and a half, by which a million *per annum* would have been added to the taxes, and 25 millions at least to the capital of the public debt, according to the usual modes of funding. The address of thanks for the peace was carried in the house of lords by a majority of 72 to 59, but lost in the house of commons by a majority of 224 to 208.

The majority of the commons thus enlisting under the banners of the

famous coalition leaders, Mr. Fox and lord North, plainly indicated a ministerial revolution to be near at hand, unless the cabinet would call a new parliament. As they did not, the peace-makers were obliged to withdraw from power. The two gentlemen just mentioned were made secretaries of state, and the duke of Portland first lord of the treasury, on April the 20, 1783. All plans of reformation in public offices, and for preserving the nation, which lord Shelburne proposed, seemed now to be laid aside. Every thing went on just as the coalition administration pleased, till Mr. Fox brought into parliament his famous bill for new regulating the government of the East India company, and their commercial affairs and territories; a plan of which bill, its progress and fate, we have already given in our account of that trading company. This bill being rejected in the house of lords, on December 17, by a majority of 19, occasioned a great ferment in the cabinet, and in both houses of parliament.

A royal message was sent between twelve and one of the morning of the 10th of December, to desire the two secretaries to send the seals of their office immediately; and Mr. Pitt succeeded the duke of Portland as first lord of the treasury, bringing in his friends into the respective departments, which formed the tenth administration since his majesty's accession.

Some leading independent gentlemen (as they styled themselves) interposed to unke the contending parties, which had filled parliament and the country with distraction; but their endeavours to form what they called a firm, efficient, extended, and united administration, proved unsuccessful.

At last, after strong and repeated contests between the two parties, on the 25th of March, 1784, a proclamation was issued for dissolving the parliament, and calling a new one, agreeable to the desires and addresses of a great part of the kingdom. Just at that critical period, the great seal was stolen from the house of the lord chancellor; which occasioned many suspicions, as if done by more than ordinary felons; but nothing farther appeared, and a new seal was presently made. On the 18th of May the new parliament assembled, and the commons chose Mr. Cornwall, the speaker of the law house, for their present speaker. The next day, his majesty addressed them from the throne. A very feeble opposition was made to the address of thanks in the house of lords, and it soon appeared that the appeal to the people had turned out greatly in Mr. Pitt's favour; for on May 24th, on a division of the house for an address to the king's speech, the numbers for it without any alteration or amendment, were 282 against 114.

Mr. Pitt brought in his famous East India bill the 5th of July, the leading particulars of which we have given in our account of that company, with a few observations upon it.

The business of parliamentary reform having been taken up by Mr. Pitt, he accordingly introduced a specific plan for that purpose on the 18th of April, 1785. The plan was to give one hundred members to the popular interest of the kingdom, and to extend the right of election to above one hundred thousand persons, who, by the existing provisions of law, were excluded from it. This accession to the popular interest was to be principally obtained by the suppression of decayed boroughs, and the transfer of their representatives to the counties; so that the number of the house of commons would remain the same.—After a debate of considerable length, it was rejected by a majority of 74; the noes being 248, and the ayes 174.

Among the various measures agitated by parliament in 1786, the plan for establishing a sinking fund, and employing a million annually for reducing the national debt, engaged their most immediate attention. This million is produced by the yearly income of the state exceeding the permanent level of its expenditure, by the sum of 900,000*l.* which may be increased to a million by means in no wise burthensome to the people. This measure, which had the concurrence of every man who desired the emancipation of the state from the accumulated load of debt and taxes, was carried into a law, which created commissioners for carrying the purposes of this valuable act into execution.

We come now to a very important transaction of the present times, the impeachment of Mr. Warren Hastings, late governor-general of Bengal. On the 17th of February, 1786, Mr. Burke, who took the lead in this tedious and expensive business, explained the mode of proceeding he was desirous to adopt; and, in the course of the session, moved for a multitude of papers to ground and substantiate his charges upon. These were produced, and Mr. Hastings heard at the bar of the house of commons in his defence. The debates which arose on the subject terminated in resolutions, that certain of the charges contained matter of impeachment against the late governor-general of Bengal. Mr. Hastings was therefore impeached by the commons at the bar of the house of peers. His trial occupied a considerable portion of eight sessions of parliament; and, on the 25th of April, 1795, the lord chancellor pronounced the decision of the peers in the following words:—"Mr. Hastings, the house of lords, after a very minute investigation, have acquitted you of all the charges of high crimes and misdemeanors preferred against you by the commons, and every article thereof; and you and your bail are discharged upon paying your fees."

Thus ended a trial, which, for length of time, exceeded any in the history of the world, having lasted seven years and three months.

The consolidation of the customs and excise was the most important circumstance deserving of attention in the year 1787. This was a measure of incredible labour and detail, as well as of infinite advantage to commerce; by facilitating and simplifying the intricacies attendant on mercantile transactions, and the payment of duties; a regulation which was duly and permanently effected.

The trade carried on by this country, and other European nations, upon the coast of Africa, for the purpose of purchasing negro slaves, to be employed in the cultivation of the West India islands and certain parts of the continent of America, does not appear, till of late years, to have been considered with that general attention which such a practice might have been expected to excite; a practice so abhorrent in its nature to the mild principles of modern policy and manners. The first attempt, we believe, that was made to put a stop to this traffic, was by the Quakers of the southern provinces of America. In Great Britain the same society appears also to have taken the lead, and, after the example of their American brethren, presented a similar petition to parliament of this kingdom.

The cause soon after became extremely popular. A great number of pamphlets were published upon this subject: several eminent divines commended it from the pulpit, and in printed discourses; and petitions were presented to the legislature from the two universities, and several of the most considerable towns and corporations in the kingdom.

His majesty's ministers thought it proper to institute an inquiry, be-

fore a committee of the privy council, into the facts and allegations contained in the representations of both parties. The first public notice that was taken of the subject, was an information communicated by Mr. Wilberforce, soon after the meeting of parliament, of his intention to bring forward a measure respecting the slave-trade. That gentleman being much indisposed, Mr. Pitt came forward on the 9th of May, 1788, in the name of his friend, and moved the following resolution: "That this house will, early in the next session of parliament, proceed to take into consideration the circumstances of the slave-trade, complained of in the petitions presented to the house, and what may be fit to be done thereupon;" which was unanimously carried. After this, on the 21st of May, sir William Dolben moved the house for leave to bring in a bill to regulate the transportations of the natives of Africa to the British colonies in the West Indies*.

By the bill now proposed, the number of slaves to be transported in any ship was to be regulated according to its bulk or tonnage, allowing nearly one ton to each man. This was only intended as a temporary relief till some more permanent expedient could be devised by the legislature. Having passed through the commons, it was carried up to the lords, where it also passed, after having received several amendments; some of which being thought to interfere with the privileges of the lower house, a new bill was brought in, which passed both houses, and received the royal assent.

The year 1788 being the hundredth anniversary of the glorious revolution in 1688, the fourth of November being the birth-day of king William, the instrument, under providence, who completed that event, and the fifth of this month being the anniversary of his landing, were observed by many societies in London, and other parts of the kingdom, not only with festivity, but with devotion and thanksgiving.

In the space of only four years, which had elapsed since the complete triumph of the sovereign and the nation over the "Coalition," Great Britain, under the conduct of a minister, who had not yet attained his thirtieth year, had risen from a state of unexampled depression, to her ancient superiority among the European kingdoms.

In this state of public felicity, the nation was suddenly alarmed in the autumn of 1788, by the reports of his majesty being attacked with an unexpected and dangerous illness. The precise nature of it was for several days unascertained and unexplained, even to those whose residence near the court should have enabled them to obtain early and authentic information. Mean while, Fame augmented the evil; and the death of the sovereign was believed to have either already taken place or to be imminent and inevitable.

* That there was a necessity for adopting this proposition, will most clearly appear from the facts which were proved in the course of the debate. It appeared that the vessel, which was used for the purpose, was six feet six inches in length, and sixteen inches in breadth, was the space allowed for each slave. The lower deck of the vessels was entirely covered with boards, and the space between the floor of that deck and the roof above, which was divided by a platform also covered with boards. Five persons in every hundred perished, at the lowest computation, in the voyage of six weeks' continuance; which, according to the most accurate estimate of human life, was seventeen times the usual rate of mortality. It was indeed more, because, in the estimate of mortality, persons of every age were included, whereas in an African voyage the aged were entirely excluded, and few infants were admitted. Such was the ruinous nature of the trade in the most favourable circumstances; in the voyage to the more distant parts of Africa, the mortality was stated to be as great; and consequently, thirty-four persons perished at the lowest estimation, one that would have died in the ordinary course of nature.

Time, however, gradually divulged the truth, and changed the apprehensions of the nation for the situation of the king. His disorder was understood to have fallen upon the brain, and to have produced, as might be expected, a temporary privation of reason. A species of interregnum in fact took place; though unaccompanied by any of those circumstances which usually characterize and accompany that unfortunate state. The kingdom, anxious, and with eyes directed towards their sovereign, betrayed no symptoms of confusion, anarchy, or civil commotion. The first minister continued to exercise, by a general submission and consent, the powers delegated to him before the king's indisposition; and the political machine, well constructed, and properly organized, sustained no derangement or injury whatsoever from this shock, except those inseparably connected with delay in the transactions or negotiations pending with foreign courts.

The two houses of parliament, in consequence of the preceding prorogation, met in a few days subsequent to these extraordinary events. The general agitation and curiosity, even if they had not been aided by other emotions of hope and fear, of ambition, and of public duty, would alone have produced a numerous attendance. Mr. Pitt opened the subject of their meeting in a very concise and pathetic manner; lamented the occasion, expressed his hope that the cause would speedily be removed, and, in pursuance of that idea, advised an immediate adjournment of a fortnight. As soon as the adjournment was at an end, Mr. Fox laid claim to the vacant sceptre in the name and on the behalf of the heir apparent, as belonging and devolving to him of right.

Mr. Pitt demanded the discussion and decision of so great and leading a principle, which led to conclusions unlimited and undefined, as well as subversive of the tenure on which a king of England had originally received his crown; and parliament, roused to a sense of the necessity of declaring itself solely competent to fill the vacant throne, proceeded to that great act without circumlocution or delay; and having pronounced upon this important preliminary, then decided that the prince of Wales should be invited and requested to accept the regency under certain limitations.

The month of December elapsed in these contests, and the year 1789 commenced under the most gloomy presages. Mutual asperity and reproach embittered every debate. No appearances of convalescence or recovery, so ardently anticipated by the nation, had yet manifested themselves in the malady of the king.

A second examination of the physicians who had attended his majesty during the course of his disorder, which took place before a committee of the house of commons, and which was certainly not conducted on the part of opposition with either delicacy or judgment, tended to throw very little light on the great object of public inquiry; the probable duration of this afflicting malady.

A very short period, probably not exceeding three days, must have completed the bill, which was to declare the incapacity of the sovereign to conduct the national affairs, and to transfer the sceptre, though with diminished influence, to his son. The members of administration were at the point of resigning their charges, and the new ministry were prepared to enter on office; while the English people, fondly touched by every sense of loyalty and affection to their monarch, as well as from gratitude and esteem to the first minister, in dejection and despondence looked on, and saw the government transferred to others, who,

whatever abilities they might collectively possess, certainly neither merited nor enjoyed the general approbation and confidence.

But the term of interregnum and misfortune was now arrived; and the impending calamity, which had menaced England with all the evils of a regency, far more to be deprecated and dreaded than those from which the country had escaped in 1784, was suddenly and unexpectedly dissipated. The disorder, under which the king had suffered during three months, and whose violence had hitherto appeared to baffle all medical skill and exertion, gradually, but rapidly, subsided. Sanity of mind and reason resumed their seat, and left no trace of their temporary subversion. Time confirmed the cure, and restored to his subjects a prince, rendered supremely and peculiarly dear to them by the recent prospect and apprehension of his loss. The vision of a regency faded and disappeared, as the sovereign came forward to public view, and was totally extinguished by his resumption of all the regal functions. The demonstrations of national joy far exceeded any recorded in the English annals, and were probably more real and unfeigned than ever were offered on similar occasions. It was not only that a king, beloved and respected, was recovered from the most afflictive of all situations incident to humanity, and enabled to re-ascend the throne; but sentiments of disapprobation and of general condemnation, affixed to the measures and conduct of the opposite party, heightened the emotions of pleasure, by a comparison with that state from which the kingdom had been so fortunately delivered. No efforts of despotism, or mandates of arbitrary power, could have produced the illuminations which not only the capital, but almost every town and village throughout the kingdom, exhibited in testimony of its loyalty; and these proofs of attachment were renewed, and even augmented, on the occasion of his majesty's first appearance in public, and his solemn procession to St. Paul's (on the 23d of April, 1789), to return thanks to heaven for his recovery.

Whilst the ancient government of France was entirely overthrown, and a revolution the most unexpected was effected, it is difficult to imagine a picture of more complete serenity than England presented. At peace with all the world, in the bosom of repose, she saw her commerce and manufactures extend, her credit augment, and her name excite respect among the most distant nations; while many of the great surrounding European kingdoms were either involved in foreign war, or desolated by domestic troubles. In this happy situation, a storm unexpectedly and suddenly arose from a quarter, where it would seem that no foresight or precautions could have anticipated the danger. Among the new and unexplored paths of commerce, which the spirit of a discerning and adventurous people had attempted to open since the peace of 1783, were particularly two, which appeared to promise the most beneficial returns. The first was a whale fishery, similar to that which had been carried on for ages near the coast of Greenland; but transferred to the southern hemisphere, near the extremity of Patagonia, and in the stormy seas which surround Cape Horn, as well as in the Pacific Ocean. In the course of a few years, this branch of trade had augmented rapidly, and was found on trial to afford very important advantages; nor had it received any impediments from the vague pretensions of the Spanish crown to the sovereignty of the shores washed that ocean which was the scene of their exertions.

The second of these enterprises, original in its own nature, able in conception, bold in its execution, and having no precedent for

guidance, was directed to countries and to objects almost as much unknown to geographical as to commercial knowledge or experience.

The north-west coast of America, the part of the earth to which this embarkation was destined, extending northward from California and New Albion to the Frozen Sea, had been partly explored, and faintly traced, by captain Cook; but much remained for future enterprise and industry to accomplish, before this discovery could be converted to any purpose of public utility. He had, however, ascertained the existence of the continent; and he had received from the barbarous natives, with whom he established a species of barter, some valuable specimens of furs, in exchange for European commodities of a far inferior nature.

The hope of procuring a considerable quantity of those rare and costly skins, for the sale of which a very advantageous market presented itself at Canton in China, was the leading inducement to the adventurers who engaged in the expedition.

Animated by these views, and having received the most affirmative marks of the protection of government previous to their departure, five ships were fitted out from London in 1785, and the two succeeding years. Four of these vessels, after doubling Cape Horn, arrived safely on the north-west coast of America. The sanguine expectations which had been entertained of effecting a lucrative exchange of commodities with the natives, were fully and speedily realised. Cargoes of the finest furs were procured, and sold to the Chinese, even under great commercial discouragements and pecuniary impositions, at so high a price as amply to re-imburse and enrich the adventurers. Other attempts of a similar nature were made from Bengal; and two vessels were successively dispatched from the Ganges to the same coast in the year 1786. A factory was established at Nootka Sound, a port situated in the fiftieth degree of northern latitude, on the shore of America. Possession of it was solemnly taken in the name of the sovereign and crown of England: amicable treaties were concluded with the chiefs of the neighbouring districts; and a tract of land was purchased from one of them, on which the new proprietors proceeded to form a settlement, and to construct storehouses. Every thing bore the appearance of a rising colony, and each year opened new sources of commerce and advantage.

Although individuals, occupied in exertions of this private nature, could not be expected to extend their views or efforts to objects of public utility, yet some further information was collaterally and incidentally acquired respecting the continent of America, in the course of their voyages. It is even pretended that a sloop, named the "Washington," navigated for some hundred miles along a vast number of islands scattered in a sea which intersects that continent in a north-east direction; and though the accounts hitherto received or transmitted, of this extraordinary and interesting fact, are not either so minute or so accurate, as by any means to entitle them to be implicitly received, yet they appear to be not totally destitute of foundation or probability.

That, upon every principle of the law of nations, upon the established usage in all similar cases, and as being the first settlers, the British adventurers had an undoubted title to the place in question, is beyond dispute. Notwithstanding this, in the month of May 1789, a Spanish ship of war from St. Blas in Mexico, called the *Princesa*, commanded by M. Martinez, and mounting 20 guns, anchored there. The various provocations of trade having led the greater part of the persons employed at this settlement to different parts of the coast, the only English trading

ship remaining in the Sound was the *Iphigenia*. The *Princessa* was soon joined by a Spanish snow of 16 guns; and, for some time, mutual civilities passed between the Spaniards and English. These, however, were at length interrupted by an order being sent to capt. Douglas (the commander of the *Iphigenia*) to come on board of the *Princessa*; when he was informed by M. Martinez, that he had the king of Spain's orders to seize all vessels which he might find upon that coast, and that he (capt. Douglas) was his prisoner. In consequence of this, M. Martinez took possession of the *Iphigenia* in the name of his catholic majesty, and conveyed the prisoners on board the Spanish ship, where they were ironed. M. Martinez also took possession of the settlement, hoisted the Spanish flag, and proceeded to erect various buildings, on which he employed, together with his own men, some of the crew of the *Iphigenia*. He afterwards permitted captain Douglas to resume the command of his ship; and on representing that he had been stripped of his merchandise and other stores, M. Martinez gave him a small supply of stores and provision (for which he took bills on the owners), by means of which, about a fortnight after he was at first detained, he was enabled to proceed to China.

Shortly afterwards, the English vessels, the *North West America*, the *Argonaut*, and the *Princess Royal*, arriving separately at Nootka from their trading voyages, were captured by M. Martinez, their crews were made prisoners, and their cargoes seized. After some detention, the crew of the *North West America* were sent to China, the two other vessels with their crews were sent to St. Blas in Mexico, and some Chinese, who had been brought to the settlement by our people, were detained and employed as labourers.

Of the *North West America*, sent to China, no authentic account has been received; but on the arrival of the two vessels at St. Blas, a representation of their case having been made to the Spanish governor, the ships were restored (on the officers giving security to indemnify the governor, should it be proved they were lawful prizes), the crews were furnished with provisions, stores, and money, to enable them to resume their voyage.

Of these transactions only a partial, vague, and uncircumstantial account was known by his majesty's ministers till the 30th of April 1790, when captain Mears presented his memorial to Mr. Grenville. This paper indeed conveyed an intelligence of a very different nature from that which had been previously received. Within one week after the affair was communicated, the most active and formidable preparations were made, a positive demand of preliminary satisfaction and restitution was sent to Madrid, and the people of England were called upon to adopt the national vindication. The first communication of this business to the public was by his majesty's message to parliament on the 5th of May,

An attention to the honour of their country made it therefore necessary for our ministers to call upon the court of Spain itself to give direct satisfaction for an injury committed by an officer acting under its immediate commission, and grounded on its pretensions of an exclusive right to the whole continent of America. To this it was necessary for his catholic majesty to acknowledge that such an injury had been committed; and this was most expressly declared and signed by count de Florida Blanca, in the name and by the order of his catholic majesty, at Madrid, the 24th July, 1790. The acknowledgment of the injury was an expression which implied a concession that the court of Spain

had no right to use force in preventing British subjects from visiting the coasts in question for the purposes of trade and settlement.

The public were waiting with painful anxiety for the determination of the objects of the depending negotiation; deprecating indeed the dreadful alternative of appealing to the sword for the vindication of our rights; yet satisfied of the justice of our cause, and confidently looking forward to an honourable and happy termination of a contest originating in the violent proceedings and unfounded claims of the court of Spain, when the agreeable news arrived that a convention was agreed upon between his Britannic majesty and the king of Spain, and signed at the Escorial the 28th of October, 1790, by their plenipotentiaries, Alleyne Fitz-Herbert, esq. on the part of his Britannic majesty, and by count de Florida Blanca on that of his catholic majesty; which was finally ratified by the court of Spain, and exchanged with Mr. Fitz-Herbert against his majesty's ratification on the 22d of November.

To defray the expense attending the naval and military armaments, Mr. Pitt proposed to raise not merely the interest of the debt recently incurred, but to extinguish the principal itself, in the space of four years; though amounting to about three millions sterling. The effect of so judicious and provident a measure, which must evince the resources of the country which adopted it, will be felt through every kingdom of Europe.

But though Great Britain was thus happily rescued from war in this quarter of the globe, accident or ambition involved our Indian possessions in contest and in blood. At so remote a distance, it is difficult to judge accurately of causes and effects; but, as nearly as a diligent inquiry has enabled us to collect the truth, we shall give it in our historical narrative of that country, under which it will more naturally fall.

The cause of toleration received, in the year 1791, an accession which must be peculiarly grateful to the friends of freedom. It is remarkable, that, notwithstanding the radical freedom of our constitution, no nation in Europe has been more jealous of their religious establishment; and scarcely have the Roman catholic states themselves loaded with a more oppressive weight of civil penalties those who dissented in religious opinion. It has for almost half a century been the task of the legislature to root out, gradually and cautiously, from the code of our laws, those disgraceful statutes. They are not yet entirely removed; but in proportion as the peaceful influence of philosophy shall extend over the minds of men, we have little doubt but all parties will see the absurdity of sacrificing the cardinal virtue charity at the shrine of vain speculation; and, as the fears and jealousies of mankind shall subside, in the course of a few years every trace of persecution will fade away.

As the Romish church the grand object of terror in the first ages of reformation, it was scarcely matter of surprize that our statute-book should be loaded with the most rigorous and sanguinary edicts directed against the professors of that obnoxious faith; and though in the year 1780 some of these were removed, yet in the year 1791, in a well-known book, Burn's Ecclesiastical Law, not less than seventy pages were to be found, entirely occupied with the bare enumeration of the penal statutes in force against the Roman catholics. Among these were some of the most sanguinary nature—It was high treason and death to make a convert to the Roman catholic faith—Severe penalties were enacted on papists for hearing mass, by some statutes; and by others they were compelled to attend the established worship, however contrary to their con-

sciences. That such laws should have been framed in times of difficulty and danger, in times when the church of Rome flourished in all the vigour of temporal power, and urged her authority by all the rigours of persecution, and all the artifices of bigotry, is not surprising; it is only surprising that they should have been suffered to remain in force for centuries of peace and tranquillity, when the power of the pope is annihilated even in countries professing his religion, and when all the obnoxious principles of that religion are disavowed by its professors. A reform in the penal statutes became the more necessary, since, in the course of the year 1790, a large body of catholic dissenters had formally protested against the temporal power of the pope, against his assumed authority of releasing men from their civil obligations, or dispensing with the sacredness of oaths.

It was upon these principles, and supported by these arguments, that Mr. Mitford moved, on the 21st of February, 1791, for a committee of the whole house to enable him "to bring in a bill to relieve, upon conditions and under restrictions, persons called protesting catholic dissenters, from certain penalties and disabilities, to which papists, or persons professing the popish religion, are by law subject." This bill, Mr. Mitford added, would be similar to that which had passed in Ireland some years since; and as no ill consequences had resulted in a country where the Roman catholics were so much more numerous than in this, he should hope the house would see no impropriety in the proposition. The house entered upon the subject with a liberality which does them infinite honour; and the bill proceeded through its several stages without opposition.

The rights of juries had long been in an indefinite and indeterminate state, particularly in the case of libels; and disputes, disgraceful in themselves, and injurious to the administration of justice, had frequently arisen between the court and the jury, between the judges and the counsel; even among the professors of the law, a difference of opinion had long existed. While the herd of mere technical practitioners earnestly supported the indefeasible authority of the bench, that oracle of constitutional jurisprudence, lord Camden, Mr. Erskine, and many others of the greatest eminence, held the rights of an English jury in too sacred a light to suffer the great constitutional principle on which that institution was founded, to be undermined by the fallacious doctrine of precedents.

On the 25th of May, in this year, Mr. Fox presented his bill for removing doubts with respect to the rights of juries in criminal cases. The bill sets forth that juries, in cases of libels, should have a power of judging the whole matter, and of finding a general verdict of guilty or not guilty. With a slight opposition from the legal profession, it completed its progress through the house of commons. In the house of lords, where the influence of the law is more predominant, it experienced a very different reception, and was strongly opposed. However, in the following year, this great constitutional point was at last decided by the lords and commons, that **JURIES ARE JUDGES OF BOTH THE LAW AND THE FACT.**

Early in the sessions of 1791, Mr. Wilberforce made a motion, in a committee of the house of commons appointed for receiving and examining evidence on the slave-trade, "that the chairman be instructed to move for leave to bring in a bill to prevent the further importation of African negroes into the British colonies." Although this question was supported with great ability and eloquence by Mr. Francis, Mr. W.

Smith, the chancellor of the exchequer, and Mr. Fox; yet it was negatived by a majority of 75. One immediate consequence of this was the establishment of a company for the express purpose of cultivating West India and other tropical productions at Sierra Leone, on the coast of Africa, the bill for chartering which was introduced on the 28th of March, by Mr. Thospton.

In pursuance of a message from his majesty, a bill was brought into parliament for settling the constitution of Canada, a matter of great importance, and long in agitation. The province is to be divided into two governments, called Upper and Lower Canada; and it is hoped that this division will put an end to the debates between the old French inhabitants and the British settlers, as each will have a majority in their own department. A council and a house of assembly are intended for each government: the members of the council being such for life, and reserving power to the British sovereign of annexing to certain honours an hereditary right of sitting in the council; the taxes to be levied and disposed of by the legislature of each division; and the present laws and ordinances to remain, till altered by the new legislature.

On the 28th of March, 1791, a message was delivered from his majesty, importing that the endeavours which he had used, in conjunction with his allies, to effect a pacification between Russia and the Porte, not having proved successful, his majesty judged it requisite, in order to add weight to his representations, to make some further augmentation of his naval force. In consequence of a majority in support of this measure, a very large naval armament was prepared. Our fleet, collected to support the cause of the Turks against Russia, amounted, in April, to thirty-three ships of the line; and after maintaining this large equipment for four months at an enormous expence, it was, at last, dismissed. The proposed Russian war was certainly most unpopular; and the reception which the proposition of it met with in the house of commons, ought perhaps to have induced the immediate declaration of a measure, which, however meritorious its intentions might be, was not crowned by the public favour. No valuable purpose was attained by this armament. Russia has yielded little or nothing more than her first proposal; and we have not so effectually assisted the Turks, as to have any claim to their gratitude. The minister's popularity was considerably injured by these expensive and injudicious preparations, in which Europe was astonished to behold, for the first time, Britain acting in a subservient capacity to the narrow and interested politics of Prussia.

Soon after the rising of the parliament, the nation was disgraced by a series of outrages and violences, as unprovoked and wanton, as have ever darkened the annals of a civilized people, and which, for the space of four days, spread terror and alarm through the large opulent town of Birmingham, and the adjacent country.

Concerning the French revolution, much difference of sentiment prevailed among the higher orders of society in this country; and much heat and ill temper the discussion of that subject appeared unnecessarily to provoke. — The same cause of discord was found to pervade the inferior classes, and considerable pains were taken to excite the passions and prejudices of the people against the assertors of Gallic liberty. On the other hand, a considerable body of the Whig party in Great Britain rejoiced in the emancipation of a neighbouring nation, and flattered themselves that they saw, in the establishment of the French constitution, not only the annihilation of despotism in that country, but

the commencement of a new system of politics in Europe; the basis of which was peace, happiness, and mutual concord.

In most of the larger towns in Great Britain, associations were formed for the celebration of that event; by anniversary dinners on the 14th of July; but the opposite party were not indifferent spectators of these proceedings. The populace were inflamed by the most injurious insinuations conveyed in new papers and pamphlets; the friends of the French revolution were (certainly falsely as to the majority) stigmatised as determined republicans; and the act of joining in a convivial meeting on the odious 14th of July was represented as an attempt to overturn the British constitution in church and state.

Notwithstanding the pains which had been taken to depreciate these associations, the meeting in London consisted of not less than 1,500 respectable gentlemen, many of them literary characters of high reputation. — As, however, rumours had been spread to the disadvantage of the meeting, and the populace appeared to collect in a tumultuous manner round the Crown and Anchor tavern, where the meeting was held, the company dispersed at an early hour.

At Birmingham the causes of discord were more numerous than even in London. A violent animosity had subsisted for years between the high church party and the dissenters of that place; and the religious controversies which took place between Dr. Priestley and some of the clergy of Birmingham, greatly contributed to increase this animosity.

In such circumstances, it is not surprising that the ignorant part of the inhabitants should confound the cause of the French revolution with that of the dissenters, especially since the majority of that persuasion have, since the Revolution in 1688, been firmly attached to the whig system, and since Dr. Priestley, whom the populace considered as at the head of the dissenters there, had distinguished himself by opposing the celebrated pamphlet of Mr. Burke. From the publication indeed of the doctor's pamphlet on that subject, it is said that the profane habit of drinking "damnation and confusion to the presbyterians," at the convivial entertainments in the town, was visibly increased.

A festive meeting in commemoration of the French revolution was projected at Birmingham on Thursday the 14th of July; and on the preceding Monday six copies of a most inflammatory and seditious hand-bill, proposing the French revolution as a model to the English, and exciting them to rebellion, were left by some person unknown in a public house. As the contents of this hand-bill were pretty generally circulated, they caused some ferment in the town; the magistrates thought it proper to offer a reward of 100 guineas for discovering the author, printer, or publisher of the obnoxious paper; and the friends of the meeting intended for the 14th thought it necessary at the same time to publish an advertisement, explicitly denying the sentiments and doctrines of the seditious hand-bill, and disavowing all connection with its author or publishers.

The views and intentions of the meeting having, however, been much misrepresented, the majority of the gentlemen who projected it, thought it advisable to relinquish the scheme; accordingly notice was given to that effect; but the intention was revived, and the company met at the appointed time to the amount of between eighty and ninety. The ingenious Mr. Keir, well known for his great attainments in chemistry and other branches of philosophy, and a member of the establishment in the church, was placed in the chair.

The gentlemen had scarcely met, before the house was surrounded by a tumultuous crowd, who testified their disapprobation by hisses and

groans, and by the shout of "church and king," which became the watch-word on this occasion. At five o'clock the company dispersed; and soon afterwards the windows in the front of the hotel were demolished, notwithstanding the appearance and interference of the magistrates.

Dr. Priestley did not attend the festival, but dined at home, at Fairhill, with a friend (the celebrated Mr. A. Walker, the philosopher) from London. After supper they were alarmed with the intelligence that the mob were assembled at the new dissenting meeting-house (Dr. Priestley's), and were threatening both the doctor and his house. The rioters soon set the meeting-house on fire, and nothing remained that could be consumed. The old meeting-house shared almost a similar fate. After this they proceeded to Dr. Priestley's house, the doctor and his family having just had time to escape to a small distance, where they could distinctly hear every shout of the mob, and the blows of the instruments which were used to break down the doors. The whole of the doctor's library, his valuable philosophical apparatus, his manuscripts and papers, were destroyed by the mob. The next day this insatuated multitude demolished the elegant mansion of Mr. Ryland, where, finding a profusion of liquor, a dreadful scene of intoxication ensued; and several of the wretched rioters perished in the cellars by suffocation, or by the falling in of the roof. The country residence of Mr. Taylor, the houses of Mr. Hutton (the ingenious historian of Birmingham), of Mr. Humphrey, of Mr. Russel, and several others, were destroyed by the resistless fury of the mob, who continued their depredations until Sunday night, when three troops of the fifteenth regiment of eight dragoons arrived. The town was then illuminated, and all was acclamation and joy. — Of the unfortunate and insatuated wretches who were taken in the act of rioting, five were tried at Worcester, and one was found guilty and executed. At Warwick twelve were tried; but only four received sentence of death, of whom one was reprieved. — For the honour of our country, we indulge the earnest hope that the disgraceful scenes which were acted at Birmingham in 1791, will never be revived; but that, while the continent of Europe is unhappily drenched in human blood, this island will remain as conspicuous for its harmony, order, and tranquillity, as for its constitutional freedom and national prosperity.

The marriage of the duke of York with the princess-royal of Prussia took place on the 29th of September, this year, at Berlin; and on the 15th of October they arrived in England, and were received with public joy and applause. The Prussian monarch gave to the princess a portion of 100,000 crowns. A formal renunciation is made, in favour of the male succession, of all right of inheritance arising from the house of Prussia and Brandenburg, as usually done on the marriages of the Prussian princesses. The sum of 4000l. sterling is annually assigned for pin-money and other expenses; and 8000l. annually of jointure, in case of the death of her husband. In consequence of this union, and to enable his royal highness to live in a style suitable to his exalted station, and to the high rank of the illustrious personage to whom he was married, parliament have voted the sum of 18,000l. per annum to his royal highness. His majesty has also settled an additional 7000l. per annum upon him out of his Irish revenue; which, with 12,000l. per annum that he before enjoyed, make the sum of 37,000l. per annum. The revenues arising from the bishoprick of Osnaburgh are said to amount to about 17,000l. per annum.

On the 2d of April, 1792, the house of commons, in a committee of the whole house on the African slave trade, came to a resolution, 239 against 85, for the gradual abolition. This subject was supported by the united talents of Mr. Wilberforce, Mr. Fox, and Mr. Pitt, for the immediate abolition. Mr. Dundas took a middle course, and argued for the gradual relinquishment of a traffic, which every good man must abhor, as degrading and debasing our fellow-creatures to a level with beasts. This bill, however, met with a different reception in the house of lords.

The royal proclamation on the 21st of May, 1792, against seditious writings, which was followed by orders for the embodying the militia of the kingdom, engaged a considerable share of the public attention. It had the intended effect, and excited numerous addresses, testifying the loyalty of the people.

In the beginning of the year 1793, numerous associations were formed throughout the kingdom, against republican principles and theories, or, as the phrase usually adopted by such associations was, against republicans and levellers. To say that there were no persons who had embraced republican principles, and would have been willing to concur in changing the form of the government of this country, would be absurd; but there appears no reason to suppose that the cause for alarm was so great, as many imagined, and others at least affected to believe. The truth lies between the two extremes. The controversies occasioned by the pamphlets of Messrs. Burke and Calonne, and particularly the writings of Mr. Paine, writings well adapted to the comprehension of the lower class of people, and pregnant with pointed remarks on some existing abuses, though, perhaps, with little of sound policy or principle to recommend them, had undoubtedly contributed to render the example of the French revolution in some degree contagious. But the disaffected party was neither numerous nor respectable. The church, the aristocracy, and all the most opulent of the community, were averse to any change or innovation whatever. It was among the lower part of the middle class of society, that democratical opinions were chiefly entertained, and among them more probably as a matter of conversation, than as a project to be reduced to practice. The violent proceedings of the French, however, had terrified the well-disposed part of the people, and almost disgusted them with the very name of reform. From the period of the fatal roth of August, the converts from the French system were numerous: the proscription and persecution of the emigrants rapidly increased the number; and the premeditated ill treatment and unjust death of the king almost entirely annihilated the spirit of republicanism in this country. The public wanted only to be excited to give the most forcible proofs of its attachment to a constitution which had so wisely provided against the intolerable persecutions of tyranny, and the no less deplorable mischiefs of faction.

The first disposition manifested by Great Britain to break with France, regarded the navigation of the Scheldt, which the French had determined to open for the benefit of Antwerp and the Netherlands. This impediment however might perhaps have been removed, from the little disposition which was evinced by Holland to assert its right to the exclusive navigation, and from the readiness of the French to refer the whole affair to a negotiation.

The next exception which was taken by the English ministry was to the decree of fraternity, which was offered by the French convention

to the revolting subjects of any monarchical (or, as they said, tyrannical) government, and which was construed into a direct affront to this country, and a plot against her peace.

The alien bill, which the French complained was an infraction of the commercial treaty, was the next cause of dispute; and this offence was augmented by the prohibition to export corn to France, while it was freely allowed to the powers at war with that country.

At length, towards the end of January, M. Chauvelin was officially informed by the English court, that his character and functions, so long suspended, had entirely terminated by the fatal death of the king of France; that he had no more any public character here, where his further residence was forbidden. Eight days were allowed for his departure; and this notification was published in the gazette. M. Maret had been sent by the executive council of France with enlarged powers, and, it was said, with very advantageous proposals to Great Britain; but arriving in England exactly at the period of M. Chauvelin's dismissal, he thought it prudent immediately to return home.

Mr. secretary Dundas, on the 28th of January, presented to the house of commons a message from the king, in which his majesty expressed the necessity of making a further augmentation of his forces by sea and land, for maintaining the security and rights of his own dominions, for supporting his allies, and for opposing views of aggrandisement and ambition on the part of France. The question in relation to this subject was carried by a great majority in favour of ministers.

On the 25th of March, 1794, lord Grenville and S. Comte Woronzow signed a convention at London, on behalf of his Britannic majesty and the empress of Russia, in which their majesties agree to employ their respective forces in carrying on the "just and necessary war" in which they were engaged against France; and they reciprocally promise *not to lay down their arms*, but by common consent. Notwithstanding this solemn treaty, Catharine took no active part whatever in the war. Another treaty was concluded between his Britannic majesty and the king of Sardinia, signed at London, the 25th of April, by which Great Britain engaged to pay 200,000*l.* per annum, to the king of Sardinia, and three months in advance. A treaty was likewise concluded between his highness the prince of Hesse-Cassel and his Britannic majesty; the former was to furnish 8,000 men for the war, during three years; in return for which, England was to pay 100,000*l.* levy-money, and 50,000*l.* sterling per annum for six years. In this treaty, Great Britain engages to pay the landgrave a sum of money for each Hessian that is slain; so that the more of his men are killed, he will get the more money.

For the military operations of the war, we must refer our readers to our account of France, to the history of which country they most properly appertain.

The prosecutions, which have taken place in England and Scotland for seditious words, and for libellous and dangerous publications, may certainly be considered as strongly characterising the spirit of the times; we shall therefore give a concise account of some of the principal of these trials.

At Edinburgh, Thomas Muir, esq. was tried before the high court of justiciary, for seditious practices. In the indictment, the prisoner was charged with wickedly and feloniously exciting, by means of seditious speeches and harangues, a spirit of disloyalty and disaffection to

the king and the established government; of producing and reading aloud in a public meetings a seditious and inflammatory writing called "An Address from the Society of United Irishmen in Dublin, to the Delegates for Promoting a Reform in Scotland," tending to produce in the minds of the people an insurrection and opposition to the established government. The jury being named, Mr. Muir objected to most of them: he observed, that as the gentlemen, however respectable, were all subscribers to the Goldsmiths'-hall association, and had offered a reward for discovering those who had circulated what they called seditious writings, they had already prejudged him; and were therefore improper persons to pass upon his assize; but this objection was repelled by the court.

The most material witness against the accused was Anne Fitter, a servant to his father: she said that she carried from him to the printer a Declaration of Rights, marked with some corrections, to be printed; she added, that she had heard Mr. Muir talk to the countrymen coming to the shop of his father very often, concerning Paine's Rights of Man, which she heard him say was a very good book; that he wished his hair-dresser to purchase them, and keep them in his shop to enlighten the people; that Mr. Muir said, when the reform took place, he would be member for Calder; that members would then be allowed thirty or forty shillings a day, and that none but honest men would be admitted, to keep the constitution clean; and that she had caused an organist in the streets of Glasgow to play *ca-ira* at Mr. Muir's desire.

After a trial of sixteen hours' duration, the jury returned a verdict, finding the prisoner *guilty*. The court then proceeded to pronounce sentence, and ordered him to be transported beyond the seas to such place as his majesty, with the advice of his privy-council, should judge proper, for fourteen years. He was soon after sent to Botany Bay, whence he found means to escape in an American vessel, and after a variety of extraordinary adventures and escapes, if the accounts that have been received are authentic, arrived in France, where he was received with public congratulations, as the martyr of liberty, and where he still continues.

On the 17th of September, of the same year, the reverend Mr. Palmer, a unitarian clergyman, residing at Dundee, was tried by the circuit court of judicary, before lords Esgrove and Abercrombie. The indictment charged him with being present at a meeting held at Dundee, denominating itself "A Society of the Friends of the People," that he did there put into the hands of George Mealmaker a writing of a seditious import, in the form of an address to their friends and fellow-citizens, containing, among other seditious expressions, the following words: "You are plunged into a war by a wicked minister and a compliant parliament, who seem careless and unconcerned for your welfare; the end and design of which is almost too horrid to relate; the destruction of a whole people merely because they will be free."—When the court proceeded to the examination of witnesses, George Mealmaker, weaver in Dundee, acknowledged himself to be the author of the paper in question; it appeared, however, that Mr. Palmer had corrected it, ordered it to be printed, and circulated it. The verdict was returned the same day, finding the prisoner guilty, in consequence of which he was sentenced to transportation for fourteen years. This gentleman was sent to the hulks with Mr. Muir, and sailed with him to Botany Bay.

On the 21st of January 1794, the two houses met. The speech from the throne enumerated with some degree of minuteness the advantages

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obtained by the allies, and exhorted to a spirited prosecution of the war, and to a reliance on the resources of the country, and the strength of our allies, for ultimate success. The address to his majesty, in which the parliament agreed to support him in the continuance of the war, was carried in favour of ministry by a very great majority.

In March following, the secession of the king of Prussia from the great cause of the allies, agitated the political world for several weeks, when it was announced that the whole proceeded from his inability to supply his troops from the resources of his own country, and therefore that he must be subsidised to enable him to employ his forces for the great purpose of restoring regular government to France. The parliament, influenced by the arguments which were advanced by the minister, voted the sum of 2,500,000*l.* to be granted to his majesty, to enable him to fulfil the stipulations of the treaty lately concluded with Prussia for a more vigorous prosecution of the war, and for such exigencies as might arise in the year 1794. Notwithstanding this fresh treaty, the Prussian monarch soon after entirely relinquished the war, having found full occupation for himself and his troops in endeavouring to suppress the insurrections in Poland, which we shall particularly notice in our narrative of the events of that unfortunate country.

On the 12th of May 1794, a message from his majesty was brought down to the house by Mr. secretary Dundas, in which he informed them that the seditious practices which have been for some time carried on by certain societies in London, in correspondence with societies in different parts of the country, had lately been pursued with increased activity and boldness, and had been avowedly directed to the object of assembling a pretended general convention of the people, in contempt and defiance of the authority of parliament; that his majesty had given orders for seizing the books and papers of these societies, which were to be laid before the house; and that it was recommended to the house to consider them, and to pursue such measures as were necessary in order to prevent their pernicious tendency.

The same day Mr. Thomas Hardy, a shoemaker in Piccadilly, who had acted as secretary to the London corresponding society, and Mr. Daniel Adams, the secretary to the society for constitutional information, were apprehended, by a warrant from Mr. Dundas, for treasonable practices, and their books and papers seized. Mr. Horne Tooke, Mr. Jeremiah Joyce, preacher to lord Mahon, and Mr. Thelwall, who had for some time entertained the town as a political lecturer, were afterwards, in the course of the week, arrested and committed to the Tower, on a charge of high treason.

On the day following the seizure of the papers of these societies, they were brought down sealed to the house of commons by Mr. Dundas, and referred to a committee of secrecy, consisting of twenty-one members.

In consequence of the first report of the committee of secrecy, with respect to the plans which had been formed by these societies for holding a general convention of the people, and intimating their suspicions that large stands of arms had been collected by these societies in order to distribute them among the lower orders of the people, the chancellor of the exchequer moved "for leave for a bill to empower his majesty to secure and detain such persons as his majesty suspected were conspiring against his person and government." By this bill the temporary suspension of the *Habeas Corpus* act is effected. It was carried, on the minister's motion, by a majority of 162.

On the first of June 1794, the British fleet under the command of ad-

miral lord Howe obtained a signal victory over that of the French, in which two ships were sunk, one burnt, and six brought into Portsmouth harbour.

On the 10th of September a special commission of oyer and terminer was issued for the prisoners confined on a charge of high treason in the Tower of London; and on the second of October it was opened at the sessions-house, Clerkenwell, by the lord chief justice Eyre, in an elaborate charge to the grand jury; and in the course of their proceedings the jury found a bill of indictment against Thomas Hardy, John Horne Tooke, and ten others; and on the 28th of October, Thomas Hardy, the late secretary to the London corresponding society, was put on his trial at the Old Bailey. Mr. Wood opened the pleadings, and stated nine overt acts of high-treason with which the prisoner was charged. When he had finished, Mr. John Scott, the attorney-general, in a speech of nine hours, went into a very minute detail of the subject of these prosecutions for high treason. The counsel for the prosecution then proceeded to produce their evidence, which consisted of papers that had been found in the custody of different persons, and seized under the warrant of the privy council.

Previously to the court's breaking up, about twelve o'clock, a conversation ensued respecting the gentlemen of the jury, who wished to be discharged on their honour; to which Mr. Erskine, on behalf of the prisoner, consented; but the court were of opinion that the law would not permit the jury to separate after having been once impanelled. The jury were therefore consigned to the care of the sheriffs, by whom preparations for their accommodation in the sessions house had been previously made; and, the next day, the jury having complained that their accommodations were uncomfortable, and incapable of affording them the necessary rest, they were provided that evening, and all the subsequent evenings of the trial, with beds at the Hummums in Covent Garden.

The 29th, 30th, and 31st of October, were employed in the production of evidence for the crown, both documentary and oral, which latter took up great part of the morning of November 1. This being finished, Mr. Erskine, in behalf of the prisoner, addressed the jury for the space of six hours. The remainder of the day was occupied in the examination of witnesses for the prisoner; many of whom gave him an excellent character.

The court adjourned at half past twelve on Sunday morning November 2, till the Monday following, when the counsel for the prisoner proceeded with their evidence; after which Mr. Gibbs likewise addressed the court in his favour. He was followed by the solicitor-general in reply. The next day the solicitor-general concluded his reply, and the lord president commented the summing up of the evidence; which he resumed the following day, and finished about noon. The jury then retired, and, after having been absent two hours and a half, returned, and delivered their verdict — Not guilty.

On Monday November 17, the court again met, and proceeded on the trial of John Horne Tooke, esq. on the same charge of high treason. This trial was conducted in the same manner as the preceding, and ended on the Saturday following about eight in the evening, when the jury retired, and, in a few minutes, returned with their verdict — Not guilty.

On Monday the 6th of December, the court again met, and John Augustus Bonney, Jeremiah Joyce, Stewart Kyd, and Thomas Holcroft

(who, much to his honour, though not in custody, had surrendered himself as soon as the bill was found against him by the grand jury), were arraigned; and a jury was sworn in; when the attorney-general informed the court that he should decline going into the evidence against the prisoners, as it was the same that had been adduced in the two late trials, and on which, after the most mature consideration, a verdict of acquittal had been given. The prisoners were, of course, acquitted and discharged.

Mr. Thelwall was then put to the bar, and, after a trial of five days, acquitted.

Thus ended these memorable trials, the issue of which the country awaited with the utmost agitation and anxious suspense, until the just and temperate verdict of an honest jury had defended the law of the land against the dangerous innovation of constructive treasons.

On the 8th of April, 1795, were celebrated the nuptials of his royal highness the prince of Wales, with her highness the princess Caroline of Brunswick: on which occasion, a bill was passed for enabling his majesty to grant a suitable establishment to his royal highness, and for regulating the liquidation of his debts. Another bill was likewise passed for preventing future princes of Wales from incurring debts.

Towards the close of this year, a dreadful and oppressive scarcity pervaded the kingdom. The price of the half-peck loaf rose in the metropolis to half a crown; and in some other places it was still higher. Several instances occurred of persons who perished through absolute want; and the poor were every where in the utmost distress. A committee of the house of commons was appointed to consider of the high price of corn. They drew up, and entered into, an engagement to use only brown bread, and reduce the consumption of wheat in their families, by every possible expedient. This engagement was signed by the principal persons in the ministry, and a great number of the members of both houses.

On the 29th of October, the king opened the session of parliament. Immense crowds were assembled, who at length became riotous, loudly exclaiming "No war!—No Pitt!—No famine!" A few voices, it is said, were heard to exclaim—"Down with George!"—In the park and in the streets adjacent to Westminster-Hall, some stones and other things were thrown, nine of which, it is asserted, struck the state-coach; and one of them, which was suspected to have proceeded from a window in Margaret-street, near the abbey, perforated one of the windows, by a small circular aperture; from which circumstance it was supposed, by some, to have been a bullet discharged from an air-gun, or some similar engine of destruction; but no bullet was found: and whatever it was, it neither touched the king nor the noblemen who attended him. As his majesty returned from the house through the park, though the gates of the Horse-guards were shut to exclude the mob, this precaution was not sufficient to prevent a renewal of the outrages; and another stone was thrown at the carriage as it passed opposite to Spring-garden terrace. After the king had alighted at St. James's, the populace attacked the state-carriage; and, in its way through Pall-Mall to the new, it was almost demolished.

In consequence of these daring insults and outrages, a proclamation was issued, offering a reward of one thousand pounds to any person or persons, other than those actually concerned in doing any act by which his majesty's royal person was immediately endangered, who should give

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Information so that any of the authors and abettors in that outrage might be apprehended and brought to justice.

Several persons were apprehended on suspicion of having insulted his majesty, one of whom, named Kyd Wake, a journeyman printer, was brought to trial, and found guilty of hooting, groaning, and hissing at the king. He was sentenced to stand in the pillory at Gloucester, on a market-day, to be imprisoned, and kept to labour, during five years, in the penitentiary house at Gloucester, and, at the expiration of his imprisonment, to find security for one thousand pounds for his good behaviour for ten years.

In the two houses, after an address had been voted testifying their indignation and abhorrence at the daring outrages offered to his majesty, two bills were immediately brought in, the one by lord Grenville in the upper house, entitled, "an Act for the safety and preservation of his majesty's person and government against treasonable and seditious practices and attempts;" and the other by Mr. Pitt, in the house of commons, entitled, "an Act to prevent seditious meetings and assemblies." These bills were vigorously opposed in both houses, though only by the usual minorities, in point of numbers. Petitions, with very numerous signatures, were likewise presented against them, from every part of the kingdom. They, however, passed, and are now become a part of the law of the land.

On the 8th of December, a message from his majesty was brought down to the house of commons, signifying a disposition to enter into a negotiation with France, the government of that country having at length assumed such a form as to render a treaty with it practicable. Mr. Wickham, the British plenipotentiary to the Swiss Cantons, was appointed, in consequence, to make some overtures, through the medium of Mr. Barthelemi, the French envoy at Basle; but this feeble attempt at negotiation soon terminated without effect.

An apparently much more serious offer of this nature was made the following year. About the latter end of the month of September, 1796, through the intervention of the Danish minister at Paris, a passport was applied for and obtained, for a confidential person to be sent to Paris from the court of London, commissioned to discuss with the French government the means most proper for conducting to the re-establishment of peace. Lord Malmesbury was the person appointed by the British court to undertake this mission. His lordship accordingly repaired to Paris, where he continued about two months. It was proposed, on the part of England, as the basis of the treaty, that France should restore the Netherlands to the emperor, and evacuate Italy; in which case England engaged to restore all the conquests made on that power in the East and West Indies. The French directory replied that they could not consent to proposals contrary to the constitution, to the laws, and the treaties which bind the republic. Thus ended this negotiation.

The beginning of the year 1797 was distinguished by an extraordinary event as perhaps ever occurred in this or any other war — the invasion of Great Britain by a force of twelve hundred men without artillery, and almost without accoutrements. The alarm at first was general and great throughout the whole of Pembrokehire, on the coast which the landing was made; but the men surrendered on the approach of a very inadequate force, and almost without resistance. On inquiry it appeared that they consisted entirely of galley slaves, and other criminals, from Brest: and the object was supposed to be at once to create

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alarm on the British coast, and to rid the French republic of a number of desperate persons; but whatever the intentions of the enemy might be, they met, on the whole, with a complete disappointment; for, not only the expedition proved entirely fruitless, but, as two of the ships which disembarked the men were returning into Brest harbour, they were captured by the St. Fiorenzo and Nymph frigates.

The apprehensions excited by this circumstance had scarcely subsided, when a more serious cause of alarm occurred to agitate the minds of the public. The bank of England discontinued the issuing of specie in their customary payments. A run (to speak in the commercial phraseology) had taken place upon some of the country banks; and the great demand for specie from the bank of England induced the directors to lay the state of their company before the minister; in consequence of which an order of council was made on the 26th of February, prohibiting the farther issue of specie from the bank. This order was afterwards sanctioned and ratified by an act of parliament, by which the restriction was continued to midsummer; and afterwards by another act continuing it to the end of the present war.

On the third of March, government received intelligence of an important advantage obtained by the British fleet, under the command of sir John Jervis, over a Spanish fleet of much superior force, on the 14th of February, off Cape St. Vincent. The english admiral, by a successful manœuvre, separated the rear of the enemy's fleet from the main body, and captured two ships of 112 guns, one of 84, and one of 74.

The seamen of England, however, who had so long been the defence and the glory of the nation, seemed suddenly to conspire its overthrow. In the middle of April a most alarming mutiny broke out on board the grand Channell fleet at Spithead, under the command of lord Bridport. The sailors required an advance of their pay, and certain regulations to be adopted relative to the allowance of provisions. They appointed delegates, two for each ship, who for several days had the entire command of the whole fleet, over which no officer had the least authority. In this critical situation, government deemed it most expedient to promise a full compliance with all their demands; on which they cheerfully returned to their duty. But in a week or two afterwards, no act of indemnity having been offered in parliament for the security of those concerned in the mutiny, they again rose, deprived their officers of their authority, and the dispute seemed to wear a more gloomy aspect than before. A bill, securing to the seamen what they had been promised, was therefore hastily passed through both houses, and lord Howe went down to Portsmouth to act as mediator. The delegates of the fleet declared themselves satisfied, and harmony and good order was immediately restored.

The ferment, however, still remained in other parts of the navy; and on after, the seamen of some ships lying at Sheerness began to mutiny, and behaved riotously; and so contagious was the spirit of insurrection now become among the seamen, that almost all the ships of admiral Dunbar's fleet at Yarmouth appointed delegates, and sailed away to the Nore, and the ships from Sheerness. New grievances were required to be redressed, and new and extravagant demands to be complied with; government now convinced that to yield would only be to encourage a repetition of similar proceedings; and every disposition was therefore made to force these ships to submission. All communication between them and the shore was cut off, and no provisions or water suffered to go to them. The mutineers, to supply themselves with these, detained all

vessels coming up the river, and took out of them whatever they chose, for which their delegates, the principal of whom was one Richard Parker, a man of strong natural abilities, gave draughts on the treasury, as taken for the use of the navy of England. At length being reduced to great want of water, and dissensions and distrust prevailing among themselves, several ships left the mutinous fleet, and surrendered themselves at Sheerness. Some of these were fired upon by the others; but at length they all came in, and gave up their delegates; who, with a number of others that were considered as principals in the mutiny, were tried by a court-martial. Some of them were executed, others sentenced to different punishments, and the rest pardoned. Richard Parker, who had acted as commander of the fleet while in a state of mutiny, was the first who was tried and executed. He displayed great presence of mind, and suffered with the utmost firmness and fortitude.

As if to erase this stain from the annals of the British navy, the fleet of admiral Duncan, consisting principally of the ships which had been engaged in this unhappy and disgraceful mutiny, sailed soon after to watch the motions of the Dutch fleet in the Texel, where it remained for some time blockaded, till, on its venturing out, an engagement ensued, in which the English fleet obtained a complete victory, taking the Dutch admiral De Winter, the vice-admiral, and nine ships.

In consequence of this signal victory, admiral Duncan was created viscount Duncan; and on account of this and the other naval successes of the war, the 19th of December was appointed to be observed as a thanksgiving day, on which day his majesty and both houses of parliament went in solemn procession to St. Paul's, to return thanks to heaven for the victories gained by his fleets.

In the course of this year, another attempt was made by the British cabinet to negotiate a treaty of peace with France. The preliminaries of a peace between the French republic and the emperor having been signed at Leoben, in the month of April, by which the Netherlands were given up to France; the difficulty which had broken off the last negotiation, appeared to be in some measure removed, and applications were again made to the French government for passports for a person who might enter into discussions relative to the basis of a future treaty. Lord Malmesbury was again appointed to this mission; but the French directory objected to his coming to Paris, and appointed Lisle for the place of the conference with commissioners they sent thither for that purpose. What the Netherlands, however, had been in the former attempt to treat, the cape of Good Hope and Ceylon proved in the present, and, after a stay of nearly three months, lord Malmesbury, not being able to declare himself empowered to consent to the surrender of all the conquests made from France or her allies, was abruptly ordered to depart, and on the 20th of September returned as before, not having effected the object of his mission.

In the following month, the definitive treaty between the French republic and the emperor was concluded and ratified; and the French having little other employment for their armies, began to talk loudly of an immediate invasion of England. The directory has decreed that an army shall be immediately assembled along the coasts opposite Great Britain, which shall be called the army of England, and which they fondly imagine, shall be able to effect the conquest, and seize the spoils, of the only enemy that has hitherto been able to resist their power.

But, by such menaces, Englishmen, we trust, will be little terrified;

tle, indeed, will they be to be feared, if Britons, reverting to the public spirit and principles of their ancestors, shall vigorously exert themselves in defence of their honour and their liberties. England, happy in her insular situation, and the strength of her navy, may brave the utmost fury of her foreign foes; but let her carefully guard, not only against the attacks of unprincipled faction on the one hand, but against the, perhaps, still greater danger to be apprehended from unprincipled corruption, and a base and mercenary spirit, on the other.

GENEALOGICAL LIST OF THE ROYAL FAMILY OF GREAT BRITAIN.

George-William-Frederic III. born June 4, 1738; proclaimed king of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, and elector of Hanover, October 26, 1760; and married, September 8, 1761, to the princess Sophia-Charlotte, of Mecklenburgh-Strelitz, born May 16, 1744, crowned September 22, 1761, and now have issue:

1. George-Augustus-Frederic, prince of Wales, born August 12, 1762.
 2. Prince Frederic, born August 16, 1763, elected bishop of Osnaburgh, February 27, 1764, created duke of York and Albany, November 7, 1784, K. G. and K. B. married, September 29, 1791, Frederica-Charotta-Ulrica-Catharina, princess royal of Prussia.

3. Prince William-Henry, born August 21, 1765, created duke of Clarence, K. G. and K. B.

4. Charlotte-Augusta-Matilda, princess royal of England, born September 29, 1766; married, May 18, 1797, to his serene highness Frederic-William, hereditary prince of Wurtemberg-Stuttgart.

5. Prince Edward, born November 2, 1767.

6. Princess Augusta-Sophia, born November 8, 1768.

7. Princess Elizabeth, born May 27, 1770.

8. Prince Ernest-Augustus, born June 5, 1771.

9. Prince Frederic-Augustus, born January 27, 1773.

10. Prince Adolphus-Frederic, born February 24, 1774.

11. Princess Mary, born April 25, 1776.

12. Princess Sophia, born November 3, 1777.

13. Princess Amelia, born August 7, 1783.

Issue of the late prince of Wales by the princess Augusta of Saxe-Gotha, now living:

1. Her royal highness Augusta, born August 11, 1737; married the hereditary prince (now duke) of Brunswick Lunenburgh, January 16, 1764.

2. His present majesty.

3. Prince William-Henry, duke of Gloucester, born November 25, 1743.

WALES.

ALTHOUGH this principality is politically included in England, yet, as it has distinction in language and manners, I have, in conformity with common custom, assigned it a separate article.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.

Degrees.

Length 130 } between { 51 and 54 North latitude.
 Breadth 96 } { 2,41 and 4,56 West longitude.
 Area in square miles, 7011.

NAME AND LANGUAGE.] The Welch, according to the best antiquaries, are descendants of the Belgic Gauls, who made a settlement in England about fourscore years before the first descent of Julius Cæsar, and thereby obtained the name of Galles or Wales (the G and W being promiscuously used by the ancient Britons), that is, Strangers. Their language is a dialect of the Celtic, or language of the ancient Gauls, probably little changed by time, and is highly commended for its pathetic and descriptive powers by those who understand it.

BOUNDARIES.] Wales was formerly of greater extent than it is at present, being bounded only by the Severn and the Dee; but after the Saxons had made themselves masters of all the plain country, the Welch, or ancient Britons, were shut up within more narrow bounds, and obliged gradually to retreat westward. It does not however appear that the Saxons ever made any farther conquests in their country than Montgomeryshire and Herefordshire, which are now reckoned part of England. This country is divided into four circuits. See ENGLAND.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] The seasons are pretty much the same as in the northern parts of England, and the air is sharp, but wholesome. The soil of Wales, especially towards the north, is mountainous, but contains rich valleys, which produce crops of wheat, rye, and other corn. Wales contains many quarries of freestone and slate, several mines of lead, and abundance of coal-pits. This country is well supplied with wholesome springs; and its chief rivers are the Clwyd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Severn, the Elwy, and the Alen, which furnish Flintshire with great quantities of fish.

MOUNTAINS.] It would be endless to particularise the mountains of this country. Snowdon, in Caernarvonshire, and Plinlimmon, which lies partly in Montgomery and partly in Cardiganshire, are the most famous; and their mountainous situation greatly assisted the natives in making so noble and long a struggle against the Roman, Anglo-Saxon, and Norman powers.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] In these particulars Wales differs little from England. Their horses are smaller, but can endure vast fatigue; and their black cattle are small likewise, but excellent beef; and their cows are remarkable for yielding large quantities of milk. Great numbers of goats feed on the mountains. As for the other productions of Wales, see England and Scotland. Some very promising mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron, have been discovered in Wales. The Welch silver may be known by its being stamped with the ostrich feathers, the badge of the prince of Wales.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The inhabitants of Wales are supposed to amount to about 300,000; and though not in general wealthy, they are provided with all the necessaries and many of the conveniencies of life. The land-tax of Wales brought in some years ago about forty-three thousand seven hundred

and fifty-two pounds a year. The Welch are, if possible, more jealous of their liberties than the English, and far more irascible, but their anger soon abates; and they are remarkable for their sincerity and fidelity. They are very fond of carrying back their pedigrees to the most remote antiquity; but we have no criterion for the authenticity of their manuscripts, some of which they pretend to be coeval with the incarnation. It is however certain, that great part of their history, especially the ecclesiastical, is more ancient, and better attested, than that of the Anglo-Saxons. Wales was formerly famous for its bards and poets, particularly Thalieffin, who lived about the year 450, and whose works were certainly extant at the time of the Reformation, and clearly evince that Geoffrey of Monmouth was not the inventor of the history which makes the present Welch the descendants of the ancient Trojans. This poetical genius seems to have influenced the ancient Welch with an enthusiasm for independency; for which reason Edward I. is said to have made a general massacre of the bards: an inhumanity which was characteristic of that ambitious prince. The Welch may be called an unmixed people, as may be proved by their keeping up the ancient hospitality, and their strict adherence to ancient customs and manners. This appears even among gentlemen of fortune, who in other countries commonly follow the stream of fashion. We are not however to imagine, that many of the nobility and gentry of Wales do not comply with the modes and manner of living in England and France. All the better sort of the Welch speak the English language, though numbers of them understand the Welch.

RELIGION.] The massacre of the Welch clergy by Augustine, the popish apostle of England, because they would not conform to the Romish ritual, has been already mentioned. Wales, after that, fell under the dominion of petty princes, who were often weak and credulous. The Romish clergy insinuated themselves into their favour, by their pretended power of absolving them from crimes; and the Welch, when their ancient clergy were extinct, conformed themselves to the religion of Rome. The Welch clergy, in general, are but poorly provided for; and in many of the country congregations they preach both in Welch and English. Their poverty was formerly a vast discouragement to religion and learning; but the measures taken by the society for propagating christian knowledge have in a great degree removed the reproach of ignorance from the poorer sort of the Welch. In the year 1749, a hundred and forty-two schoolmasters were employed to remove from place to place for the instruction of the inhabitants: and their scholars amounted to 72,264. No people have distinguished themselves more, perhaps, in proportion to their abilities, than the Welch have done by acts of national munificence. They print, at a vast expense, Bibles, Common-prayers, and other religious books, and distribute them gratis to the poorer sort. Few of their towns are unprovided with a free-school.

The established religion in Wales is that of the church of England: but the common people in many places are so tenacious of their ancient customs, that they retain several of the Romish superstitions, and some ancient families among them are still Roman catholics. It is likewise said that Wales abounds with Romish priests in disguise. The principality also contains great numbers of protestant dissenters.

For **BISHOPRICS**,—see England. We are to observe, that in former times, Wales contained more bishoprics than it does now; and about

the time of the Norman invasion, the religious foundations there far exceeded the wealth of all the other parts of the principality.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Wales was a seat of learning at a very early period; but it suffered an eclipse by the repeated massacres of the bards and clergy. Wickliffism took shelter in Wales, when it was persecuted in England. The Welch and Scotch dispute about the nativity of certain learned men, particularly four of the name of Gildas: Giraldus Cambrensis, whose history was published by Camden, was certainly a Welchman; and Leland mentions several learned men of the same country, who flourished before the Reformation. The discovery of the famous king Arthur's and his wife's burying place was owing to some lines of Thalleffin, which were repeated before Henry II. of England, by a Welch bard. Since the Reformation, Wales has produced several excellent antiquaries and divines. Among the latter were Hugh Broughton, and Hugh Holland, who was a Roman catholic, and is mentioned by Fuller in his Worthies. Among the former were several gentlemen of the name of Llhuyd, particularly the author of that invaluable work, the Archæologia. Rowland, the learned author of the Mona Antiqua, was likewise a Welchman; as was that great statesman and prelate, the lord-keeper Williams, archbishop of York in the time of king Charles I. After all, it appears, that the great merit of the Welch learning, in former times, lay in the knowledge of the antiquities, language, and history of their own country. Wales, notwithstanding all that Dr. Hicks and other antiquaries have said to the contrary, furnished the Anglo-Saxons with an alphabet. This is clearly demonstrated by Mr. Llhuyd, in his Welch preface to his Archæologia, and is confirmed by various monumental inscriptions of undoubted authority. (See Rowland's Mona Antiqua.) The excellent history of Henry VIII. written by lord Herbert of Cherbury, may be adduced as another production of Welch literature.

With regard to the present state of literature among the Welch, it is sufficient to say, that some of them make a considerable figure in the republic of letters, and that many of their clergy are excellent scholars. The Welch Pater-noster is as follows:

Ein Tad, yn hwn wyf, yn y nefoedd, sancteiddier dy enw; deued dy deyrnas; bydded dy ewyllys ar y ddaear, megis y mac yn y nefoed: dyro in i heddwy ein bara beunyddiol; a madden i ni ein dyledion, fel y madderwon ni i'n dyledwyr: ac nac arwain ni i brofedigaeth eithr gwaed ni rhag drwg; canys eiddot ti yw'r deyrnat, a'r gallu, a'r gogoniant, yn eos cofoedd. Amen.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.

Wales contains no cities or towns that are remarkable either for populousness or magnificence. Beaumaris is the chief town of Anglesey *, and has a harbour for ships. Brecknock trades in clothing. Cardigan is a large populous town, and lies in the neighbourhood of lead and silver mines. Caermarthen has a large bridge, and is governed by a mayor, two sheriffs, and aldermen, who wear scarlet gowns, and other ensigns of state. Pembroke is well inhabited by gentlemen and tradesmen; and part of the country is so fertile and pleasant, that it

* The isle of Anglesey, which is the most western county of North Wales, is surrounded on all sides by the Irish sea, except on the south-east, where it is divided from Britain by a narrow strait, called Meneu, which in some places may be passed on foot at low water. The island is about 24 miles long, and 18 broad, and contains 24 parishes. It was the ancient seat of the British Druids.

is called Little England. The other towns of Wales have nothing particular. It is, however, to be observed, that Wales, in ancient times, was a far more populous and wealthy country than it is at present; and though it contains no regular fortifications, yet many of its old castles are so strongly built, and so well situated, that they might be turned into strong forts by a little expense: witness the vigorous defence which many of them made in the civil wars between Charles I. and his parliament.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES. } Wales abounds in remains of
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } antiquity. Several of its castles are stupendously large; and in some, the remains of Roman architecture are plainly discernible. The architecture of others is doubtful; and some appear to be partly British and partly Roman. In Brecknockshire are some rude sculptures, upon a stone six feet high, called the Maiden-stone; but the remains of the Druidical institutions, and places of worship, are chiefly discernible in the isle of Anglesey, the ancient Mona, mentioned by Tacitus, who describes it as being the chief seminary of the Druidical rites and religion. Cherpilly castle in Glamorganshire is said to have been the largest in Great Britain, excepting Windsor; and the remains of it show it to have been a most beautiful fabric. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, but the other overhangs its basis more than nine feet, and is as great a curiosity as the leaning tower of Pisa in Italy.

Among the natural curiosities of this country, are the following: At a small village called Newton, in Glamorganshire, is a remarkable spring which flows into the sea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the sea. In Merionethshire is Kader Idris, a mountain remarkable for its height, which affords a variety of Alpine plants. In Flintshire is a famous well, known by the name of St. Wenefred's well, at which, according to the legendary tales of the common people, miraculous cures have been performed. The spring boils with vast impetuosity out of a rock, and is formed into a beautiful polygonal well, covered with a rich arch, supported by pillars, and the roof is most exquisitely carved in stone. Over the spring is also a chapel, a neat piece of Gothic architecture, but in a very ruinous state. King James II. paid a visit to the well of St. Wenefred in 1686, and was rewarded for his piety by a present which was made him of the very shift in which his great grandmother, Mary Stuart, lost her head. The spring is supposed to be one of the finest in the British dominions; and by two different trials and calculations lately made, is found to throw out about twenty-one tons of water in a minute. It never freezes, or scarcely varies in the quantity of water either in dry or rainy seasons; but in consequence of the latter it assumes a wheyish tinge. The small town adjoining to the well is known by the name of Holywell. In Caernarvonshire is the high mountain of Penmanmawr, across the edge of which the public road lies, and occasions no small terror to many travellers; from one hand the impending rock seems every minute ready to crush them to pieces; and the great precipice below, which hangs over the sea, is so hideous, and (till very lately, when a wall was raised on the side of the road) full of danger, that one false step was of dismal consequence. Snowdon hill has been found, by triangulation, to be 1240 yards in perpendicular height.

There are a great number of pleasing prospects and picturesque views in Wales: and this country is highly worthy the attention of the curious traveller.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Welch are on a footing, as to their commerce and manufactures, with many of the western and

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northern counties of England. Their trade is mostly inland, or with England, into which they import numbers of black cattle. Milford haven, which is reckoned the finest in Europe, lies in Pembrokeshire; but the Welch have hitherto reaped no great benefit from it, though of late considerable sums have been granted by parliament for its fortification. The making it the principal harbour in the kingdom would meet with great opposition in parliament from the numerous Cornish and West-country members, the benefit of whose estates must be greatly lessened by the disuse of Plymouth and Portsmouth, and other harbours. The town of Pembroke employs near 200 merchant ships, and its inhabitants carry on an extensive trade. In Brecknockshire are several woollen manufactures; and Wales in general carries on a great coal trade with England, and even Ireland.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Wales was united and incorporated with England, in the 27th of Henry VIII. when, by act of parliament, the government of it was modelled according to the English form; all laws, customs, and tenures, contrary to those of England, being abrogated, and the inhabitants admitted to a participation of all the English liberties and privileges, particularly that of sending members to parliament, viz. a knight for every shire, and a burgess for every shire-town, except Merioneth. By the 34th and 35th of the same reign, there were ordained four several circuits for the administration of justice in the said shires, each of which was to include three shires; so that the chief-justice of Chester has under his jurisdiction the three several shires of Flint, Denbigh, and Montgomery. The shires of Caernarvon, Merioneth, and Anglesey, are under the justices of North Wales. Those of Caermarthen, Pembrokeshire, and Cardigan, have also their justices; as have likewise those of Radnor, Brecknock, and Glamorgan. By the 18th of queen Elizabeth, one other justice-assistant was ordained to the former justices; so that now every one of the said four circuits has two justices, viz. one chief-justice, and a second justice-assistant.

REVENUES.] As to the revenues, the crown has a certain though small property in the product of the silver and lead mines; but it is said that the revenue accruing to the prince of Wales, from his principality, does not exceed 7 or 8,000l. a year.

ARMS.] The arms of the prince of Wales differ from those of England, only by the addition of a label of three points. His cap, or badge of ostrich feathers, was occasioned by a trophy of that kind, which Edward the Black Prince took from the king of Bohemia, when he was killed at the battle of Poitiers, and the motto is *Ich dien, I serve*. St. David, commonly called St. Taffy, is the tutelar saint of the Welch; and his badge is a leek, which is worn on his day, the 1st of March.

HISTORY.] The ancient history of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. That they were sovereign and independent, appears from the English history. It was formerly inhabited by three different tribes of Britons; the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices. These people cut out so much work for the Romans, that they do not appear ever to have been entirely subdued; yet part of their country, as appears from the ruins of castles, was bridled by garrisons. - Though the Saxons, as hath been already observed, conquered the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, yet they never penetrated farther, and the Welch remained an independent people, governed by their own princes and their own laws. About the year 870, Roderic, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three sons; and the names of these divisions were, Dimetia, or South

Wales; Poveffa, or Powis land; and Venedotia, or North Wales. This division gave a mortal blow to the independency of Wales. About the year 1112, Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the frontiers of Wales, to serve as a barrier to England, none of the Welch princes being powerful enough to oppose them. They made, however, many vigorous and brave attempts against the Norman kings of England, to maintain their liberties; and even the English historians admit the justice of their claims. In 1237, the crown of England was first supplied with a pretext for the future conquest of Wales; their old and infirm prince Llewelin, in order to be safe from the persecutions of his undutiful son Gryffyn, having put himself under subjection and homage to king Henry III.

But no capitulation could satisfy the ambition of Edward I. who resolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Llewelin, prince of Wales, disdaining the subjection to which old Llewelin had submitted, Edward raised an army at a prodigious expense, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and taking possession of the isle of Anglesey, he drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to submit to pay a tribute. The Welch, however, made several efforts under young Llewelin; but at last, in 1282, he was killed in battle. He was succeeded by his brother David, the last independent prince of Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treachery, was by him most barbarously and unjustly hanged; and Edward, from that time, pretended that Wales was annexed to his crown of England. It was about this time, probably, that Edward perpetrated the inhuman massacre of the Welch bards. Perceiving that this cruelty was not sufficient to complete his conquest, he sent his queen in the year 1284, to be delivered in Caernarvon castle, that the Welch, having a prince born among themselves, might the more readily recognise his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. and from him the title of prince of Wales has always since descended to the eldest sons of the English kings. The history of Wales and England becomes now the same. It is proper, however, to observe, that the kings of England have always found it their interest to soothe the Welch with particular marks of their regard. Their eldest sons not only held their titular dignity, but actually kept a court at Ludlow; and a regular council, with a president, was named by the crown, for the administration of all the affairs of the principality. This was thought so necessary a piece of policy, that when Henry VIII. had no son, his daughter Mary was created princess of Wales.

ISLE OF MAN.

THE Mona mentioned by Tacitus was not this island, but the isle of Anglesey. Some think it takes its name from the Saxon word *Mang* (or among), because, lying in St. George's Channel, it is almost at an equal distance from the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland; but Mona seems to have been a generic name with the ancients for any detached island. Its length from north to south is rather more than thirty miles, its breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of the middle of the island is fifty-four degrees sixteen minutes north. It is said that on a clear day the three Britannic kingdoms may be seen from this island. The air here is wholesome, and the climate, only

making an allowance for the situation, pretty much the same as that in the north of England, from which it does not differ much in other respects. The hilly parts are barren, and the champaign fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and pulse. The ridge of mountains, which, as it were, divide the island, both protects and fertilises the valleys, where there is good pasturage. The better sort of inhabitants have good sizeable hories, and a small kind, which is swift and hardy; nor are they troubled with any noxious animals. The coasts abound with sea fowl; and the puffins, which breed in rabbit holes, are almost a lump of fat, and esteemed very delicious. It is said that this island abounds with iron, lead, and copper mines, though unwrought; as are the quarries of marble, slate, and stone.

The Isle of Man contains seventeen parishes, and four towns on the sea coasts. Castle-town is the metropolis of the island, and the seat of its government; Peele of late years begins to flourish; Douglas has the best market and best trade in the island, and is the richest and most populous town, on account of its excellent harbour, and its fine mole, extending into the sea; Ramsey has likewise a considerable commerce, on account of its spacious bay, in which ships may ride safe from all winds excepting the north-east. The reader, by throwing his eyes on the map, may see how conveniently this island is situated for being the storehouse of smugglers, which it was till within these few years, to the inexpressible prejudice of his majesty's revenue; and this necessarily leads me to touch upon the history of the island.

During the time of the Scandinavian rovers on the seas, whom I have before mentioned, this island was their rendez-vous, and their chief force was here collected; from whence they annoyed the Hebrides, Great Britain, and Ireland. The kings of Man are often mentioned in history; and though we have no regular account of their succession, and know but few of their names, yet they undoubtedly were, for some ages masters of those seas. About the year 1263, Alexander II. king of Scotland, a spirited prince, having defeated the Danes, laid claim to the superiority of Man, and obliged Owen or John, its king, to acknowledge him as lord paramount. It seems to have continued either tributary or in property of the kings of Scotland, till it was reduced by Edward I. and the kings of England, from that time, exercised the superiority over the island; though we find it still possessed by the posterity of its Danish princes, in the reign of Edward III. who dispossessed the last queen of the island, and bestowed it on his favourite, Montague, earl of Salisbury. His family honours and estate being forfeited, Henry IV. bestowed Man, and the patronage of the bishoprick, first upon the Northumberland family, and, that being forfeited, upon sir John Stanley, whose posterity, the earls of Derby, enjoyed it, till, by failure of heirs male, it devolved upon the duke of Athol, who married the sister of the last lord Derby. Reasons of state rendered it necessary for the crown of Great Britain to purchase the customs of the island from the Athol family; and the bargain was completed by 70,000*l.* being paid to the duke in 1765. The duke, however, retains his territorial property in the island, though the form of its government is altered, and the king has now the same rights, powers, and prerogatives, as the duke formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants also retain many of their ancient constitutions and customs.

The established religion in Man is that of the church of England. The bishop of Sodor and Man enjoys all the spiritual rights and pre-eminences of the other bishops, but does not sit in the British house of

peers; his see never having been erected into an English barony. One of the most excellent prelates who ever adorned the episcopal character, was Dr. Thomas Wilson, bishop of Man, who presided over the diocese upwards of fifty-seven years, and died in the year 1755, aged ninety-three. He was eminently distinguished for the piety and the exemplariness of his life, his benevolence and hospitality, and his unremitting attention to the happiness of the people entrusted to his care. He encouraged agriculture, established schools for the instruction of the children of the inhabitants of the island, translated some of his devotional pieces into the Manks language, to render them more generally useful to them, and founded parochial libraries in every parish in his diocese. Some of his notions respecting government and church discipline were not of the most liberal kind: but his failings were so few, and his virtues so numerous and conspicuous, that he was a great blessing to the Isle of Man, and an ornament to human nature. Cardinal Fleury had so much veneration for his character, that, out of regard to him, he obtained an order from the court of France, that no privateer of that nation should ravage the Isle of Man.

The ecclesiastical government is well kept up in this island, and the livings are comfortable. The language, which is called the Manks, and is spoken by the common people, is radically Erse, or Irish, but with a mixture of other languages. The New Testament and the Common-prayer book have been translated into the Manks language. The natives, who amount to above 20,000, are inoffensive, charitable, and hospitable. The better sort live in stone houses, and the poorer in thatched; and their ordinary bread is made of oatmeal. Their products for exportation consist of wool, hides, and tallow; which they exchange with foreign shipping for commodities they may have occasion for from other parts. Before the south promontory of Man, is a little island called the Calf of Man: it is about three miles in circuit, and separated from Man by a channel about two furlongs broad.

This island affords some curiosities which may amuse an antiquary. They consist chiefly of Runic sepulchral inscriptions and monuments, of ancient brass daggers, and other weapons of that metal, and partly of pure gold, which are sometimes dug up, and seem to indicate the splendor of its ancient possessors.

ISLE OF WIGHT.

THIS island is situated opposite the coast of Hampshire, from which it is separated by a channel, varying in breadth from two to seven miles; it is considered as part of the county of Southampton, and is within the diocese of Winchester. Its greatest length, extending from east to west, measures nearly twenty-three miles; its breadth from north to south, above thirteen. The air is in general healthy, particularly in the southern parts: the soil is various; but so great is its fertility, that it was many years ago computed, that more wheat was grown here in one year, than could be consumed by the inhabitants in eight; and it is supposed that its present produce, under the great improvements of agriculture, and the additional quantity of land lately brought into tillage, has more than kept pace with the increase of population. A range of hills, which afford fine pasture for sheep, extends from east to west, through the middle of the island. The interior parts of the

island; as well as its extremities, afford a great number of beautiful and picturesque prospects, not only in the pastoral but also in the great and romantic style. Of these beauties the gentlemen of the island have availed themselves, as well in the choice of situations for their houses, as in their other improvements. Domestic fowls and poultry are bred here in great numbers; the outward-bound ships and vessels at Spithead, the Mother-bank, and Cowes, commonly furnishing themselves from this island.

Such is the purity of the air, the fertility of the soil, and the beauty and variety of the landscapes of this island, that it has been called the garden of England; it has some very fine gentlemen's seats; and it is often visited by parties of pleasure on account of its delightful scenes.

The island is divided into thirty parishes; and, according to a very accurate calculation made in the year 1777, the inhabitants then amounted to eighteen thousand and twenty-four, exclusive of the troops quartered there. Most of the farm-houses are built with stone, and even the cottages appear neat and comfortable, having each its little garden.

The town of Newport stands nearly in the centre of the island, of which it may be considered as the capital. The river Medina empties itself into the channel at Cowes harbour, distant about five miles, and being navigable up to the quay, renders it commodious for trade. The three principal streets of Newport extend from east to west, and are crossed at right angles by three others, all which are spacious, clean, and well paved.

Carisbrook castle, in the Isle of Wight, has been rendered remarkable by the confinement of king Charles I. who, taking refuge here, was detained a prisoner, from November 1647, to September 1648. After the execution of the king, this castle was converted into a place of confinement for his children; and his daughter, the princess Elizabeth, died in it. There are several other forts in this island, which were all erected about the 36th year of the reign of Henry VIII. when many other forts and blockhouses were built in different parts of the coast of England.

The SCILLY ISLES, anciently the SILURES, are a cluster of dangerous rocks, to the number of 140, lying about thirty miles from the Land's End in Cornwall, of which county they were reckoned a part. By their situation between the English Channel and St. George's Channel, they have been the destruction of many ships and lives. Some of the islands are well inhabited, and have large and secure harbours.

In the English Channel are four islands subject to England: these are Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark; which, though they lie much nearer to the coast of Normandy than to that of England, are within the diocese of Winchester. They lie in a cluster in Mount St. Michael's bay, between Cape la Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Britany. The computed distance between Jersey and Sark is four leagues; and between that and Guernsey, seven leagues; and between the same and Alderney, nine leagues.

JERSEY, anciently CÆSAREA, was known to the Romans, and lies farthest within the bay, in forty-nine degrees seven minutes north latitude, and in the second degree twenty-six minutes west longitude, 18 miles west of Normandy, and 84 mile south of Portland. The north side is inaccessible through lofty cliffs; the south is almost

level with the water; the higher land, in its midland part, is well planted, and abounds with orchards, from which is made an incredible quantity of excellent cider. The valleys are fruitful and well cultivated, and contain plenty of cattle and sheep. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent upon the culture of cider, the improvement of commerce, and particularly the manufacture of stockings. The honey in Jersey is remarkably fine; and the island is well supplied with fish and wild-fowl of almost every kind, some of both being peculiar to the island, and very delicious.

The island is not above twelve miles in length; but the air is so salubrious, that, in Camden's time, it was said there was here no business for a physician. The inhabitants in number are about 20,000, and are divided into twelve parishes. The capital town of S. Helier, or Hilary, which contains above 400 houses, has a good harbour and castle, and makes a handsome appearance. The property of this island belonged formerly to the Carterets, a Norman family, who have been always attached to the royal interest, and gave protection to Charles II. both when king and prince of Wales, at a time when no part of the British dominions durst recognise him. The language of the inhabitants is French, with which most of them intermingle English words. Knit stockings and caps form their staple commodity; but they carry on a considerable trade in fish with Newfoundland, and dispose of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown of England, but the civil administration rests with a bailiff, assisted by twelve jurors. As this island is the principal remain of the duchy of Normandy depending on the kings of England, it preserves the old feudal forms, and particularly the assembly of States, which is, as it were, a miniature of the British parliament, as settled in the time of Edward I.

GUERNSEY is thirteen miles and a half from south-west to north-west, and twelve and a half where broadest, east and west; has only ten parishes, to which there are but eight ministers, four of the parishes being united, and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages of Guernsey, having one a-piece. Though this is a much finer island than that of Jersey, yet it is far less valuable; because it is not so well cultivated, nor is it so populous. It abounds in cider; and the inhabitants speak French: but want of firing is the greatest inconvenience that both islands labour under. The only harbour here is at St. Peter le Port, which is guarded by two forts, one called the Old-Castle, and the other Castle-Cornet. Guernsey is likewise part of the ancient Norman patrimony.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compass, and is by much the nearest of all these islands to Normandy, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, called the Race of Alderney, which is a dangerous passage in stormy weather, when the two currents meet; otherwise it is safe, and has depth of water for the largest ships. This island is healthy, and the soil is remarkable for a fine breed of cows.

SARK is a small island depending upon Guernsey; the inhabitants are long-lived, and enjoy from nature all the conveniences of life; their number is about 300. The inhabitants of the three last-mentioned islands, together, are thought to be about 20,000. The religion of all the four islands is that of the church of England.

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I R E L A N D.

SITUATION, FOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.

THE island of Ireland is situated on the west side of England, between 6 and 10 degrees of west longitude, and between 51 and 55 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, or between the middle parallel of the eighth clime, where the longest day is 16½ hours, and the 24th parallel, or the end of the tenth clime, where the longest day is 17½ hours.

The extent or superficial content of this kingdom is, from the nearest computation and survey, found to be in length 285 miles from Fairhead north, to Missenhead south; and from the east part of Down, to the west part of Mayo, its greatest breadth 160 miles; and to contain 11,067,712 Irish plantation acres, which makes 17,927,864 acres of English statute measure, and is held to bear proportion to England and Wales as 18 to 30. Mr. Templeman, who makes the length 275, and the breadth 150 miles, gives it an area of 27,457 square miles, with 127 inhabitants to each. From the east part of Wexford to St. David's in Wales, it is reckoned 15 miles, but the passage between Donaghadee and Portpatrick in Scotland is little more than twenty miles, and the passage from Dublin to Holyhead in North Wales, about 52 miles.

NAMES AND DIVISIONS, } Many conjectures have been formed as
ANCIENT AND MODERN. } to the Latin (Hibernia), the Irish (Erin), as well as the English name of this island. It probably takes its rise from a Phœnician or Gaelic term, signifying the farthest habitation westward.

It is pretty extraordinary, that even modern authors are not agreed as to the divisions of Ireland; some dividing it into five circuits, and some into four provinces, those of Leinster, Ulster, Connaught, and Munster. I shall follow the last division, as being the most common, and likewise the most ancient.

	Counties.	Chief Towns.
	Dublin	Dublin
	Louth	Drogheda
	Wicklow	Wicklow
	Wexford	Wexford
	Longford	Longford
Leinster, 12 counties	East Meath	Trim
	West Meath	Mullingar
	King's County	Philipstown
	Queen's County	Maryborough
	Kilkenny	Kilkenny
	Kildare	Naas and Athy
	Carlow.	Carlow.
	Down	Down Patrick
	Armagh	Armagh
	Monaghan	Monaghan
	Cavan	Cavan
Ulster, 9 counties	Antrim	Carrickfergus
	Londonderry	Derry
	Tyrone	Omagh
	Fermanagh	Enniskillen
	Donegall.	Lifford.

Connaught, 5 counties	}	Leitrim	Carrick on Shannon
		Roscommon	Roscommon
		Mayo	Baliinrobe and Castlebar
		Sligo	Sligo
		Galway.	Galway.
Munster, 6 counties	}	Clare	Ennis
		Cork	Cork
		Kerry	Tralee
		Limerick	Limerick
		Tipperary	Clonmel
		Waterford.	Waterford.

[CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL.] The climate of Ireland differs not much from that of England, excepting that it is more moist, the seasons in general being much wetter. From the reports of various registers, it appears that the number of days on which rain had fallen in Ireland was much greater than in the same years in England. But without the evidence of registers, it is certain, that moisture (even without rain) is not only more characteristic of the climate of this island than that of England; but is also one of the worst and most inconvenient circumstances. This is accounted for by observing, that, "the westerly winds, so favourable to other regions, and so benign even in this, by qualifying the rigour of the northern air, are yet hurtful in the present situation, being with no lands on this side of America to break their force, and proving in the general too powerful for the counteraction of the shifting winds from the eastern and African continents, they waft hither the vapours of an immense ocean. By this cause, the sky in Ireland is much obscured; and from the nature of rest and condensation, these vapours descend in such constant rains, as threaten destruction to the fruits of the earth in some seasons. This unavoidable evil from natural causes is aggravated by the increase of it from others, which are either moral or political: The hand of industry hath been long idle in a country where almost every advantage must be obtained from its labour; and where discouragements on the labourer must necessarily produce a state of languor. Ever since the neglect of agriculture in the sixteenth century, the rains of so many ages subsiding on the lower grounds, have converted most of the extensive plains into mossy morasses, and for a tenth part of this beautiful isle is become a repository for stagnated waters, which, in the course of evaporation, impregnate the air with noxious exhalations. * But, in many respects, the climate of Ireland is more agreeable than that of England; the summers being milder and the winters less severe. The piercing frosts, the deep snows, and the dreadful effects of thunder and lightning, which are so frequently observed in the latter kingdom, are never experienced here. The dampness above alluded to, being peculiarly favourable to the growth of grass, has been used as an argument why the inhabitants should direct their attention to the rearing of cattle, to the total desertion of agriculture, and consequent injury to the growth of population; but the soil is so infinitely various, as to be capable of almost every species of cultivation suitable to such latitude, with a fertility equal to its variety. This is so conspicuous, that it has been observed by a respectable English traveller, that "the natural fertility, acre for acre, over the two kingdoms, is certainly in favour of Ireland; of this there can scarcely be a doubt entertained, when it is considered that some of the more beauti-

* O'Connor's Dissertations.

ful, and even best cultivated counties in England, owe almost every thing to the capital art and industry of its inhabitants."

We shall conclude this article with the further sentiments of the same author (Mr. Young), whose knowledge of the subject, acquaintance with the kingdom, and candour, are unimpeachable.

"The circumstance which strikes me as the greatest singularity of Ireland, is the rockiness of the soil, which should seem at first sight against that degree of fertility; but the contrary is the fact. Stone is so general, that I have good reason to believe the whole island is one vast rock of different strata and kinds rising out of the sea. I have rarely heard of any great depths being sunk without meeting with it. In general it appears on the surface in every part of the kingdom; the flattest and most fertile parts, as Limerick, Tipperary, and Meath, have it at no great depth, almost as much as the more barren ones. May we not recognise in this the hand of bounteous providence, which has given, perhaps, the most stony soil in Europe to the moistest climate in it? If as much rain fell upon the clays in England (a soil very rarely met with in Ireland, and never without much stone), as falls upon the rocks of her sister island, those lands would not be cultivated. But the rocks here are clothed with verdure, and some of lime-stone, with only a thin covering of mould, have the softest and most beautiful turf imaginable.

"The rockiness of the soil in Ireland is so universal, that it predominates in every sort. One cannot use with propriety the terms clay, loam, sand, &c. it must be a stony clay, a stony loam, a gravelly sand. Clay, especially the yellow, is much talked of in Ireland; but it is for want of proper discrimination. I have once or twice seen almost a pure clay upon the surface; but it is extremely rare. The true yellow clay is usually found in a thin stratum, under the surface mould, and over a rock; harsh, tenacious, stony, strong loams, difficult to work, are not uncommon, but they are quite different from English clays.

"Friable sandy loams, dry, but fertile, are very common, and they form the best soils in the kingdom for tillage and sheep. Tipperary and Rosecommon abound particularly in them. The most fertile of all are the bullock-pastures of Limerick, and the banks of the Shannon in Clare, called the Corcaffes. These are a mellow, putrid, friable loam.

"Sand, which is so common in England, and yet more common through France, Germany, and Poland, being from Gibraltar to Petersburg, is nowhere met with in Ireland, except in narrow slips of hillocks, upon the sea-coast. Nor did I ever meet with or hear of a chalky soil.

"Besides the great fertility of the soil, there are other circumstances which come within my sphere to mention. Few countries can be better watered by large and beautiful rivers; and it is remarkable that by much the finest parts of the kingdom are on the banks of these rivers. Whiffers the Suir, Blackwater, and Liffey, the Boyne, the Nore, the Barrow and part of the Shannon; they wash a scenery that can hardly be exceeded. From the rockiness of the country, however, there are few of them that have not obstructions, which are great impediments to inland navigation.

"The mountains of Ireland give to travelling that interesting variety which a flat country can never abound with, and, at the same time, they are not in such number as to confer the character of poverty which usually attends them. I was either upon or very near the most considerable in the kingdom, Mangerton, and the Reeks in Kerry; the Galties in Cork; those of Mourne in Down; Crow-Patrick and Nephin,

Mayo; these are the principal in Ireland; and they are of a character in height and sublimity, which should render them the object of every traveller's attention. The soil, though rocky, is extremely fertile, perhaps beyond that of England itself, when properly cultivated. Pasture, tillage, and meadow ground abound in this kingdom; but of late tillage was too much discountenanced, though the ground is excellent for the culture of all grains; and in some of the northern parts of the kingdom, abundance of hemp and flax are raised, a cultivation of infinite advantage to the linen manufacture. Ireland rears vast numbers of black cattle and sheep, and the Irish wool is excellent. The prodigious supplies of butter and salt provisions (fish excepted) shipped at Cork, and carried to all parts of the world, afford the strongest proofs of the natural fertility of the Irish soil.

The bogs of Ireland are very extensive: that of Allen extends 80 miles, and is computed to contain 300,000 acres. There are others also which are very extensive, and smaller ones scattered over the whole kingdom; but it has been observed, that these are not in general more than are wanted for fuel.

RIVERS, BAYS, HARBOURS, }
AND LAKES. }

The numerous rivers, enchanting lakes, spacious bays, commodious havens, harbours, and creeks, with which Ireland abounds, greatly enrich and beautify this country. The Shannon issues from Lough Allen, in the county of Leitrim, serves as a boundary between Connaught and the three other provinces, and, after a course of 150 miles, forming in its progress many beautiful lakes, it falls into the Atlantic Ocean, between Kerry point and Loop-head, where it is nine miles broad. The navigation of this river is interrupted by a ridge of rocks spreading quite across it, south of Killaloe; but this might be remedied by a short canal, at the expense of 10 or 12,000l. and communication might also be made with other rivers, to the great benefit of the nation. The Ban falls into the ocean near Coleraine; the Boyne falls into St. George's Channel at Drogheda, as does the Liffey at the bay of Dublin, and is only remarkable for watering that capital, where it forms a spacious harbour. The Barrow, the Nore, and the Suir, water the south part of the kingdom, and, after uniting their streams below Ros, they fall into the Channel at Waterford haven.

But the bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which every where indent the coast, form the chief glory of Ireland, and tender that country beyond any country in Europe best fitted for foreign commerce. The most considerable are those of Carrickfergus, Strangford, Dundrum, Carlingford, Dundalk, Dublin, Waterford, Dungarvan, Cork, Kinsale, Baltimore, Glandore, Dunmanus, Bantry, Kenmare, Dingle, Shannonmouth, Sligo, Donegall, Killebegs, Lough-Swilly, and Lough-Foyle. Ireland contains a vast number of lakes, or, as they were formerly called, loughs, particularly in the provinces of Ulster and Connaught. Many of them produce large quantities of fine fish; and the great lake Lough Neagh, between the counties of Antrim, Down, and Armagh, is remarkable for its petrifying quality. Some of the Irish lakes afford the most beautiful and romantic prospects, particularly that of Killarney, which takes its name from a small town in the county of Kerry. This lake, which may be divided into three, is entirely surrounded with mountains, rocks, and precipices, the immense declivities of which are covered with woods, intermixed with ever-greens, from near their tops the lakes themselves; among which are a number of rivulets tumbling over the precipices, some from heights of little less than 300 feet.

On the top of one of the surrounding mountains in a small round lake about a quarter of a mile in diameter, called the Devil's Punch Bowl. From the surface of the lake to the top of the cavity, or brim of the bowl, may be about 300 yards; and when viewed from the circular top, it has a most astonishing appearance. The depth of it is vastly great, but not unfathomable, as the natives pretend. The discharge of the superfluous waters of this bowl, through a chasm into the middle lake, forms one of the finest cascades in the world, visible for 150 yards. The echoes among the hills surrounding the southern parts of the lake, which is mostly inclosed, are equally delightful and astonishing. The proprietor, the earl of Kenmare, has placed some cannon in the most proper places, for the amusement of travellers; and the discharge of these pieces is tremendous, resembling most the rolling of a violent peal of thunder, which seems to travel the surrounding scenery, and die away among the distant mountains. Here also musical instruments, especially the horn and trumpet, afford the most delightful entertainment, and raise a concert superior to that of a hundred performers. Among the vast and craggy heights that surround the lake, is one stupendous and frightful rock, the front of which towards the water is a most horrid precipice, called the *eagle's nest*, from the number of those birds which have their nests in that place.

[INLAND NAVIGATION.] The inland navigation of Ireland is very improvable, as appears from the canals that have lately been cut through different parts of the kingdom; one in particular, reaching an extent of 60 miles, between the Shannon and the Liffey at Dublin, which opens a communication from the Channel to the Atlantic Ocean. In surveying the grounds for this canal, it was found necessary to carry it through a bog 24 miles over, which, from the spongy nature of that soil, became a work of incredible labour and expence, in strengthening the sides, and other works, to prevent falling in.

[MOUNTAINS.] The Irish language had been more happy in distinguishing the size of mountains than perhaps any other. A *knock* signifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence; *slieve* marks a craggy high mountain, gradually ascending and continued in several ridges; a *bienn* or *binn* signifies a pinnacle, or mountain of the first magnitude, ending in a sharp or abrupt precipice. The two last are often seen and compounded together in one and the same range. Ireland, however, when compared with some other countries, is far from being mountainous. The mountains of Mourne and Iveagh, in the county of Down, are reckoned among some of the highest in the kingdom; of which Slieu Denard has been calculated at a perpendicular height of 1056 yards. Many other mountains are found in Ireland; but they contain little or nothing particular, if we except the fabulous histories that are annexed to some of them. Some of these mountains contain in their bowels, beds of minerals, coals, stone, slate, and marble, with veins of iron, lead, and copper.

[FORESTS.] The chief forests in Ireland lie in Leinster, the King and Queen's counties, and those of Wexford and Carlow. In Ulster there are great forests, as in the county of Donegall, and in the north part of Tyrone; also in the county of Fermanagh, along Lough Earne, and in the north part of the county of Down, wherein is found good timber; and the oak is esteemed as good as any of the English growth, and as fit for ship-building.

[METALS AND MINERALS.] The mines of Ireland are late discoveries. Several contain silver and lead; and it is said that thirty pounds

of their lead-ore produce a pound of silver; but the richest silver mine is at Wicklow; where some gold-ore has likewise been discovered, but it does not seem likely to prove very productive. A copper and lead mine have been discovered at Tipperary; as likewise iron-ore, and excellent free-stone for building. In one part of the kingdom is a stream of water, very much impregnated with copper, which yields great quantities of that metal. The method taken to obtain it, is by putting broad plates of iron into a place where the water falls from some height, so that they may receive the whole power of the falling water. The acid, which holds the copper in solution, lets it fall in order to dissolve the iron, to which it has a stronger affinity. On the iron the other metal appears in its proper form, incrusting the plate, and gradually penetrating it; so that at last a plate of copper is left instead of iron. Hence, it is said by the vulgar, that this water has a power of changing iron into copper; but this is a mistake; for the iron is all dissolved and carried down the stream by the acid, which formerly held the copper in solution; while the latter, deprived of its solvent, which then rendered it invisible, only makes its appearance when the water lets it fall. Some of the Irish marble quarries contain a kind of porphyry, being red striped with white. Quarries of fine slate are found in most of the counties. The coals that are dug at Kilkenny emit very little smoke; and it contains a crystalline stream which has no sediment. Those peculiarities, with the serenity of the air in that place, have given rise to the well-known proverb, That Kilkenny contains fire without smoke, water without mud, and air without fog.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.

There is little that falls under this head that is peculiar to Ireland, her productions being much the same as those of England and Scotland. Ireland affords excellent turf and moss, which are of vast service for firing, where wood and coals are scarce. A few wolves were formerly found in Ireland; but they have long since been exterminated by their wolf-dogs, which are much larger than mastiffs, shaped like greyhounds, yet as gentle and governable as spaniels. What I have already observed about the Irish exportation of salt provisions, sufficiently evinces the prodigious numbers of hogs and sheep, as well as black cattle, bred in that kingdom. Rabbits are said to be more plentiful there than in England. The fish that are caught upon the coasts of Ireland are likewise in greater plenty than on those of England, and some of them larger and more excellent in their kind.

At the commencement of the present century, the number of inhabitants in Ireland was thought to be about two millions; whereas, in 1672, there were, according to sir William Petty, no more than 1,100,000. But from the accounts laid before the house of commons in 1786 (as returned by the hearth-money collectors), the number of houses in Ireland amounted to 474,234. If we add to this the probable increase since, and allow for the numbers intentionally or unavoidably overlooked in such returns, we may reasonably conclude that the present actual amount is 500,000.

We are next to consider what average number of persons we should allow to each house. In the peasants' cottages in Ireland (perhaps the most populous in the world), Mr. Young in some parts found the average 6 and $6\frac{1}{2}$; others have found it in different places to be 7; and Dr. Hamilton, in his account of the island of Raghery, enumerates the houses, and discovered the average therein to be 8. In the cities and principal towns, the houses, particularly in the manufacturing parts,

generally contain several families; and from different accounts, the numbers in such are from 10 up so high as 70*.

From these *data*, then, it will not perhaps be erroneous, if we fix the average for the whole island at 8 persons to each house; which, multiplied by the number of houses, makes the population of Ireland amount to four millions.

As to the manners of the ancient Irish, Dr. Leland observes, that if we make our inquiries on this subject in English writers, we find their representations odious and disgusting: if from writers of their own race, they frequently break out into the most animated encomiums of their great ancestors. The one can scarcely allow them any virtue: the other, in their enthusiastic ardour, can scarcely discover the least imperfection in their laws, government, or manners. The historian of England sometimes regards them as the most detestable and contemptible of the human race. The antiquary of Ireland raises them to an illustrious eminence above all other European countries. Yet when we examine their records, without regard to legendary tales or poetic fictions, we find them, even in their most brilliant periods, advanced only to an imperfect civilisation; a state which exhibits the most striking instances both of the virtues and the vices of humanity.

With respect to the present descendants of the old Irish, or, as they are termed by the protestants, the *mere Irish*, they are generally represented as an ignorant, uncivilised, and blundering sort of people. Impatient of abuse and injury, they are implacable and violent in all their affections; but quick of apprehension, courteous to strangers, and patient of hardship. Though in these respects there is, perhaps, little difference between them and the more uninformed part of their neighbours, yet their barbarisms are more easy to be accounted for, from accidental than natural causes. By far the greater number of them are papists, and it is the interest of their priests, who govern them with absolute sway, to keep them in the most profound ignorance. They have also laboured under many discouragements, which in their own country have prevented the exertion both of their mental and bodily faculties; but when employed in the service of foreign princes, they have been distinguished for intrepidity, courage, and fidelity. Many of their surnames have an *O*, or *Mac*, placed before them, which signify grandson and son; formerly the *O* was used by their chiefs only, or such as piqued themselves on the antiquity of their families. Their music is the bagpipe, but their tunes are generally of a melancholy strain; though some of their latest airs are lively, and, when sung by an Irishman, are extremely diverting. The old Irish is generally spoken in the interior parts of the kingdom, where some of the old uncouth customs still prevail, particularly their funeral howlings; but this custom may be traced in many countries of the continent. Their custom of placing a dead corpse before their doors, laid out upon tables, having a plate upon the body to excite the charity of passengers, is practised even in the skirts of Dublin, though one would wish to see it abolished. Their convivial meetings on Sunday afternoon, with dancing to the bagpipe, and more often quarrelling among themselves, is offensive to every stranger. But, as we have already observed, these customs are chiefly confined to the more unpolished provinces of the kingdom, particularly Con-

* Dr. Tisdal enumerated the inhabitants of two parishes in Dublin, in 1731, and averaged the number in each house at 12½. The numbers varied from 10 to 70. Phil. Surv. of South of Ireland.

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naught; the common people there having the least sense of law and government of any in Ireland, excepting their tyrannical landlords or leaseholders, who squeeze the poor without mercy. The common Irish, in their manner of living, seem to resemble the ancient Britons, as described by Roman authors, or the present Indian inhabitants of America. Mean huts or cabins built of clay and straw, partitioned in the middle by a wall of the same materials, serve the double purposes of accommodating the family, who live and sleep promiscuously, having their fires of turf in the middle of the floor, with an opening through the roof for a chimney; the other being occupied by a cow, or such pieces of furniture as are not in immediate use.

Their wealth consists of a cow, sometimes a horse, some poultry, and a spot for potatoes. Coarse bread, potatoes, eggs, milk, and sometimes fish, constitute their food; for, however plentifully the fields may be stocked with cattle, these poor natives seldom taste butchers' meat of any kind. Their children, plump, robust, and hearty, scarcely know the use of clothes, and are not ashamed to appear naked in the roads and gaze upon strangers.

In this idle and deplorable state, many thousands have been lost to the community and to themselves, who, if they had but an equal chance with their neighbours, of being instructed in the real principles of Christianity, and been inured and encouraged to industry and labour, would have added considerable strength to government.

The descendants of the English and Scots, since the conquest of Ireland by Henry II. though not the most numerous, form the wealthiest part of the nation. Of these are most of the nobility, gentry, and principal traders, who inhabit the eastern and northern coasts, where most of the trade of Ireland is carried on, especially Belfast, Londonderry, and other parts of the province of Ulster, which, though the poorest soil, is, next to Dublin and its neighbourhood, by far the best cultivated and most flourishing part of the kingdom. Here a colony of Scots in the reign of James I. and other presbyterians who fled from persecution in that country in the succeeding reigns, planted themselves, and established that great staple of Irish wealth, the linen manufacture, which they have since carried on and brought to the utmost perfection. From this short review, it appears, that the present inhabitants are composed of three distinct classes of people; the old Irish, poor, ignorant, and depressed, who inhabit, or rather exist upon, the interior and western parts; the descendants of the English, who inhabit Dublin, Waterford, and Cork, and who gave a new appearance to the whole coast facing England, by the introduction of arts, commerce, science, and more liberal and cultivated ideas of the true God and primitive Christianity; thirdly, emigrants from Scotland in the northern provinces, who, like the others, are so zealously attached to their own religion and manner of living, that it will require some ages before the inhabitants of Ireland are so thoroughly consolidated and blended as to become one people. The gentry, and better sort of the Irish nation, in general differ little in language, dress, manners, and customs, from those of the same rank in Great Britain, whom they imitate. Their hospitality is well known; but in this they are sometimes suspected of more ostentation than real friendship.

RELIGION.] The established religion and ecclesiastical discipline of Ireland is the same with that of England. Among the bulk of the people in the most uncultivated parts, popery, and that too of the most absurd, illiberal kind, is prevalent. The Irish papists still retain their nominal

bishops and dignitaries, who subsist on the voluntary contributions of their votaries. But even the blind submission of the latter to their clergy does not prevent protestantism from making a very rapid progress in the towns and communities. How far it may be the interest of England, that some kind of balance between the two religions should be kept up, I shall not here inquire.

Ireland contains at least as many sectaries as England, particularly presbyterians, baptists, quakers, and methodists, who are all of them connived at or tolerated. Great efforts have been made, ever since the days of James I. in erecting free-schools for civilising and converting the Irish papists to protestantism. The institution of the incorporated society for promoting English protestant working-schools, though of no older date than 1717, has been amazingly successful, as have been many institutions of the same kind, in introducing industry and knowledge among the Irish.

ARCHBISHOPRICKS AND BISHOPRICKS.] The archbishopricks are four; Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam.

The bishopricks are eighteen, viz. Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Killala, Kilmore, Killaloe, Leighlin, Limerick, Meath, Ossory, Raphoe, and Waterford.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the Irish is fundamentally the same with the British and Welch, and a dialect of the Celtic, which is made use of by the Scotch Highlanders, opposite the Irish coast. It is, however, in a great measure defaced by provincial alterations, but not so altered as to render the Irish, Welch, and Highlanders, unintelligible to each other. The usage of the Irish language occasions among the common people, who speak both that and the English, a disagreeable tone in speaking, which diffuses itself among the vulgar in general, and even among the better sort who do not understand Irish. It is probable, that a few ages hence the latter will be accounted among the dead languages.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Learning seems to have been cultivated in Ireland at a very early period. Mr. O'Halloran says, that the Irish "appear to have been, from the most remote antiquity, a polished people, and that with propriety they may be called the father of letters." We are even told that Egypt received arts and letters from Niulus the Phœnician, who is represented as the great ancestor of the Irish nation. But certainly no literary monuments have yet been discovered in Ireland earlier than the introduction of Christianity into this country; and the evidence of any transaction, previous to this period, rests entirely on the credit of Christian writers, and their collections from old poets, or their transcripts of records deemed to have been made in the times of paganism.

It is said, that when St. Patrick * landed in Ireland, he found many holy and learned Christian preachers there, whose votaries were pious and obedient. Camden observes, that, "the Irish scholars of St. Patrick profited so notably in Christianity, that, in the succeeding ages, Ireland was termed *Sanctorum Patria*. Their monks so greatly excelled in learning and piety, that they sent whole flocks of most learned men into all parts of Europe, who were the first founders of Lieux abbey, in Burgundy; of the abbey Bobie, in Italy; of Wirtzburg

* It has been affirmed, that St. Patrick was a Scotchman; but Mr. O'Halloran denies this, and says that "it appears from the most authentic records, that Patrick was born in Wales."

in Franconia; St. Gall, in Switzerland; and of Malsbury, Lindisfarran, and many other monasteries, in Britain." We have also the testimony of venerable Bede, that, about the middle of the seventh century, many nobles, and other orders of the Anglo-Saxons, retired from their own country into Ireland, either for instruction, or for an opportunity of living in monasteries of stricter discipline; and that the Scots (as he styles the Irish) maintained them, taught them, and furnished them with books, without fee or reward: "a most honourable testimony," says lord Lyttleton, "not only to the learning, but likewise to the hospitality and bounty of that nation." Dr. Leland remarks, that a conflux of foreigners to a retired island, at a time when Europe was in ignorance and confusion, gave peculiar lustre to this seat of learning: nor is it improbable or surprising, that seven thousand students studied at Armagh, agreeable to the accounts of Irish writers, though the seminary of Armagh was but one of those numerous colleges erected in Ireland.

In modern times, the Irish have also distinguished themselves in the republic of letters. Archbishop Usher does honour to literature itself, Dean Swift, who was a native of Ireland, has perhaps never been equalled in the walks of wit, humour, and satire. The sprightliness of Farquhar's wit is well known to all lovers of the drama. And among the men of distinguished genius whom Ireland has lately produced, may also be particularly mentioned sir Richard Steele, bishop Berkeley, Parnell, Sterne, and Goldsmith.

[UNIVERSITY.] Ireland contains but one university, which is denominated Trinity-college. It consists of two squares, in the whole of which are thirty-three buildings, of eight rooms each. Three sides of one of the squares are of brick, and the fourth is a very superb library; but being built of bad stone, it is unfortunately mouldering away. The outside is beautiful and commodious, and embellished with the busts of several ancient and modern worthies. A great part of the books on one side were collected by archbishop Usher, who was one of the original members of this body, and the most learned man it ever produced. The new square, three sides of which have been built within about twenty years, by parliamentary bounty, and from thence called Parliament-square, is of hewn stone; and the front of it next the city of Dublin, is ornamented with pilasters, festoons, &c. The provost's house has an elegant little front, entirely of Portland stone. The chapel is a very mean structure, as is also the old hall, wherein college exercises are performed; but the new hall, in which the members of the college dine, is a fair and large room. In their museum, is a set of figures in wax, representing females in every state of pregnancy. They are done upon real skeletons, and are the labours of almost the whole life of a French artist.

This seminary was founded and endowed by queen Elizabeth; but the original foundation consisted only of a provost, three fellows, and three scholars; which has from time to time been augmented to twenty-two fellows, seventy scholars, and thirty sizers. However, the whole number of students is at present about four hundred; who are of three classes, fellow-commoners, pensioners, and sizers or servitors. Of the fellows, several are called seniors; and the annual income of each of these is about seven hundred pounds. The provostship is supposed to be worth three thousand pounds a year. Trinity-college has a power of conferring degrees of bachelors, masters, and doctors, in all the arts and faculties. The visitors are, the chancellor or vice-chancellor, and the archbishop of Dublin.

but Mr. O'Halloran records, that Patrick

ANTIQUEITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The wolf-dogs of Ireland have
 NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } already been mentioned. The
 Irish goshawks and gerfalcons are celebrated for their shape and beauty. The moose-deer is thought to have been formerly a native of this island, their horns being sometimes dug up of so great a size, that one pair has been found near eleven feet from the tip of the right horn to the tip of the left; but the greatest natural curiosity in Ireland is the Giants' Causeway in the county of Antrim, about eight miles from Colerain, which is thus described by Dr. Pococke, late bishop of Ossory, a celebrated traveller and antiquary. He says, "that he measured the most westerly point at high water, to the distance of 360 feet from the cliff; but he was told, that at low water it extended 60 feet farther upon a descent, till it was lost in the sea. Upon measuring the eastern point, he found it 540 feet from the cliff; and saw as much more of it as of the other, where it winds to the east, and is, like that, lost in the water.

"The causeway is composed of pillars, all of angular shapes, from three sides to eight. The eastern point, where it joins the rock, terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright sides of the pillars, some of which are thirty-three feet four inches high. Each pillar consists of several joints or stones, lying one upon another, from six inches to about one foot in thickness; and, what is very surprising, some of these joints are so convex, that their prominences are nearly quarters of spheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the greatest firmness, every stone being concave on the other side, and sitting in the exactest manner the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally consist of about forty joints, most of which separate very easily; and one may walk along upon the tops of the pillars as far as to the edge of the water.

"But this is not the most singular part of this extraordinary curiosity, the cliffs themselves being still more surprising. From the bottom, which is of black stone, to the height of about sixty feet, they are divided at equal distances by stripes of a reddish stone, that resembles a cement, about four inches in thickness; upon this there is another stratum of the same black stone, with a stratum of five inches thick of the red. Over this is another stratum ten feet thick, divided in the same manner; then a stratum of the red stone twenty feet deep, and above that a stratum of upright pillars; above these pillars lies another stratum of black stone, twenty feet high; and, above this again, another stratum of upright pillars, rising in some places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not so high, and in others again above it, where they are called the *skinnneys*. The face of these cliffs extends about three English miles.

The cavities, the romantic prospects, cataracts, and other pleasing and uncommon natural objects to be met with in Ireland, are too numerous to be called rarities; and several pamphlets have been employed in describing them. As to the artificial rarities in Ireland, the chief are the round Pharos, or stone towers, found upon the coasts, and supposed to be built by the Danes and Norwegians in their piratical incursions, who made use of them as spy-towers or barbicans, light-houses or beacons.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER } Dublin, the capital of Ire-
 EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } land, is, in magnitude and
 the number of inhabitants, the second city in the British dominions, much about the size of Stockholm, Copenhagen, Berlin, and Marseilles, and is supposed to contain near 200,000 inhabitants. It is situated at

miles northwest of London, and near sixty miles west from Holyhead in North Wales, the usual station of the passage-vessels between Great Britain and Ireland. Dublin stands about seven miles from the sea, at the bottom of a large and spacious bay, to which it gives name, upon the river Liffey, which divides it almost into two equal parts, and is banked in through the whole length of the city on both sides, which form spacious and noble quays, where vessels below the first bridge load and unload before the merchants' doors and warehouses. A stranger, upon entering the bay of Dublin, which is about seven miles broad, and in stormy weather extremely dangerous; is agreeably surpris'd with the beautiful prospect on each side, and the distant view of Wicklow mountains; but Dublin, from its low situation, makes no great appearance. The increase of Dublin within these last twenty years is incredible; and it is generally supposed that 7000 houses have been added to the city and suburbs since the reign of queen Anne. The number of houses in the year 1777, was 17,151, and there have been many new buildings erected since. This city, in its appearance, bears a near resemblance to London. The houses are of brick; the old streets are narrow and mean, but the new streets are as elegant as those of the metropolis of Great Britain. Sackville-street, which is sometimes called the Mall, is particularly noble. The houses are elegant, lofty, and uniformly built, and a gravel walk runs through the whole at an equal distance from the sides.

The river Liffey, though navigable for sea vessels as far as the custom-house, or centre of the city, is but small, when compared with the Thames at London. Over it are two handsome bridges, lately built, of stone, in imitation of that at Westminster, and there are three others that have little to recommend them. Formerly the centre of Dublin, toward the custom-house, was crowded and inconvenient for commercial purposes; but of late a new street has been opened, leading from Essex bridge to the castle, where the lord-lieutenant resides. A new exchange has been lately erected, an elegant structure of white stone, richly embellished with semi-columns of the Corinthian order, a cupola, and other ornaments.

The barracks are pleasantly situated on an eminence near the river. They consist of four large courts, in which are generally quartered four battalions of foot, and one regiment of horse; from hence the castle and city guards are relieved daily. They are said to be the largest and completest building of the kind in Europe, being capable of containing 3000 foot, and 1000 horse.

The linen-hall was erected at the public expence, and opened in the year 1728, for the reception of such linen cloths as were brought to Dublin for sale, for which there are convenient apartments. It is entirely under the direction of the trustees for the encouragement of the linen manufactory of Ireland, who are composed of the lord chancellor, the primate, the archbishop of Dublin, and the principal part of the nobility and gentry. This national institution is productive of great advantage, by preventing many frauds which otherwise would be committed in a capital branch of trade, by which many thousands are employed, and the kingdom greatly enriched.

Stephen's Green is a most extensive square, round which is a gravel walk of near a mile. Here genteel company walk in the evenings, and on Sundays after two o'clock, and in fine weather make a very gay appearance. Many of the houses round the green are very stately; but a want of uniformity is observable throughout the whole. Ample amends

will be made for this defect by another spacious square near Stephen's Green, now laid out and partly built. The houses being lofty, uniform, and carried on with stone as far as the first floor, will give the whole an air of magnificence, not exceeded by any thing of the kind in Britain, if we except Bath. The front of Trinity-college, extending above 300 feet, is built of Portland stone in the finest taste.

The parliament house was begun in 1729, and finished in 1739, at the expence of 40,000*l*. This superb pile was in general of the Ionic order, and was justly accounted one of the foremost architectural beauties. The portico in particular was, perhaps, without parallel; the internal parts had also many beauties, and the manner in which the building was lighted has been much admired. This superb building, on the 27th of February 1792, was observed to be in flames, about five o'clock in the afternoon, when the house of lords, as well as the commons, was sitting, and in full debate. When the alarm was given, one of the members made his way to the roof, and looking down into the house from one of the ventilators, confirmed the apprehensions of those within, by saying the dome was surrounded by fire, and would tumble into the house in five minutes. The volume of fire, by which the dome was surrounded, soon made apertures on all sides, by melting the copper from the wood-work, and thus exhibiting the cavity of the dome filled with flames like a large furnace, which at about half past six tumbled into the house with one great crash. The valuable library, and all the papers of importance, were saved.

But one of the greatest and most laudable undertakings that this age can boast of, is the building of a stone wall about the breadth of a moderate street, and of a proportionable height, and three miles in length, to confine the channel of the bay, and to shelter vessels in stormy weather.

The civil government of Dublin is by a lord-mayor, &c. the same as in London. Every third year, the lord-mayor, and the twenty-four companies, by virtue of an old charter, are obliged to perambulate the city, and its liberties, which they call riding the Franchises. Upon this occasion the citizens vie with each other in show and ostentation, which is sometimes productive of disagreeable consequences to many of their families. In Dublin there are two large theatres, that are generally well filled, and which serve as a kind of nursery to those in London. In this city are eighteen parish-churches, eight chapels, three churches for French and one for Dutch protestants, seven presbyterian meeting-houses, two for methodists, two for quakers, and sixteen Roman catholic chapels. A royal hospital, like that at Chelsea, for invalids; a lying-in hospital, with gardens, built and laid out in the finest taste; an hospital for lunatics founded by the famous Dean Swift, who himself died a lunatic; and sundry other hospitals for patients of every description. Some of the churches have been lately rebuilt, and others are rebuilding, in a more elegant manner. And, indeed, whatever way a stranger turns himself in this city, he will perceive a spirit of elegance and magnificence; and if he extends his view over the whole kingdom, he will conclude the works of ornament and public utility in Ireland almost keep pace with those erecting, great as they are, over the different parts of Great Britain. For it must be acknowledged that no nation in Europe, comparatively speaking, has expended such sums as the grants of the Irish parliament; witness the many noble erections, churches, hospitals, bridges; the forming of harbours, public roads, canals, and other public and private undertakings.

It has, however, been matter of surprize, that, with all this spirit of national improvement, few or no good inns are to be met with in Ireland. In the capital, which may be classed among the second order of cities of Europe, there is not one inn which deserves that name. This may, in some measure, be accounted for, by the long and sometimes dangerous passage from Chester and Holyhead to Ireland, which prevents the gentry of England, with their families, from visiting that island; but as it is now proposed to make turnpike roads to Portpatrick in Scotland, from whence the passage is short and safe, the roads of Ireland may, by this means, become more frequented, especially when the rural beauties of that kingdom are more generally known. For though, in England, France, and Italy, a traveller meets with views the most luxuriant and rich, he is sometimes cloyed with a sameness that runs through the whole; but in those countries of North Britain and Ireland, the rugged mountains, whose tops look down upon the clouds, the extensive lakes, enriched with bushy islands, the cavities, glens, cataracts, the numerous feathered creation, hopping from cliff to cliff, and other pleasing and uncommon natural objects, that frequently present themselves in various forms and shapes, have a wonderful effect upon the imagination, and are pleasing to the fancy of every admirer of nature, however rough and unadorned with artificial beauties.

Cork is deservedly reckoned the second city in Ireland, in magnitude, riches, and commerce. It lies 129 miles south-west of Dublin, and contains above 8500 houses. Its haven is deep, and well sheltered from all winds; but small vessels only can come up to the city, which stands about seven miles up the river Lee. This is the chief port of merchants in the kingdom; and there is, perhaps, more beef, tallow, and butter shipped off here, than in all the other ports of Ireland put together. Hence there is a great resort of ships to this port, particularly of those bound from Great Britain to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and all the Caribbee islands, which put in here to victual and complete their lading. It appears, that in the reign of Edward IV. there were 11 churches in Cork, though there are now only seven, and yet it has ever since that time been esteemed a thriving city: but it must be observed, that, besides the churches, there are at this time six mass-houses, two dissenting meeting-houses, another for quakers, and a chapel for French protestants. Kinsale is a populous and strong town, with an excellent harbour, and considerable commerce and shipping; and it is, moreover, occasionally a situation for the navy royal; for which end this port is furnished with proper naval officers and storekeepers. Waterford is reckoned next to Cork for riches and shipping, and contains 2561 houses. It is commanded by Duncannon Fort, and on the west side of the town is a citadel. Limerick is a handsome, populous, commercial, strong city; it lies on both sides the Shannon, and contains 5257 houses.

Belfast is a large sea-port and trading town at the mouth of the Lagan water, where it falls into Carrickfergus Bay. Downpatrick has a flourishing linen manufacture. Carrickfergus (or Knockfergus), by some esteemed the capital town of the province, has a good harbour and castle, but little commerce. Derry (or Londonderry, as it is most usually called), stands on Lough-Foyl, is a strong little city, having linen manufactures, with some shipping. All this extreme north part of Ireland is situated so near to Scotland, that they are in sight of each other's coasts. Donegall, the county-town of the same name (otherwise called the county of Tyrconnel), is a place of some trade; as is likewise Enniskilling. All which last mentioned places, and many more (though less

considerable ones), are chiefly and mostly industriously employed in the manufacturing of linen and linen thread, to the benefit of the whole kingdom, which, by its vast annual exportations of linen into England, is enabled to pay for the great annual importations from England into Ireland; and likewise to render the money constantly drawn from Ireland into England, by her absentees, less grievous to her.

Though Ireland contains no strong places, according to the modern improvements in fortification, yet it has several forts and garrisons, that serve as comfortable sinecures to military officers. The chief are Londonderry, and Culmore Fort, Cork, Limerick, Kinsale, Duncannon, Ross-Castle, Dublin, Charlemont, Galway, Carrickfergus, Maryborough, and Athlone. Each of these forts is furnished with deputy-governors, under various denominations, who have pecuniary provisions from the government.

It cannot be pretended, that Ireland is as yet furnished with any public edifices, to compare with those to be found in countries where sovereigns and their courts reside; but it has some elegant public buildings, which do honour to the taste and public spirit of the inhabitants. The castle, Essex-bridge, and several edifices about Dublin, already mentioned, are magnificent and elegant pieces of architecture; and many noble Gothic churches, and other buildings, are to be seen in Ireland.

The Irish nobility, and gentry of fortune, now vie with those of England in the magnificent structure of their houses, and the elegance of their ornaments; but it would be unjust, where there are so many equal in taste and magnificence, to particularise any. In speaking of the public buildings of this kingdom, I must not forget the numerous barracks where the soldiers are lodged, equally to the east and convenience of the inhabitants.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] What I have said of England under this head, is in a great measure applicable to Ireland. Her exports are linen cloth, yarn, lawns, and cambrics, horses, and black cattle, beef, porks, green hides, tanned leather, calf-skins dried, tallow, butter, candles, cheese, ox and cow-horns, ox-hair, horse-hair, lead, copper-ore, herrings, dried fish, rabbit-skins and fur, oter-skins, goat-skins, salmon, and some other particulars; but it is probable that the exports of Ireland will be greatly increased by the late laws passed in favour of the trade of that kingdom. It is certain that the Irish have carried their inland manufactures, even those of luxury, to a considerable height, and that their lord-licutenants and their courts have of late encouraged them by their examples; and, while they are in that government, make use of no other.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] The Dublin Society for the encouragement of manufactures and commerce, was incorporated in 1750. The linen-hall, erected at Dublin, is under as just and nice regulations as any commercial house in Europe.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Ireland formerly was only entitled the dominion or lordship of Ireland, and the king's style was no other than Dominus Hiberniæ, lord of Ireland, 'till the 33d year of king Henry VIII. when he assumed the title of king, which is recognised by act of parliament in the same reign. But as England and Scotland are now one and the same kingdom, and yet differ in their municipal laws; so England and Ireland are distinct kingdoms, and yet in general agree in their laws. For, after the conquest of Ireland by king Henry II. the laws of England were received and sworn to by the Irish nation, assembled at the council of Lismore. And as Ireland, thus conquered, plant-

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ed, and governed, continued in a state of dependence, it was thought necessary that it should conform to, and be obliged by, such laws as the superior state thought proper to prescribe.

But this state of dependence being almost forgotten, and ready to be disputed by the Irish nation, it was thought necessary some years ago to declare how that matter stood: and therefore, by statute 6th of George I. it was declared, "that the kingdom of Ireland ought to be subordinate to, and dependent upon, the imperial crown of Great Britain; as being inseparably united thereto; and that the king's majesty, with the consent of the lords and commons of Great Britain in parliament, hath power to make laws to bind the people of Ireland." This determination of the British parliament; however, occasioned much dissatisfaction among the Irish, who at length, after many struggles, feeling their own strength by means of their volunteer associations, and encouraged and favoured by the several parties contending for the administration in England, the Irish obtained in the year 1782, a formal repeal of the above galling statute, which was considered as a renunciation on the part of the parliament of Great Britain of every claim of legislation over Ireland.

The constitution of the Irish government, as it stands at present, with regard to distributive justice, is nearly the same with that of England. A chief governor, who generally goes by the name of lord-lieutenant, is sent over from England by the king, whom he represents; but his power is in some measure restrained, and in others enlarged, according to the king's pleasure, or the exigency of the times. On his entering upon this honourable office, his letters patent are publicly read in the council-chamber; and having taken the usual oaths before the lord chancellor, the sword, which is to be carried before him, is delivered into his hands, and he is seated in the chair of state, attended by the lord chancellor, the members of the privy-council, the peers and nobles, the king at arms, a serjeant at mace, and other officers of state; and he never appears publicly without being attended by a body of horse-guards. Hence, with respect to his authority, his train, and splendor, there is no viceroy in Christendom that comes nearer to the grandeur and majesty of a king. He has a council composed of the great officers of the crown; namely, the chancellor, treasurer, and such of the archbishops, bishops, earls, barons, judges, and gentlemen, as his majesty is pleased to appoint. The parliament here, as well as in England, is the supreme court, which is convened by the king's writ, and generally sits once every year. It consists, as in England, of a house of lords, and commons. Of the former, many are English or British peers, or commons of Great Britain; a few are papists, who cannot sit without being properly qualified; and the number of commons amounts to about three hundred. Since the accession of his present majesty, Irish parliaments have been rendered ostentatious. The representation of the people in the senate of Ireland is, in many instances, like that of England, partial and inadequate. As long as a majority of the commons is composed of members for insignificant boroughs, and where a few individuals are devoted to the selfish or imperious will of a still smaller number of lords or absolute grandees, a spirit of venality must pervade the political system through all the departments of state, corrupt the representatives, and destroy the freedom of the legislative body. If parliaments were still more limited in their duration, it would be better for the public, and greatly promote national prosperity. The laws are made by the houses of lords and commons, after which they are sent to England for the royal approbation;

when, if approved of by his majesty and council, they pass the great seal of England, and are returned.

For the regular distribution of justice, there are in Ireland four terms held annually for the decision of causes; and four courts of justice, the chancery, king's bench, common-pleas, and exchequer. The high sheriffs of the several counties were formerly chosen by the people, but are now nominated by the lord-lieutenant. From this general view, it appears that the civil and ecclesiastical institutions are almost the same in Ireland as in England.

[REVENUES.] In Ireland the public revenue arises from hereditary and temporary duties, of which the king is the trustee, for applying it to particular purposes: but there is, besides this, a private revenue arising from the ancient demesne lands, from forfeitures for treason and felony, piracy of wines, light-house duties, and a small part of the casual revenue, not granted by parliament; and in this the crown has the same unlimited property that a subject has in his own freehold. The extent of that revenue is perhaps a secret to the public.

The revenue of Ireland is supposed at present to exceed half a million sterling, of which the Irish complain greatly and justly, that about 70,000*l.* is granted in pensions, and a great part to absentees. Very large sums are also granted by their own parliament for more valuable purposes, the improvement of their country and civilising the people; such as the inland navigation, bridges, highways, churches, premiums, protestant schools, and other particulars, which do honour to the wisdom and patriotism of that parliament.

[COINS.] The coins of Ireland are at present of the same denominations and the like fabric with those of England, only an English shilling passes in Ireland for thirteen pence. What the ancient coins of the Irish were, is at present a matter of mere curiosity and great uncertainty.

[MILITARY STRENGTH.] Ireland now maintains and pays a considerable body of troops, who have been often of singular service to England; and the military force of Ireland was at one time greatly increased by the many volunteer associated companies, which were formed in that kingdom, but have been lately suppressed by act of parliament. Those parts of Ireland that are most uncultivated, contain numbers of inhabitants that have very little sense either of divine or human laws, and regular forces are absolutely necessary for keeping them in order; witness the late insurrections of the Whiteboys, and other banditti, who were instigated by their priests; though it must be confessed, that many of the common people in Ireland have laboured under such oppressions as afforded them just grounds for discontent. It does not however appear, that the bulk of the Irish catholics are fond of a revolution in government, as few or none of them joined Thurot in his descent upon Carrickfergus, or took any part with the Pretender in the last rebellion.

[ORDER OF ST. PATRICK.] This order was instituted February 5, and the installation of the first knights was performed on the 17th of March, 1783. It consists of the sovereign and fifteen other knights companions. The lord-lieutenants of Ireland for the time being officiate as grand masters of the order, and the archbishop of Armagh is the prelate, the archbishop of Dublin the chancellor, and the dean of St. Patrick the register of the order. The knights are installed in the cathedral of St. Patrick Dublin. Their robes are splendid, and the badge is three crowns united together on a cross, with the motto round, *Quis separabit?* 1783, fastened by an Irish harp to the crown imperial. A star of eight points encircles it on the coat.

HISTORY.] The history of Ireland has been carried to a very remote antiquity, and may, with greater justice than that of almost any other country, be distinguished into the legendary and authentic. In the reign of Edward II. an Ulster prince boasted to the pope of an uninterrupted succession of one hundred and ninety-seven kings of Ireland, to the year 1170. Even the more moderate Irish antiquaries carry their history up to 500 years before the Christian era, at which time they assert that a colony of Scythians, immediately from Spain, settled in Ireland, and introduced the Phœnician language and letters into this country; and that however it might have been peopled still earlier from Gaul or Britain, yet Heber, Heremon, and Ith, the sons of Milchius, gave a race of kings to the Irish, distinguished from their days by the name of Gadelians and Scuits, or Scots. But as our limits will not permit us to enlarge on the dark and contested parts of the Irish history, we shall only observe, that it was about the middle of the fifth century that the great apostle of Ireland, St. Patrick, was employed in the propagation of Christianity in this country, though there had been Christian missionaries here long before, by whose means it had made a considerable progress among the inhabitants of Ireland. After this period, Ireland was occasionally invaded by the Saxon kings of England; but in the years 795 and 798 the Danes and Norwegians, or, as they were called, Easterlings, invaded the coast of Ireland, and were the first who erected some edifices in that kingdom. The common habitations of the Irish, till that time, were hurdles covered with straw and rushes, and but very few of solid timber. The natives defended themselves bravely against the Easterlings, who built Dublin, Waterford, Limerick, Wexford, and Cork; but they resided chiefly at Dublin, or in its neighbourhood, which, by the old Irish, was called Fingal, or the Land of Strangers. The natives, about the year 962, seem to have called to their assistance the Anglo-Saxon king Edgar, who had then a considerable maritime power; and this might have given occasion for his clergy to call him king of great part of Ireland. It is certain that Dublin was about that time a flourishing city, and that the native Irish gave the Easterlings several defeats, though supported by their countrymen from the continent, the Isle of Man, and the Hebrides.

In the twelfth century, Henry the Second of England formed a design of annexing Ireland to his dominions. He is said to have been induced to this by the provocation he had received from some of the Irish chieftains, who had afforded considerable assistance to his enemies. His design was patronised by the pope, and a fair pretext of attacking Ireland offered about the year 1168. Dermot Mac Murrough, king of Leinster, and an oppressive tyrant, quarrelled with all his neighbours, and carried off the wife of a petty prince, O'Roirk. A confederacy being formed against him, under Roderick O'Connor (who, it seems, was the paramount king of Ireland), he was driven from his country, and took refuge in the court of Henry II. who promised to restore him, upon giving an oath of fidelity to the crown of England, for himself and all petty kings depending on him, who were very numerous. Henry, who was then in France, recommended Mac Dermot's cause to the English barons, and particularly to Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz-Stephen, and Maurice Fitzgerald. Those noblemen undertook the expedition upon much the same principles as the Norman and Breton did the conquest of England under William I. and Strongbow was assisted by Harry Mac Dermot's daughter Eva. In 1169, the adventurers retook the towns of Wexford and Waterford; and the next year Strong-

bow arriving with a strong reinforcement, his marriage was celebrated.

The descendents of the Danes continued still possessed of Dublin, which, after some ineffectual opposition made by the king O'Connor, was taken and plundered by the English soldiers: but Mac Turkil, the Danish king, escaped to his shipping. Upon the death of Dermot, Henry II. became jealous of earl Strongbow, seized upon his estates in England and Wales, and recalled his subjects from Ireland. The Irish about the same time, to the amount of above 60,000, besieged Dublin, under king O'Connor; but though all Strongbow's Irish friends and allies had now left him, and the city was reduced to great extremity, he forced the Irish to raise the siege with great loss; and going over to England, he appeased Henry by swearing fealty to him and his heirs, and resigning into his hands all the Irish cities and forts he held. During Strongbow's absence, Mac Turkil returned with a great fleet, attempted to retake the city of Dublin, but was killed at the siege; and in him ended the race of the Bassetling princes in Ireland.

In 1172, Henry II. attended by 400 knights, 4000 veteran soldiers, and the flower of his English nobility, landed near Waterford; and not only all the petty princes of Ireland, excepting the king of Ulster, but the great king Roderick O'Connor, submitted to Henry, who pretended that O'Connor's submission included that of Ulster, and that consequently he was the paramount sovereign of Ireland. Be that as it will, he affected to keep a magnificent court, and held a parliament at Dublin, where he parcelled out the states of Ireland, as William the Conqueror had done in England, to his English nobility. He then settled a civil administration at Dublin, as nearly as possible to that of England, to which he returned in 1173, having first settled an English colony from Bristol in Dublin, with all the liberties and free customs (say their charters) which the citizens of Bristol enjoyed. From that time Dublin began to flourish.—Thus the conquest of Ireland was effected by the English, almost with as much ease as that of Mexico was by the Spaniards; and for much the same reasons, the rude and unarmed state of the natives, and the differences that prevailed among their princes or leaders.

Henry gave the title of lord of Ireland to his son John, who, in 1185, went over in person to Ireland; but John and his giddy Norman courtiers made a very ill use of their power, and rendered themselves hateful to the Irish, who were otherwise very well disposed towards the English. Richard I. was too much taken up with the crusades to pay any great regard to the affairs of Ireland; but king John, after his accession, made amends for his former behaviour towards the Irish. He enlarged his father's plan of introducing into Ireland English laws and officers, and he erected that part of the provinces of Leinster and Munster which was within the English pale, into twelve counties. We find, however, that the descendents of the ancient princes in other places paid him no more than a nominal subjection. They governed by the old Brehon laws, and exercised all acts of sovereignty within their own states; and indeed this was pretty much the case so late as the reign of James I. The unsettled reign of Henry III. his wars and captivity gave the Irish a very mean opinion of the English government during his reign; but they seem to have continued quiet under his son Edward I. Gaveston, the famous favourite of Edward II. acquired great credit while he acted as lieutenant of Ireland; but the successes of the Scotch king, Robert Bruce, had almost proved fatal to the English interest in Ireland, and suggested to the Irish the idea of transferring the

allegiance from the kings of England to Edward Bruce, king Robert's brother. That prince accordingly invaded Ireland, where he gave repeated defeats to the English governors and armies; and being supported by his brother in person, he was actually crowned king at Dundalk, and narrowly missed being master of Dublin. The younger Bruce seems to have been violent in the exercise of his sovereignty, and he was at last defeated and killed by Bermingham, the English general. After this Edward II. ruled Ireland with great moderation, and passed several excellent acts with regard to that country.

But during the minority of Edward III. the commotions were again renewed in Ireland, and not suppressed without great loss and disgrace on the side of the English. In 1333 a rebellion broke out, in which the English inhabitants had no inconsiderable share. A succession of vigorous, brave governors, at last quieted the insurgents; and about the year 1361, prince Lionel, son to Edward III. having married the heiress of Ulster, was sent over to govern Ireland, and, if possible, to reduce its inhabitants to an entire conformity with the laws of England. In this he made a great progress, but did not entirely accomplish it. It appears, at this time, that the Irish were in a very flourishing condition, and that one of the greatest grievances they complained of was, that the English sent over men of mean birth to govern them. In 1394, Richard II. depending that the execution of his despotic schemes in England must be abortive without farther support, passed over to Ireland with an army of 10,000 men, well armed and appointed. As he made no use of force, the Irish looked upon his presence to be a high compliment to their nation, and admired the magnificence of his court. Richard, on the other hand, courted them by all the arts he could employ, and bestowed the honour of knighthood on their chiefs. In short, he behaved so as entirely to win their affections. But in 1399, after having acted in a very despotic manner in England, he undertook a fresh expedition to Ireland, to revenge the death of his lord lieutenant, the earl of March, who had been killed by the wild Irish. His army again struck the natives with consternation, and they threw themselves upon his mercy. It was during this expedition that the duke of Lancaster landed in England; and Richard, upon his return, finding himself deserted by his English subjects on account of his tyranny, and that he could not depend upon the Irish, surrendered his crown to his rival.

The Irish, after Richard's death, still retained a warm affection for the house of York; and, upon the revival of that family's claim to the crown, embraced its cause. Edward IV. made the earl of Desmond lord lieutenant of Ireland for his services against the Ormond party and other adherents of the house of Lancaster, and he was the *first Irish chieftain* that obtained this honour. Even the accession of Henry VII. to the crown of England did not reconcile the Irish to his title as duke of Lancaster: they therefore readily joined Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the first son of Edward IV. but for this they paid dear, being defeated in their attempt to invade England. This made them somewhat cautious of joining Perkin Warbeck, notwithstanding his plausible pretences to be the duke of York, second son of Edward IV. He was, however, at last recognised as king by the Irish; and, in the preceding reigns, under the history of England, the reader may learn the event of his confusions. Henry behaved with moderation towards his favourers, and was contented with requiring the Irish nobility to take a fresh oath of allegiance to his government. This lenity had the desired effect during the administration of the two earls of Kildare, the earl of Surry, and

the earl of Ormond. Henry VIII. governed Ireland by supporting its chiefs against each other: but they were tampered with by the emperor Charles V. upon which Henry made his natural son, the duke of Richmond, his lord lieutenant. This did not prevent the Irish from breaking out into rebellion in the year 1540, under Fitz Gerald, who had been lord deputy, and was won over by the emperor, but was at last hanged at Tyburn. After this the house of Austria found their account, in their quarrels with England, to form a strong party among the Irish.

About the year 1542, James V. king of Scotland, formed some pretensions to the crown of Ireland, and was favoured by a strong party among the Irish themselves. It is hard to say, had he lived, what the consequence of his claim might have been. Henry understood that the Irish had a mean opinion of his dignity, as the kings of England had hitherto assumed no higher title than that of lords of Ireland. He therefore took that of king of Ireland, which had a great effect with the native Irish, who thought that allegiance was not due to a lord; and, to speak the truth, it is somewhat surprising that this expedient was not thought of before. It produced a more perfect submission of the native Irish to Henry's government than ever had been known; and even O'Neil, who pretended to be successor to the last paramount king of Ireland, swore allegiance to Henry, who created him earl of Tyrone.

The pope, however, and the princes of the house of Austria, by remitting money, and sometimes sending over troops to the Irish, still kept up their interest in that kingdom, and drew from them vast numbers of men to their armies, where they proved as good soldiers as any in Europe. This created inexpressible difficulties to the English government even in the reign of Edward VI. but it is remarkable, that the Reformation took place in the English part of Ireland with little or no opposition. The Irish seem to have been very quiet during the reign of queen Mary; but they proved thorns in the side of queen Elizabeth. The perpetual disputes she had with the Roman catholics, both at home and abroad, gave her great uneasiness; and the pope and the house of Austria always found new resources against her in Ireland. The Spaniards possessed themselves of Kinsale; and the rebellions of Tyrone, who besieged and outwitted her favourite general the earl of Essex, are well known in English history.

The lord deputy Mountjoy, who succeeded Essex, was the first Englishman who gave a mortal blow to the practices of the Spaniards in Ireland, by defeating them and the Irish before Kinsale, and bringing Tyrone prisoner to England; where he was pardoned by queen Elizabeth in 1602. This lenity, shown to such an offender, is a proof of the dreadful apprehensions Elizabeth had from the popish interest in Ireland. James I. confirmed the possessions of the Irish; but such was the influence of the pope and the Spaniards, that the earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, and their party, planned a new rebellion, and attempted to seize the castle of Dublin; but their plot being discovered, their chief fled beyond seas. They were not idle abroad; for in 1608 they instigated sir Calim O'Dogherty to a fresh rebellion, by promising speedy supplies of men and money from Spain. Sir Calim was killed in the dispute, and his adherents were taken and executed. The tanners of the Irish rebels, which passed in the reigns of James and Charles, vested in the crown 511,465 acres, in the several counties Donegal, Tyrone, Colerain, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Armagh; and enabled the king to make that protestant plantation in the North of

land, which, from the most rebellious province of the kingdom, became, for many years, the most quiet and industrious.

Those prodigious attainders, however just and necessary they might be, operated fatally for the English in the reign of Charles I. The Irish Roman catholics in general were influenced by their priests to hope not only to repossess the lands of their forefathers, but to restore the popish religion in Ireland. They therefore entered into a deep and detestable conspiracy for massacring all the English protestants in that kingdom. In this they were encouraged by the unhappy dissensions that broke out between the king and his parliaments in England and Scotland. Their bloody plan being discovered by the English government at Dublin, prevented that city from falling into their hands. They, however, partly executed, in 1641, their horrid scheme of massacre; but authors have not agreed as to the numbers who were murdered; perhaps they have been exaggerated by warm protestant writers: some of the more moderate have estimated the numbers of the sufferers at 40,000; other accounts speak of 10,000 or 12,000, and some have diminished that number*. What followed in consequence of this rebellion, and the reduction of Ireland by Cromwell, who retaliated the cruelties of the Irish papists upon themselves, belongs to the history of England. It is certain that they snarled so severely, that they were quiet during the reign of Charles II. His popish successor and brother James II. even after the Revolution took place, found an asylum in Ireland; and was encouraged to hope, that, by the assistance of the natives there, he might remount his throne: but he was deceived, and his own pusillanimity co-operated with his disappointment. He was driven out of Ireland by his son-in-law, after the battle of the Boyne, the only victory that king William ever gained in person; a victory, however, on which depended the safety of the protestant religion; and the liberties of the British empire. Had James been victorious, he probably would have been re-instated on the throne, and nothing else could be expected than that, being irritated by opposition, victorious over his enemies, and free from every restraint, he would have trampled upon all rights, civil and religious, and pursued more arbitrary designs than before. The army William consisted of 36,000 men, that of James of 33,000, but advantageously situated. James, it is true, fought at the head of an undisciplined rabble: but his French auxiliaries were far from behaving as heroes. It must be acknowledged, however, that he left both the field and the kingdom too soon for a brave man.

The forfeitures that fell to the crown, on account of the Irish rebellions and the Revolution, are almost incredible; and had the acts of parliament which gave them away been strictly enforced, Ireland must have been peopled with British inhabitants. But many political reasons occurred for not driving the Irish to despair. The friends of the Revolution and the protestant religion were sufficiently gratified out of the forfeited estates. Too many of the Roman catholics might have been sent abroad; and it was proper that a due balance should be preserved between the Roman catholic and the protestant interest. It was therefore thought prudent to relax the reins of government, and not to put the forfeitures too rigorously into execution. The experience of half a

Mr. Hume, after enumerating the various barbarities practised by the papists on the protestants, says, "by some computations, those who perished by all those cruelties, are made to amount to an hundred and fifty, or two hundred thousand; the most moderate and probably the most reasonable account, they must have been near 40,000." Hist. of England, vol. vi. p. 377. edit. 8vo. 1763.

century has confirmed the wisdom of the above considerations. The lenity of the measures pursued in regard to the Irish Roman catholics, and the great pains taken for the instruction of their children, with the progress which knowledge and the arts have made in that country, have greatly diminished the popish interest. The spirit of industry has enabled the Irish to know their own strength and importance; to which some accidental circumstances have concurred. All her ports were opened for the exportation of wool and woollen yarn to any part of Great Britain; and of late years, acts of parliament have been made occasionally for permitting the importation of salt beef, pork, butter, cattle, and tallow, from Ireland to Great Britain.

But though some laws and regulations had occasionally taken place favourable to Ireland, it must be acknowledged, that the inhabitants of that country laboured under considerable grievances, in consequence of sundry unjust and injudicious restraints of the parliament of England, respecting their trade. These restraints had injured Ireland without benefiting Great Britain. The Irish had been prohibited from manufacturing their own wool, in order to favour the woollen manufactory of England; the consequence of which was, that the Irish wool was smuggled over into France, and the people of that country were thereby enabled to rival us in our woollen manufacture, and to deprive us of a part of that trade. An embargo had also been laid on the exportation of provisions from Ireland, which had been extremely prejudicial to that kingdom. The distresses of the Irish manufacturers, as well as those of Great Britain, had likewise been much increased by the consequences of the American war. These circumstances occasioned great murmuring in Ireland, and some attempts were made for the relief of the inhabitants of that kingdom in the British parliament, but for some time without success; for a partiality in favour of the trade of England prevented justice from being done to Ireland. But several incidents which happened afterwards, at length operated strongly in favour of that kingdom. When a large body of the king's troops had been withdrawn from Ireland in order to be employed in the American war, a considerable number of Irish gentlemen, farmers, traders, and other persons, armed and formed themselves into volunteer companies and associations, for the defence of Ireland against any foreign invaders. By degrees, these volunteer associations became numerous and well-disciplined; and it was soon discovered, that they were inclined to maintain their rights at home, as well as to defend themselves against foreign enemies. When these armed associations became numerous and formidable, the Irish began to assume a higher tone than that to which they had before been accustomed, and it was soon manifest, that their remonstrances met with unusual attention, both from their own parliament and from that of Great Britain. The latter, on the 11th of May 1779, presented an address to the king, recommending to his majesty's most serious consideration the distressed and impoverished state of the loyal and well-deserving people of Ireland, and desiring him to direct that there should be prepared and laid before parliament, such particulars relative to the trade and manufactures of Great Britain and Ireland as should enable the national wisdom to pursue effectual measures for promoting the common strength, wealth, and commerce of his majesty's subjects in both kingdoms. To this address the king returned a favourable answer: and in October, the same year, both houses of the Irish parliament also presented addresses to his majesty, in which they declared, that nothing but granting Ireland a free trade could save it from ruin. Notwithstanding

which, it being soon after suspected by many of the people of that kingdom, that the members of their parliament would not exert themselves with vigour in promoting the interests of the nation, a very daring and numerous mob assembled before the parliament house in Dublin, crying out for a *free trade* and a *short money-bill*. They assaulted the members, and endeavoured to compel them to swear that they would support the interest of their country by voting for a short money-bill; and they demolished the house of the attorney-general. The tumult at length subsided: and two Irish money-bills for six months only were sent over to England, where they passed the great seal, and were immediately returned, without any dissatisfaction being expressed by government at this limited grant.

In the mean time the members of the opposition in the English parliament very strongly represented the necessity of an immediate attention to the complaints of the people of Ireland, and of a compliance with their wishes. The arguments on this side of the question were also enforced by the accounts which came from Ireland, that the volunteer associations in that kingdom amounted to forty thousand men, unpaid, self-appointed, and independent of government, well armed and accoutred, daily improving in discipline, and which afterwards increased to eighty thousand. The British ministry appeared for some time to be undetermined what part they should act in this important business; but the remembrance of the fatal effects of rigorous measures respecting America, and the very critical situation of Great Britain, at length induced the first lord of the treasury to bring in such bills as were calculated to afford effectual commercial relief to the people of Ireland. Laws were accordingly passed, by which all those acts were repealed, which had prohibited the exportation of woollen manufactures from Ireland, and other acts by which the trade of that kingdom to foreign countries had been restrained; and it was likewise enacted, that a trade between Ireland and the British colonies in America and the West Indies, and the British settlements on the coast of Africa, should be allowed to be carried on in the same manner, and subject to similar regulations and restrictions, with that carried on between Great Britain and the said colonies and settlements.

These laws in favour of Ireland were received with much joy and exultation in that kingdom: and the Irish nation being indulged in their requisitions respecting trade, now began also to aim at important constitutional reformations: and in various counties and cities of Ireland, the right of the British parliament to make laws which should bind that kingdom was denied in public resolutions. By degrees, the spirit which had been manifested by the Irish parliament, seemed a little to subside; and a remarkable instance of this was, their agreeing to a perpetual mutiny-bill, for the regulation of the Irish army, though that of England had always been passed, with a true constitutional caution, only from year to year. This was much exclaimed against by some of the Irish patriots; and it is indeed not easy to clear their parliament from the charge of inconsistency: but this bill was afterwards repealed, and the commercial advantages afforded them by late acts in their favour have greatly contributed to promote the prosperity of Ireland. As before observed, by the act repealing the statute of the 6th of George I. they are now fully and completely emancipated from the jurisdiction of the British parliament. The appellate jurisdiction of the British house of peers in Irish causes was likewise given up. But though the Irish have ob-

ained such great extension of their liberties, it is questioned whether it will terminate to their country's real advantage: their parties and dissensions increase, and the controversy of England with that kingdom is far from being ended; much remains to establish such a commercial and political connection as will promote the interest and happiness of both countries, and make them one great, stable, and invulnerable body. Every change of administration in England has produced new lord lieutenants, but harmony and confidence are not yet restored.

In the year 1783, the government, the nobility, and the people of Ireland, vied with each other in countenancing and giving an asylum to many families of the Genevese who were banished from their city, and to others who voluntarily exiled themselves for the cause of liberty, not willing to submit to an aristocracy of their own citizens, supported by the swords of France and Sardinia. A large tract of land in the county of Waterford was allotted for their reception, a town was marked out, entitled **NEW GENEVA**, and a sum of money granted for erecting the necessary buildings. These preparations for their accommodation were, however, rendered ultimately useless, by some misunderstanding (not fully comprehended) which arose between the parties; and the scheme accordingly fell to the ground.

Upon the occasion of the unhappy malady with which the king was afflicted, the lords and commons of Ireland came to a resolution to address the prince of Wales, requesting him to take upon him the government of that kingdom during his majesty's indisposition, under the style and title of **PRINCE REGENT OF IRELAND**, and to exercise and administer, according to the laws and the constitution of the realm, all the royal authorities, jurisdictions, and prerogatives, to the crown and government thereof belonging. The marquis of Buckingham (being then lord-lieutenant) having declined presenting the address, as contrary to his oath and the laws, the two houses resolved on appointing delegates from each; the lords appointed the duke of Leinster, and the earl of Charlemont; and the commons, four of their members. The delegates proceeded to London, and, in February 1789, presented the address to his royal highness, by whom they were most graciously received; but his majesty having, to the infinite joy of all his subjects, recovered from his severe indisposition, the prince returned them an answer fraught with the warmest sentiments of regard for the kingdom, and of gratitude to parliament, for the generous manner in which they proposed investing him with the regency, but, that the happy recovery of his royal father had now rendered his acceptance of it unnecessary.

The parliament of Ireland has extended liberal indulgences to the Roman catholics of that kingdom, by establishing the legality of intermarriage between them and the protestants, by admitting them to the profession of the law, and the benefit of education, and by removing all obstructions upon their industry in trade and manufactures. A reciprocal preference in the corn trade with Britain has been established. Further progress has been made in checking the immoderate use of spirituous liquors; and some wise institutions have been ordained for the regulation of charitable foundations.

In the year 1793, in consequence of the concessions of government a bill passed the legislature, by which the Roman catholics, being freeholders, are entitled to vote for members to serve in parliament. The patriots of Ireland have been less successful in their attempts to procure a reform in parliament itself, as, notwithstanding the resolution in the

beginning of the session to inquire into the state of the representation, nothing effectual has been done; the times, it is alleged, discouraging useful innovations from the just dread of ruinous or hurtful ones.

Early in the session of the same year, a secret committee of the house of lords was formed, to inquire into the rise and progress of that seditious spirit which appeared in different parts of that kingdom. After some time spent in the inquiry, the secret committee made a report of their discoveries, in which they declared that seditious clubs and meetings had been held in various parts of the kingdom, and that several of these advocates for liberty had assumed the national cockade, appeared in arms, and committed various insults upon the established modes of government. The lord-lieutenant and council, therefore, issued a proclamation grounded on the above report, directing the magistrates and peace officers of the town of Belfast and the districts adjacent to disperse all seditious and unlawful armed assemblies, and, if resisted, to apprehend the offenders.

The embodying of the militia in this kingdom, in the same year, created riots and disturbances in different places. At Castle-reah, in particular, on the 28th of June 1793, several persons were killed, and the mob withstood a party of the military for several hours. Subsequent to that time, there have been various meetings of rioters and armed men, in the other parts of the kingdom; and, in attempting to quell them by the assistance of the military, many have been killed on both sides.

The government of Ireland, apprehensive of the consequences that might attend popular meetings, have passed into a law an act "to prevent illegal assemblies of the people." Upon the second reading of this bill in the house of commons, Mr. Grattan opposed it with great freedom and boldness, asserting that the bill would disturb that tranquillity which it affected to preserve.

Notwithstanding the catholics of Ireland had been restored, in some measure, to their civil rights, by the concession of the elective franchise, it does not appear that either their own leaders or their parliamentary adherents were satisfied with what had been granted, or were likely to be contented with less than a total repeal of all remaining disqualifications; and when in the beginning of the year 1795 earl Fitzwilliam was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland, after the accession of the Portland party to administration, they considered the point in dispute as absolutely conceded by the ministry. A committee was therefore appointed to bring forward a petition to parliament for a repeal of all remaining disqualifications. Notice of this his lordship transmitted to the minister, stating at the same time his own opinion of the absolute necessity of concession, as a measure not only wise but essential to the public tranquillity. To this no answer was received, and on the 12th of February Mr. Grattan moved for leave to bring in a bill for the further relief of his majesty's subjects professing the Roman catholic religion; and after a feeble opposition, leave was given. By the intrigues, however, of another political party, at the head of which was Mr. Beresford, a gentleman who had united in his own person, or in that of his son, the important and discordant offices of minister—commissioner of the treasury—of revenue—counsel to the commissioners—store-keeper, and banker—the measure was defeated, and lord Fitzwilliam suddenly recalled. His lordship left Dublin for England on the 25th of March, which day was observed in that city as a day of general mourning: the shops were shut; no business was transacted; and the citizens appeared in deep mourning. In College-green a number of respectable gentle-

men, dressed in black, took the horses from his excellency's carriage, and drew it to the water-side. His lordship wished, as usual on such occasions, to distribute money; but, with the noblest enthusiasm, the offer was rejected, even by a mob. The military had been ordered out, in expectation of some disturbance; but nothing appeared among the populace but the serious emotions of sorrow, and the utmost order and decorum.

Earl Camden, who was appointed to succeed his lordship, arrived in Dublin on the 31st of March, to assume the government. Some disturbances took place on the evening of his arrival, but they were soon quelled by the interposition of the military. A system of coercive measures has since been principally relied on; but these measures have only tended to render necessary the adoption of others still more rigorous. The situation of the country, and the progress made by the principles of those who style themselves *United Irishmen*, have inspired government with the greatest alarm. The people throughout the north of Ireland have been disarmed, in some cases, in a violent and oppressive manner; many places have been absolutely put under martial law; and the most odious cruelties, it is said, have been employed to extort confessions from persons suspected, though, we trust, without the approbation or knowledge of government. A great part of the country is certainly still in a state of discontent and fermentation, of which it is not easy to foresee the consequences.

FRANCE.

HAVING gone over the British isles, we shall now return to the continent, beginning with the extensive and mighty kingdom of France, being the nearest to England, though part of Germany and Poland lies to the northward of France.

SITUATION and EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 600	} between { 5 West and 8 East longitude. 42 and 51 North latitude.
Breadth 500	

Containing 160,374 square miles, with 155 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded by the English Channel and the Netherlands on the North; by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, East; by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain, South; and by the Bay of Biscay, West.

DIVISIONS.] The ancient provinces of this kingdom have been divided by the national assembly into 83 departments*, as follow:

* France, nearly a square, is divided into 83 DEPARTMENTS, including Corsica. Every department is subdivided into DISTRICTS, in all 547; and each district into CANTONS. The annexed table exhibits the names of the departments, and of the chief town in each. The new department of Savoy, which forms the 84th, is not added, it being at present uncertain whether it will continue its connection with France.

DEPARTMENTS.	CHIEF TOWNS.	INLAND DEPARTMENTS.	CHIEF TOWNS.	
ISLE OF FRANCE.	PARIS	PA- } N. L. 48° 50'	MOSELLE	Metz
	SEINE and OUSE	ris. } E. L. 2° 25'	VOGES	Epinal
	SEINE and MARNE	Verfailles	MEURTE	Nancy
	OISE	Melun	MEUSE	Bar-le-duc
	AISNE	Beauvais	LOWER RHINE	Straßbourg
	SOMME, Picardy	Laon	Upper RHINE	Colmar
	CAL. STRAITS, Artois	Amiens	AUBE	Troyes
	NORTH, Flanders.	Arras	MARNE	Châlons
	LOWER SEINE	Lille	Upper MARNE	Chaumont
	CALVADOS	Rouen	ARDENNES	Meziers
ORNE	Caen	DOL	Befançon	
EURE	Alençon	JURA	Dol	
CHANNEL	Evreux	Upper SAONE	Vesoul	
ISLE and VILLAIN	Coulance	COTE D'OR	Dijon	
LOWER LOIRE	Rennes	SAONE and LOIRE	Maçon	
FINISTERRE	Nantes	YONNE	Auxerre	
NORTH COAST	Brest	ISERE	Grenoble	
MORBIHAN	St. Brieux	DROME	Romans	
VIENNE	Vannes	Upper ALPS	Gap	
VENDEE	Poitiers	ARDECHE	Priyas	
TWO SEVRES	Fontenai-comte	RHONE and LOIRE	Lyons	
LOWER CHARENTE	Niort	PUY DE DOME	Clermont	
GIRONDE	Santes	CANTAL	St. Flour	
Upper VIENNE	Bordeaux	Upper LOIRE, Fel.	Le Puy	
LOT and GARONNE	Limoges	COREZE, Limosin	Tulle	
AVEIRON	Agen	CORSE, Marche	Gueret	
DORDOONE	Rodez	CHARENTE, Ang.	Angoulême	
LOT	Perigueux	ALLIER, Bourbon.	Moulins	
GERS	Cahors	CHER	Bourges	
Upper PYRENEES	Anch	AIN	Bourg	
LOWER PYRENEES	Tarbes	INDRE	Chateauroux	
LANDES	Pau	INDRE & LOIRE To.	Tours	
East PYRENEES	Marfan	ORTE	Le Mans	
Upper GARONNE	Perpignan	SAVENNE	Laval	
GARD	Toulouse	MAINE and LOIRE	Angers	
HERAULT	Nîmes	LOIRET	Orléans	
HARRIER	Montpellier	EURE and LOIRE	Chartres	
TARNE	Foix	LOIRE and Cher	Blois	
AUDE	Castres	NIEVRE, Nivernois	Nevers	
LOZERE	Carcaſſonne	CORSICA island	Bastia.	
MOUTHS of RHONE	Mende	Avignon and Venaisin are in this department		
VAR	Aix			
LOWER ALPS	Toulon			
	Digne			

NAME AND CLIMATE.] France took its name from the Franks, or *Freemen*, a German nation, restless and enterprising, who conquered the Gauls, the ancient inhabitants: and the Roman force not being able to repress them, they were permitted to settle in the country by treaty. By its situation, it is the most compact kingdom perhaps in the world, and well fitted for every purpose both of power and commerce; and since the beginning of the 15th century, the inhabitants have availed themselves of many of their natural advantages. The air, particularly that of the interior parts of the kingdom, is in general mild and wholesome; but some late authors think it is not nearly so salubrious as is pretended; and it must be acknowledged, that the French have been but too successful in giving the inhabitants of Great Britain false prepossessions in favour of their own country. It must indeed be owned, that their weather is more clear and settled than in England. In the northern

carriage, and on such occasions, the offer is ordered out, in and among the most order and

hip, arrived in. Some disturbance were soon coercive measures have only rigorous. The principles of government of Ireland have in an effective manner; and the most short confessions of approbation or try is certainly it is not easy to

return to the kingdom of France, and Poland lies

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provinces, however, the winters are more intensely cold, and the inhabitants not so well supplied with firing, which in France is chiefly of wood.

SOIL AND WATER.] France is happy in an excellent soil, which produces corn, wine, oil, and almost every luxury of life. Some of their fruits have a higher flavour than those of England; but neither the pasturage nor tillage are comparable to ours. The heats in many parts burn up the ground, so that it has no verdure, and the soil barely produces as much rye and chestnuts as serve to subsist the poor inhabitants; but the chief misfortune attending the French soil is, that the inhabitants, having but a precarious security in their own property, do not apply themselves sufficiently to cultivation and agriculture. But nature has done wonders for them, and both animal and vegetable productions are found there in vast plenty.

Notwithstanding great efforts made in agriculture, much of the land remains uncultivated; and, although some provinces, as Alsace and Languedoc, yield an exuberance of corn, it is frequently imported. Indeed all Europe, one year with another, does not produce sufficient corn for its own consumption; and it is necessary to have supplies from the luxuriant harvests of America.

The French had endeavoured to supply the loss arising from their precarious title to their lands, by instituting academies of agriculture, and proposing premiums for its improvement, as in England; but those expedients, however successful they may be in particular instances, can never become of national utility in any but a free country, where the husbandman is sure of enjoying the fruit of his labour. No nation is better supplied than France is with wholesome springs and water; of which the inhabitants make excellent use by the help of art and engines, for all the conveniencies of life. Of their canals and mineral waters, distinct notice will be hereafter taken.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are the Alps, which divide France from Italy; the Pyrenees, which divide France from Spain; Vosges, which divide Lorraine from Burgundy and Alsace; Mount Jura, which divides Franche Comté from Switzerland; the Cevennes, in the province of Languedoc; and Mont d'Or in the province of Auvergne.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its course north and north-west, being, with all its windings, from its source to the sea, computed to run about 500 miles. The Rhone flows on the south-west to Lyons, and then runs on due south till it falls into the Mediterranean. The Garonne rises in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its course, first north-east, and has a communication with the Mediterranean by means of a canal, the work of Lewis XIV. The Seine, soon after its rise, runs to the north-west, visiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the English Channel at Havre. To these we may add the Saone, which falls into the Rhone at Lyons; the Charente, which rises near Havre de Grace, and discharges itself in the Bay of Biscay at Rochefort. The Rhine, which rises in Switzerland, is the eastern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moselle and the Sarte in its passage. The Somme, which runs north-west through Picardy, and falls into the English Channel below Abbeville. The Var, which rises in the Alps, and runs south, dividing France from Italy, and falling into the Mediterranean, west of Nice. The Adour runs

from east to west, through Gascogne, and falls into the Bay of Biscay, below Bayonne.

The vast advantage, both in commerce and conveniency, which arises to France from those rivers, is wonderfully improved by the artificial rivers and canals which form the chief glory of the reign of Lewis XIV. That of Languedoc was begun in the year 1666, and completed in 1680; it was intended for a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean, for the speedier passage of the French fleet: but though it was carried on at an immense expense for 100 miles, over hills and valleys, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not answered that purpose. By the canal of Calais, travellers easily pass by water from thence to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Ypres, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a course of eighteen leagues, to the immense benefit of the public and the royal revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation inexpressibly commodious and beneficial.

Few lakes are found in this country. There is one at the top of a hill near Alegre, which the vulgar report to be bottomless. There is another at Issoire, in Auvergne; and one at La Besse, into which if a stone be thrown, it causes a noise like thunder.

MINERAL WATERS, AND

REMARKABLE SPRINGS.

The waters of Bareges, which lie near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have of late been preferred to all the others of France, for the recovery of health. The best judges think, however, that the cures performed by them are more owing to their accidental success with some great persons, and the salubrity of the air and soil, than to the virtues of the waters. The waters of Sultzbach, in Alsace, are said to cure the palsy, weak nerves, and the stone. At Bagueis, not far from Bareges, are several wholesome minerals and baths, to which people resort as to the English baths, at spring and autumn. Forges in Normandy is celebrated for its mineral waters; and those of St. Amand cure the gravel and obstructions. It would be endless to enumerate all the other real or pretended mineral wells in France, as well as many remarkable springs; but there is one near Aigne, in Auvergne, which boils violently, and makes a noise like water thrown upon lime; it has little or no taste: but has a poisonous quality, and the birds that drink of it die instantly.

[METALS AND MINERALS.] France has many unworked *mines*, which would be very productive, if duly attended to; but at present do not yield minerals sufficient for consumption; steel alone is imported, to the annual value of 125,000*l*. Languedoc is said to contain veins of gold and silver. Alsace has mines of silver and copper, but they are too expensive to be wrought. Alabaster, black marble, jasper, and coal, are found in many parts of the kingdom. Bretagne abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. Salt-petre is made in every part of the kingdom, and *sea-salt* is now procured free from oppressive duty, but not remarkable for its purity. At Laverdau, in Cominges, there is a mine of chalk. At Berry there is a mine of oker, which serves for melting of metals, and for dying, particularly the best drab cloth: and in the province of Anjou are several quarries of fine white stone. Some excellent turquoises (the only gem that France produces) are found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to keep the mines of marble and free-stone open all over the kingdom.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRO-

DUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.

France abounds in excellent roots, which are more proper for

soups than those of England. As to all kinds of seasoning and fallads, they are more plentiful, and in some places better than in England; they being, next to their vines, the chief object of their culture.

France produces excellent *fruit* of all kinds, particularly grapes, figs, prunes, chestnuts, cider in the northern provinces, and capers in the southern. It produces annually, though not enough for consumption, above twelve million pounds of tobacco, besides hemp, flax, mauna, saffron, and many drugs. Alsace, Burgundy, Lorraine, and especially the Pyrenean mountains, supply it plentifully with timber and other wood. Silk is so plentifully produced, besides what is imported, as to afford a considerable trade. The cattle and horses are neither very numerous nor very good; but it has many flocks of fine *sheep*; yet so great is the consumption, that both sheep and wool are imported. The province of Gatinois produces great quantities of saffron. The wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Gascony, and other provinces of France, are so well known, that they need only be mentioned. It is sufficient to observe, that though they differ very sensibly in their taste and properties, yet all of them are excellent, particularly those of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Pontacke, Hermitage, and Frontinac: and there are few constitutions, be they ever so valetudinary, to which some one or other of them is not adapted.

Wine, the staple, is made to the value of 15,000,000l. annually, more than an eighth part of which, besides brandy and vinegar, is exported. Olive oil is made in large quantities, particularly in the provinces next the Mediterranean; but the consumption is so great, that much of it is imported from Italy; the inferior sort supplies the soap manufactories, of which there are thirty-six at Marseilles.

Oak, elm, ash, and other timber, common in England, is found in France; but it is said, that the internal parts of the kingdom begin to feel the want of fuel. A great deal of salt is made at Rhée, and about Rochefort on the coast of Saintonge. Languedoc produces an herb called kali, which, when burnt, makes excellent barilla, or pot-ashes. The French formerly were famous for horticulture, but they are at present far inferior to the English both in the management and disposition of their gardens. Prunes and capers are produced at Bourdeaux and near Toulon.

France contains few animals, either wild or tame, that are not to be found in England, excepting wolves. Their horses, black cattle, and sheep, are far inferior to the English; nor is the wool of their sheep so fine. The hair and skin of the chamois, or mountain goats, are more valuable than those of England. We know of no difference between the marine productions of France and those of England, but that the former is not so well served, even on the sea-coasts, with salt water fish. There is a considerable herring fishery, and one for anchovies, to the annual amount of 83,000l. besides more important fisheries upon the coast of America and Newfoundland.

FORESTS.] The chief forests of France are those of Orléans, which contains 14,000 acres of wood of various kinds, oak, elm, ash, &c. and the forest of Fontainebleau near as large; and near Morchismoir is a forest of tall, straight timber, of 4000 trees. Besides these, large numbers of woods, some of them deserving the name of forests, lie in different provinces; but too remote from sea-carriage to be of much national utility.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } According to the latest
CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } and best calculations,
France contains at present about 25,000,000 of inhabitants. It was late-

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ly supposed by some speculative men, that the population of France had for many years been upon the decline; but, upon an accurate investigation, the reverse appeared to be fact; though this country certainly lost a great number of valuable inhabitants, by the revocation of the edict of Nantes*.

The French, in their persons, are rather lower than their neighbours; but they are well proportioned and active, and more free than other nations, in general, from bodily deformities. The ladies are celebrated more for their sprightly wit than personal beauty: the peasantry in general are remarkably ordinary, and are best described by being contrasted with women of the same rank in England. The nobility and gentry accomplish themselves in the academical exercises of dancing, fencing, and riding; in the practice of which they excel all their neighbours in skill and gracefulness. They are fond of hunting; and the gentry, before the revolution, had left off their heavy jack-boots, their huge war-saddle, and monstrous curb bridle in that exercise, and accommodate themselves to the English manners.

The genius and manners of the French are well known, and have been the subject of many able pens. A national vanity is their predominant character: and they are perhaps the only people ever heard of, who have derived great utility from a national weakness. It supports them under misfortunes, and impels them to actions to which true courage inspires other nations. This character has been conspicuous both in the higher and middling ranks, where it produces excellent officers; and in the common soldiers of France, who, it must be confessed, in the present war against the allied powers, have exhibited prodigies of valour.

The French affect freedom and wit; but fashionable dresses and diversions engross too much of their conversation. Their diversions are much the same with those of the English; but their gallantry is of a very different complexion. Their attention to the fair degenerates into gross soppery in the men, and in the ladies it is kept up by admitting of indecent freedoms; but the seeming levities of both sexes are seldom attended with that criminality which, to people not used to their manners, they seem to indicate; nor are the husbands so indifferent as we are apt to imagine, about the conduct of their wives. The French are excessively credulous and litigious: but of all people in the world they bear adversity and reduction of circumstances with the best grace; though in prosperity many of them are apt to be insolent, vain, arbitrary, and imperious.

The French have been much censured for insincerity; but this charge has been carried too far, and the imputation is generally owing to their defects of civility, which renders their candour suspicious. The French, in private life, have certainly many amiable qualities; and a great number of instances of generosity and disinterestedness may be found amongst them.

It is doing the French no more than justice to acknowledge, that, as they are themselves polite, so they have given a polish to the ferocious manners and even virtues of other nations. Before the revolution, they were disposed to think very favourably of the English. They both imi-

* In the year 1598, Henry IV. who was a protestant, and justly styled the Great, after fighting his way to the crown of France, passed the famous edict of Nantes, which allowed the protestants the free exercise of their religion; but his edict was revoked by Lewis XIV. which, with the succeeding persecutions, drove those people to England, Holland, and other protestant countries, where they established the silk manufacture, to the great prejudice of the country that persecuted them.

tate and admire our writers; the names of Bacon, Locke, Newton, Milton, Pope, Addison, Hume, Robertson, Richardson, and many others of the last and present century, are sacred among the French of any education. But we cannot quit this article of the manners and customs of the French, without giving a more minute view of some peculiarities recently prevailing among this people, from the remarks of a late ingenious traveller, who was also distinguished by various other productions in polite literature.

“The natural levity of the French,” says Smollett, “is re-inforced by the most preposterous education, and the example of a giddy people; engaged in the most frivolous pursuits. A Frenchman is, by some priest or monk, taught to read his mother tongue, and to say his prayers in a language he does not understand. He learns to dance and to fence by the masters of those sciences. He becomes a complete connoisseur in dressing hair, and in adorning his own person, under the hands and instructions of his valet-de-chambre. If he learns to play upon the flute or fiddle, he is altogether irresistible. But he piques himself upon being polished above the natives of any other country, by his conversation with the fair sex. In the course of this communication, with which he is indulged from his tender years, he learns like a parrot, by rote, the whole circle of French compliments, which are a set of phrases, ridiculous even to a proverb; and these he throws out indiscriminately to all women without distinction, in the exercise of that kind of address which is here distinguished by the name of gallantry. It is an exercise, by the repetition of which he becomes very pert, very familiar, and very impertinent. A Frenchman, in consequence of his mingling with the females from his infancy, not only becomes acquainted with all their customs and humours, but grows wonderfully alert in performing a thousand little offices, which are overlooked by other men, whose time hath been spent in making more valuable acquisitions. He enters, without ceremony, a lady’s bed-chamber, while she is in bed, reaches her whatever she wants, airs her shift, and helps to put it on. He attends at her toilette, regulates the distribution of her patches, and advises where to lay on the paint. If he visits her when she is dressed, and perceives the least impropriety in her coiffure, he insists on adjusting it with his own hands. If he sees a curl or even a single hair amiss, he produces his comb, his scissors, and pomatum, and sets it to rights with the dexterity of a professed friseur. He squires her to every place she visits, either on business or pleasure; and, by dedicating his whole time to her, renders himself necessary to her occasions. In short of all the coxcombs on the face of the earth, a French *petit maitre* is the most impertinent; and they are all *petits maitres*, from the marquis who glitters in lace and embroidery, to the *garçon barbier* (barber’s boy) covered with meal, who struts with his hair in a long queue, and his hand under his arm.

“A Frenchman will sooner part with his religion than his hair. Even the soldiers in France wear a long queue, and this ridiculous foppery has descended to the lowest class of people. The boy who cleans shoes at the corner of a street, has a tail of this kind hanging down to his rump; and the beggar who drives an ass, wears his hair *en queue*, though, perhaps, he has neither shirt nor breeches.

“I shall only mention one custom more, which seems to carry his man affectation to the very farthest verge of folly and extravagance that is, the manner in which the faces of the ladies are printed and painted. It is generally supposed, that part of the fair sex in other

countries make use of *fard* and vermilion for very different purposes; namely, to help a bad or faded complexion, to heighten the graces, or conceal the defects of nature, as well as the ravages of time. I shall not inquire whether it is just and honest to impose in this manner on mankind; if it is not honest, it may be allowed to be artful and politic, and shows, at least, a desire of being agreeable. But to lay it on, as the fashion in France prescribes to all the ladies of condition, who cannot appear without this badge of distinction, is to disguise themselves in such a manner, as to render them odious and detestable to every spectator who has the least relish left for nature and propriety. As for the *fard* or *white*, with which their necks and shoulders are plaistered, it may be some measure excusable, as their skins are naturally brown, or fallow; but the *rouge*, which is daubed on their faces, from the chin up to the eyes, without the least art or dexterity, not only destroys all distinction of features, but renders the aspect really frightful, or at least conveys nothing but ideas of disgust and aversion. Without this horrible mask, no married lady is admitted at court, or in any polite assembly; and it is a mark of distinction which none of the lower classes dare assume."

The above picture of the manners of the French nation is drawn with wit and spirit; and is in some respects highly characteristic; but it is certainly not a flattering portrait. With all their defects, the French have many good qualities; politeness of manners, attention to strangers, and a general taste for literature among those in the better ranks of life. The French literati have great influence even in the gay and dissipated city of Paris. Their opinions not only determine the merit of works of taste and science, but they have considerable weight with respect to the manners and sentiments of people of rank, and of the public in general, and consequently are not without effect in the measures of government.

[DRESS.] The French dress of both sexes is so well known, that it needs to expatiate upon them here; but, indeed, their dress in cities and towns is so variable, that it is next to impossible to describe. They certainly have more invention in that particular than any of their neighbours, and their constantly changing their fashions is of infinite service to their manufactures.

[RELIGION.] By the laws of the new constitution, no man is to be collected for his opinions, or interrupted in the exercise of his religion. The territorial possessions of the Gallican church have been claimed as national property, and disposed of through the medium of a paper money, called assignats, for the creditors of the state; and the clergy are dependent upon pensionary establishments paid out of the national treasury; out of which are also paid the expenses of worship, the religious, and the poor. All monastic establishments are suppressed; but present friars and nuns are allowed to observe their vows, and nuns are allowed to remain in their convents, or retire upon pensions. The clergy are elective by the people, and take an oath to observe the laws of the new constitution*. They notify to the bishop of Rome their union in doctrine, but do not pay him fees, or acknowledge any subordination to his authority. They are supplied with lodgings upon their livings, whereon they are obliged to reside and perform the duties

* Many of the clergy, called refractory priests, from a conscientious refusal of this oath, have been ejected from their benefices, and many of the popular curates made

of their office. They vote as active citizens, and are eligible to some lay-offices in the districts, but to no principal ones.

[ARCHBISHOPRICKS, BISHOPRICKS, &c.] France, divided into nine metropolitan circles, has a METROPOLITAN BISHOP with a synod in each, besides one for Paris. The metropolitan bishop is confirmed by the eldest bishop in his circle. Appeals are made from the bishops to their synods.

A BISHOP is appointed to each of the eighty-three departments, which form so many dioceses. They are appointed by the electoral assembly of the department, and confirmed by the metropolitan bishop, but must have held an ecclesiastical office fifteen years. The salaries are from 500l. to 840l. per annum. Each diocese has also a seminary, with three vicars, and a vicar-general to prepare students for holy orders; and these vicars form a council for the bishop.

VICARS of bishops are chosen by the bishop from among the clergy of his diocese who have done duty ten years. The salaries are from 84l. to 250l. per annum.

MINISTERS of parishes or *curés* in the districts are confirmed by the bishop, and they must have been vicars to ministers five years. They have salaries from 50l. to 160l. per annum, and, when infirm, receive pensions.

VICARS of ministers are chosen by the minister from among the priests admitted in the diocese by the bishop, and receive salaries from 30l. to 100l. sterling per annum.

France contains more than two millions of non-catholics; and the protestants, who are greatly increasing, are, in proportion to the catholics, as one to twelve. There are already many regular congregations, viz. German Lutherans, French and Swiss Calvinists, Bohemian anabaptists, and Walloon or Flemish dissidents, besides many chapels for the ambassadors. It also contains many Jews.

[LANGUAGE.] One of the wisest measures of Lewis XIV. was his encouragement of every proposal that tended to the purity and perfection of the French language. He succeeded so far as to render it the most universal of all the living tongues; a circumstance that tended equally to his greatness and his glory; for his court and nation thereby became the school of arts, sciences, and politeness. The French is chiefly composed of words radically Latin, with many German derivatives introduced by the Franks. It is now rather on the decay: its corner-stones, fixed under Lewis XIV. are, as it were, loosened; and in the present mode of writing and expressing themselves, the modern French too often disregard that purity of expression which alone can render a language classical and permanent.

As to the properties of the language, they are undoubtedly greatly inferior to the English: but they are well adapted to subjects void of elevation or passion; and well accommodated to dalliance, compliments and common conversation.

The Lord's Prayer in French is as follows: *Notre père, qui es au ciel, ton nom soit sanctifié. Ton regne vienne. Ta volonté soit faite en terre comme au ciel. Donne nous aujourd'hui notre pain quotidien. Pardonne nous nos offenses, comme nous pardonnons à ceux qui nous ont offensés. Et ne nous induis point en tentation, mais nous délivre du mal: car, à toi est le royaume, la puissance, et la gloire aux siècles des siècles. Amen.*

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The French, like the other nations of Europe, were for many centuries immersed in barbarity. The first learning they began to acquire, was not of that kind which

proves the understanding, corrects the taste, or regulates the affections. It consisted in a subtle and quibbling logic, which was more adapted to pervert than to improve the faculties. But the study of the Greek and Roman writers, which first arose in Italy, diffused itself among the French, and gave a new turn to their literary pursuits. This, together with the encouragement which the polite and learned Francis I. gave to all men of merit, was extremely beneficial to French literature. During this reign, many learned men appeared in France, who greatly distinguished themselves by their writings; among whom were Budæus, Clement Marot, Peter du Chatel, Rabelais, and Peter Ramus. The names of Henry and Robert Stephens are also mentioned by every real scholar with respect. It was not, however, till the seventeenth century, that the French began to write with elegance in their own language. The Academie Française was formed for this purpose: and though their labours, considered as a body, were not so successful as might have been expected, some particular academicians have done great service to letters. In fact, literary copartnerships are seldom very successful: Of this we have a remarkable example in the present case. The Academy published a dictionary for improving the French language, which was universally despised; Furetières, a single academician, published another, that met with universal approbation.

Lewis XIV. was the Augustus of France. The protection he gave to letters, and the pensions he bestowed on learned men, both at home and abroad, which, by calculation, did not amount to above 12,000*l.* per annum, have gained him more glory than all the military enterprises, upon which he expended so many millions. The learned men who appeared in France during this reign, are too numerous to be mentioned. Their tragic poets, Racine and Corneille, have deservedly obtained a very high reputation: the first was distinguished for skill in moving the passions; the second for majesty; and both, for the strength and justness of their painting, the elegance of their taste, and their strict adherence to the rules of the drama. Molière would have exhausted the subjects of comedy, were they not every where inexhaustible, and particularly in France. In works of satire and criticism, Boileau, who was a close imitator of the ancients, possessed uncommon merit. But France has not yet produced an epic poem that can be mentioned with Milton's; nor a genius of the same extensive and universal kind with Shakspeare, equally fitted for the gay and the serious, the humorous and the sublime. In the eloquence of the pulpit and of the bar, the French are greatly our superiors; Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Flechier, and Massillon, have carried pulpit eloquence to a degree of perfection which we may approach to, but can hardly be expected ever to surpass. The genius, however, of their religion and government was extremely unfavourable to all improvements in the most useful branches of philosophy. All the establishments of Lewis XIV. for the advancement of science, were not able to counterbalance the influence of the clergy, whose interest it was to keep mankind ignorant in matters of religion and morality; and the influence of the court and ministry, who had an equal interest in concealing the natural rights of mankind, and every sound principle of government. The French have not therefore so many good writers on moral, religious, or political subjects as have appeared in Great Britain. But France has produced some great men who do honour to humanity; whose career no obstacle could stop, whose freedom no government, however despotic, no religion, how-

ever superstitious, could curb or restrain. As an historian, De Thou is entitled to the highest praise; and who is ignorant of Pascal, or of the archbishop of Cambray? Few men have done more service to religion, either by their writings or their lives. As for Montesquieu, he is an honour to human nature: he is the legislator of nations: his works are read in every country and language, and wherever they are read they enlighten and invigorate the human mind. And, indeed, several writers have lately appeared in France, whose writings breathe such sentiments of liberty, as did but ill accord with an arbitrary government; sentiments which have made rapid progress among men of letters and persons in the higher ranks of life, and which, there can be no doubt, have been one considerable cause in producing the late important revolution.

In the belles lettres and miscellaneous way, no nation ever produced more agreeable writers: among whom we may place Montaigne, D'Argens, and Voltaire, as the most considerable.

Before the immortal Newton appeared in England, Descartes was the greatest philosopher in modern times. He was the first who applied algebra to the solution of geometrical problems; which naturally prepared the way for the analytical discoveries of Newton. Many eminent mathematicians have flourished in the present age, particularly Clairaut, Bezout, and D'Alembert; the latter of whom, to the precision of a geometer, has united the talents of a fine writer.

Since the beginning of the present century, the French have almost vied with the English in natural philosophy. Buffon would deserve to be reckoned among men of science, were he not still more remarkable for his eloquence than for his philosophy. He is to be regarded as a philosophical painter of nature; and, under this view, his Natural History is the first work of its kind.

Their painters, Poussin, Le Brun, and, above all, Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Lewis XIV. They have none at present to compare with them in the more noble kind of painting: but Mr. Greuse, for portraits and conversation pieces, never perhaps was excelled.

Sculpture is in general better understood in France than in most other countries of Europe. Their engravings on copper-plates have been universally and justly celebrated; but such a liberal patronage has been afforded to English artists, that they are now thought to excel their ingenious neighbours, and have rivalled them also in the manufacture of paper proper for such impressions. Their treatises on ship-building and engineering stand unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are outdone by the English. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were long our superiors in architecture; though we now are their equals in this art.

The French Encyclopædia, first published in the latter years of Lewis XV. and now republished in a new form, is, perhaps, the best dictionary of arts and sciences ever compiled in any country.

UNIVERSITIES AND PUBLIC COLLEGES.] These literary institutions lost much by the expulsion of the Jesuits, who made the languages, arts, and sciences, their particular study, and taught them all over France. It is not within my plan to describe the different governments and constitutions of every university or public college in France; but they amount in number twenty-eight, as follow: Aix, Angers, Arles, Avignon, Bayeux, Caen, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dol, Douay, La Fleche, Montauban, Montpellier, Nantes, Orange, Orléans, Paris, Perpignan,

Poitiers, Pont-a-Mousson, Richelieu, Rheims, Soissons, Strasbourg, Toulouse, Tournon, and Valence. Among these, the Sorbonne at Paris is the most celebrated.

ACADEMIES.] The following literary establishments were supported out of the national treasury: the French Academy, Academy of Belles Lettres, Academy of Sciences, Royal Society of Medicine, King's Library, Observatory, and the Free School of Design.

**ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Few countries, if we except
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. }** Italy, can boast of more valuable remains of antiquity than France. Some of the French antiquities belong to the time of the Celts; and consequently, compared to them, those of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has given us a most curious account of the sepulchres of their kings, which have been discovered so far back as Pharamond; and some of them, when broke open, were found to contain ornaments and jewels of value. At Rheims, and other parts of France, are to be seen triumphal arches; but the most entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and the Teutones, by Caius Marius and Lucatius Catulus. After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the Romans took delight in adorning it with magnificent edifices, both civil and sacred; some of which are more entire than any to be met with in Italy itself. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found in Chalons, and likewise at Vienne. Nismes, however, exhibits the most valuable remains of ancient architecture of any place in France. The famous Pont du Gard is raised in the Augustan age, by the Roman colony of Nismes, to convey a stream of water between two mountains for the use of that city, and it is as fresh to this day as Westminster-bridge: it consists of three bridges, or tiers of arches, one above another; the height is 174 feet, and the length extends to 723. Many other ruins of antiquity are found at Nismes; but the chief are the temple of Diana, and the amphitheatre, which is thought to be the finest and most entire of the kind of any of Europe; but, above all, the house erected by the emperor Adrian, called the Maison Carrée. The architecture and sculpture of this building are so exquisitely beautiful, that it enchants even the most ignorant: and it is still entire, being very little affected either by the ravages of time, or the havoc of war. At Paris, in la Rue de la Harpe, may be seen the remains of the Thermae, supposed to have been built by the emperor Julian, surnamed the Apostate, about the year 356, after the same model as the baths of Dioclesian. The remains of this ancient edifice are many arches, and within them a large saloon. It is fabricated of a kind of mastic, the composition of which is not now known, intermixed with small square pieces of free-stone and bricks. But the most extraordinary of all artificial curiosities is the subterraneous cavern at Paris. For the first building of that city, it was necessary to get the stone in the environs. As Paris was enlarged, the streets and suburbs extended to and were built on the ancient quarries from which the stone had been taken; and hence proceed the caverns or frightful cavities which are found under the houses in several quarters of the city. Eight persons lately perished in one of them, a gulf of 150 feet deep, which excited the police and government, to cause the buildings of several quarters to be privately propped up. All the suburbs of St. James's, Carpe-street, and even the street of Tournon, stand upon the ancient quarries; and pillars have been erected to support the weight of the houses; but as the lofty buildings, towers, and steeples, now tell the eye what is seen in the air, is wanting under the feet, so it would

not require a very violent shock to throw back the stones to the places from whence they were raised.

At Arles in Provence is to be seen an obelisk of oriental granite, which is 72 feet high, and seven feet diameter at the base, and all but one stone. Roman temples are frequent in France. The most particular are in Burgundy and Guienne; and other places, besides the neighbourhood of Nismes, contain magnificent ruins of aqueducts. The passage cut through the middle of a rock near Briançon in Dauphny, is thought to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of massy silver, taken out of the Rhone in 1665, being twenty inches in diameter, and weighing twenty-one pounds, containing the story of Scipio's continence, is thought to be coeval with that great general.

Some of the modern works of art, particularly the canals, have been before noticed. There are some subterraneous passages and holes especially at St. Aubin in Brittany, and Niont in Dauphny, really stupendous.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] These are numerous in France; of which we shall mention only Paris, Lisle, and their principal sea-ports, Brest, and Toulon.

Lisle, in French Flanders, is thought to be the most regular and strongest fortification in Europe, and was the master-piece of the famous Vauban. It is generally garrisoned with above ten thousand regulars: and, for its magnificence and elegance, it is called little Paris. Its manufactures of silk, cambric, and camblets, are very considerable; and its inhabitants amount to about one hundred thousand. Every reader is acquainted with the history of Dunkirk, which the French were obliged by the treaty of Utrecht to demolish, but is still a thorn in the side of the English, by being a harbour for their smugglers. The rest of French Flanders, and its Netherlands, abound with fortified towns, which carry on very gainful manufactures.

Proceeding southward, we come to the Isle of France; the capital of which, and of the whole kingdom, is Paris. This city has been so often described, that it may appear superfluous to mention it more particularly, were it not that the vanity of the French has given it a preference, which it by no means deserves, to all the capitals in the world, in every respect, not excepting even population. Many of the English have been imposed upon in this point; particularly by the computing from the births and burials within the bills of mortality which exclude the most populous parishes about London. Another mistake lies in computing from births and marriages. The number of dissenters of all kinds in and about London, who do not register the births of their children, is very great; the registers of others are not known by the public; and many of the poorer sort will not afford the small expense of such a registering. Another peculiarity existing in London is, that many of the Londoners, who can afford the expense when they find themselves consumptive, or otherwise indisposed, retire into the country, where they are buried, and thereby excluded from the bills of mortality. The population of Paris, therefore, where the registers are more exact and accessible to the poor, and where the religion and the police are more uniform and strict, is far more easily ascertained than that of London; and by the best accounts it does not exceed seven or eight hundred thousand, which is far short of the inhabitants of London and the contiguous parishes.

Paris is divided into three parts; the city, the university, and the suburb which was formerly called the town. The city is old Paris; the un-

ones to the placés

oriental granite, the base, and all France. The most other places, besides the ruins of aqueducts, rock near Briançon, if not of greater extent out of the Rhone, weighing twenty-one millions, is thought to be

the canals, have been passages and holes in Dauphiny, really stu-

ance; of which we have sea-ports, Brest, and

the most regular and water-piece of the fabric above ten thousand tons, it is called little tonneaux, are very common, are very common, Dunkirk, which is the most famous, but is still a great port for their smugglers, and is surrounded with fortified

France; the capital of this city has been for many years, and has given it a pre-eminence, the capitals in the population. Many of the bills of mortality in London. Another million of people do not register their names, and others are not known, and do not afford the smallest security existing in Low Countries, and thereby exclude the poor, and where the district, is far more easily accounted for, it does not

the university, and the city is old Paris; the un-

iversity and the town are the new. Paris contains more works of public magnificence than utility. Its palaces are showy, and some of its streets, squares, hotels, hospitals, and churches, superbly decorated with a profusion of paintings, tapestry, images, and statues; but Paris, notwithstanding its boasted police, is greatly inferior to London in many of the conveniences of life, and the solid enjoyments of society. Without entering into more minute disquisitions, Paris, it must be owned, is the paradise of splendour and dissipation. The tapestry of the Gobelins * is unequalled for beauty and richness. The Louvre is a building that does honour to architecture itself. It was adorned by many excellent institutions for the arts and sciences, particularly the three academies, and ennobled by the residence of the learned. The Tuilleries, the palace of Luxembourg, where a valuable collection of paintings are shown, the royal palace and library, the guild-hall, and the hospital for invalids, are superb to the highest degree. The city of Paris is said to be fifteen miles in circumference. The hotels of the French noblest at Paris take up a great deal of room with their court-yards and gardens; and so do their convents and churches. The streets are very narrow, and the houses very high, many of them seven stories. The houses are built of stone, and often contain a different family on every floor. The river Seine, which runs through the centre of the city, is not half so large as the Thames at London; it is too far distant from the sea for the purposes of navigation, and is not furnished, as the Thames, with vessels or boats of any sort; over it are many stone and wooden bridges, which have nothing to recommend them. The streets of Paris are generally crowded, particularly with coaches, which gives that capital the appearance of wealth and grandeur; though, in reality, there is more show than substance. The glittering carriages that dazzle the eyes of strangers are mostly common hacks, hired by the day or week to the numerous foreigners who visit that city; and, in truth, the greatest part of the trade of Paris arises from the constant succession of strangers that arrive daily from every nation and quarter of the globe. This ascendancy is undoubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, their public buildings, their libraries, and collections of paintings, that are open to the public; the cheapness of provisions, excellency of the French wines, and above all, the purity of the air and climate in France. With all these advantages, Paris, in general, will not bear a comparison with London, in the more essential circumstances of a thriving foreign and domestic trade, the cleanness of their streets, neatness of their houses, especially within; the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine, which, it is said, disagrees with strangers, as do likewise their small wines. In the houses of Paris most of the floors are of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being sprinkled with water, and swept once a day. These brick floors, the stone stairs, the want of wainscoting in the rooms, and the thick party walls of stone, are, however, good preservatives against fire, which seldom does any damage in this city. Instead of wainscoting, the walls are covered with tapestry or damask. The beds in general are very good, and well ornamented with tester and curtains. Their shops are but poorly stored with goods; and the shop-keepers and tradesmen, an indolent, loitering people, seldom make their appearance before dinner in

* One Gobel, a noted dyer at Rheims, was the first who settled in this place, in the reign of Francis I. and the house has retained his name ever since: and here the great Colbert, about the year 1667, established that valuable manufactory.

any other than a morning dress, or velvet cap, silk night-gown, and Morocco slippers; but when they intend a visit, or going abroad, all the punctilios of a courtier are attended to, and hardly the resemblance of a man remains. There is a remarkable contrast between this class of people and those of the same rank in London. In Paris, the women pack up parcels, enter the orders, and do most of the drudgery business of the shop, while the husband loiters about, talks of the great, of fashions and diversions, and the invincible force of their armies. The splendour of the grand monarch used to be also with them a favourite topic of conversation, previous to the change in their political system. The Parisians, however, as well as the natives of France in general, are remarkably temperate in their living; and to be intoxicated with liquor is considered as infamous. Bread, and all manner of butchers' meat and poultry, are extremely good in Paris; the beef is excellent; the wine they generally drink is a very thin kind of burgundy. The common people, in the summer season, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes, and small wine. The Parisians, till lately, scarcely knew the use of tea; but they have coffee in plenty. The police of Paris used to be so well attended to, that quarrels, accidents, or felonies, seldom happened; and strangers from all quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever so uncommon, met with the most polite treatment. The streets are patrolled at night by horse and foot; so judiciously stationed, that no offender can escape their vigilance. They likewise visited the publicans precisely at the hour of twelve at night, to see that the company were gone; for in Paris no liquor could be had after that time. The public roads in France were under the same excellent regulation, which, with the torture of the rack, prevented robberies in that kingdom; but, for the same reason, when robberies did happen, they were always attended with the death of the unfortunate traveller; and indeed this is the general practice in every country of Europe, Great Britain excepted.

The environs of Paris are very pleasant, and contain a number of fine seats, small towns, and villages; some of them, being scattered on the edges of hills rising from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

The palace of Versailles, which stands twelve miles from Paris, though magnificent and expensive beyond conception, and adorned with all that art can furnish, is a collection of buildings, each of exquisite architecture, but not forming a whole, agreeable to the grand and sublime of that art. The gardens, and water-works (which are supplied by means of prodigious engines, across the Seine at Marli, about three miles distance), are astonishing proofs of the fertile genius of man, and highly worthy of a stranger's attention. Trianon, Marli, St. Germain en Laye, Meudon, and other royal palaces, are laid out with taste and judgment; each has its peculiar beauties for the entertainment and amusement of that luxurious court which lately occupied them; but some of them are in a shameful condition, both as to repairs and cleanliness.

Brest is a small but very strong town, upon the English channel, with a most spacious and finely fortified road and harbour, the best and safest in all the kingdom: yet its entrance is difficult, by reason of many rocks lying under water. At Brest is a court of admiralty, and academy for sea affairs, docks, and magazines for all kinds of naval stores, rope-yards, store-houses, &c. insomuch that it may now be termed the capital receptacle for the navy of France, and is admirably well adapted for that end.

Lewis XIV: rendered Toulon, from a pitiful village, a sea-port of

great importance. He fortified both the town and harbour for the reception and protection of the navy. Its old and its new harbour lie contiguous; and by means of a canal, ships pass from the one to the other, both of them having an outlet into the spacious outer harbour. Its arsenal, established also by that king, has a particular store-house for each ship of war; its guns, cordage, &c. being separately laid up. Here are spacious workshops, for blacksmiths, joiners, carpenters, locksmiths, carvers, &c. Its rope-walk, of stone, is 320 toises or fathoms in length, with three arched walks. Its general magazine supplies whatever may be wanting in the particular store-houses, and contains an immense quantity of all kinds of stores, disposed in the greatest order.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Next to Henry IV. justly styled the Great, the famous Colbert, minister to Lewis XIV. may be called the father of the French commerce and manufactures. Under him there was a great appearance that France would make as illustrious a figure as a trading as she did then as a warlike people; but the truth is, the French do not naturally possess that undaunted perseverance which is necessary for commerce and colonisation, though no people, in theory, understand them better. It is to be considered at the same time, that France, by her situation, by the turn of her inhabitants for certain manufactures, and the happiness of her soil, must be always possessed of great inland and neighbouring trade.

The silk manufacture was introduced into France so late as the reign of Henry IV. and in the age of his grandson Lewis XIV. the city of Tours alone employed 8000 looms, and 800 mills. The city of Lyons then employed 18,000 looms; but after the impolitic and unjust revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulsion of the protestants, and the ruinous wars maintained by France, they decreased to 4000; and their silk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French protestants took refuge, and were happily encouraged. Next to Tours and Lyons, Paris, Chatillon, and Nîmes, are most celebrated for silk manufactures. France contains 1,500 silk mills, 21,000 looms for stuffs, 12,000 for ribbons and lace, 20,000 for silk stockings, all of which employed two millions of people. They also manufacture gloves and stockings from spider-silk. On the other hand, the French woollen cloths and stuffs, more especially at Abbeville, Amiens, and Paris, are said to be now little inferior to those of England, and have greatly injured them, particularly in the Turkish market, assisted by the clandestine importation of English and Irish wool, and workmen from this country.

In manufactures the French have always been distinguished for their invention, and the English for their superior improvement. Abbeville is famous for cloth, linen, sail-cloth, and soap; Auvergne for fine thread, lace, stuffs, and paper; Nîmes for fine serges; Cambray for cambrics; St. Quentin for lawns; and Picardy for plate glass.

The districts adjoining the British channel contain many sheep of the English breed, which are said to degenerate by removal from their native soil.

Besides the infinite advantage arising to her inland commerce, from her rivers, navigable canals, and a connection with two seas, her foreign trade may be said to extend itself all over the globe. It is a doubtful point whether France was a loser by its cession of Canada and part of Louisiana by the peace of 1763. But the most valuable part of Hispaniola in the West Indies which she possessed by the partiality and indolence of

Spain, is a most improvable acquisition, and the most valuable of all her foreign colonies. In the West Indies, she likewise held, till the present war, the important sugar islands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, St. Bartholomew, Deseada, and Marigalante. Her possessions in North America are only a small tract upon the Mississippi.

The French possessions in the East Indies are not very considerable; though, had their genius been more turned for commerce than war, they might have engrossed more territory and revenues than are now in possession of the English; but they over-rated both their own power and their courage, and their East India company never did much. At present (says Mr. Anderson) "her land trade to Switzerland and Italy is by way of Lyons — to Germany, through Metz and Straßburgh — to the Netherlands, through Lille — to Spain (a most profitable one), through Bayonne and Perpignan. As for her naval commerce, her ports in the channel, and on the western ocean, are frequented by all the trading nations in Europe, to the great advantage of France, more especially respecting what is carried on with England, Holland, and Italy. The trade from her Mediterranean ports (more particularly from Marseilles) with Turkey and Africa, has long been very considerable. The negro trade from Guinea supplies her sugar colonies, besides the gold, ivory, and drugs got from thence."

The exports are wine, vinegar, brandy, oil, silks, fatins, linens, woollen cloth, tapestries, laces, gold and silver embroideries, toys, trinkets, perfumery, paper, prints, books, drugs, dyes, &c. The imports are hardware, earthen ware, cottons, metals, hemp, flax, silk, wool, horses, East and West India goods, &c. It employs one million tons of shipping, with near 50,000 seamen; and before the revolution, the imports were valued at 9,583,333*l.* the exports at 12,500,000*l.* and it had a balance of trade of more than two millions in its favour; but its trade and manufactures have since declined.

[**IN TRADE COMPANIES.**] It has no trading companies (having abolished all monopolies) but a bank or *caisse d'escompte*, and a bank of extraordinary.

[**CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.**] France, by the revolution in 1789, founded a *new constitution*, upon the principle that all men are free, and equal in their rights. After the death of the king, in the year 1793, another constitution was framed, and adopted, which was again succeeded by another, usually called the *constitution of the third year*. This still remains in force, at least nominally; for, on certain occasions, we have seen the ruling party exercise a revolutionary power not circumscribed by the limits of any constitution. By this constitution, every man born and resident in France, who is twenty-one years of age, has inscribed his name in the civic register, lived one year on the territory of the republic, and pays a direct contribution, is a French citizen. Foreigners are naturalised by seven years' residence, or marrying a French woman.

The government is vested in the legislative body, and a directory of five members. The legislative body is composed of a council of ancients, of two hundred and fifty members, and a council of five hundred. The members of these councils are elected by the people, who meet, in full right, on the 1st of Germinal (March 21) of each year, in what are called *primary assemblies*, and nominate one elector for every two hundred citizens; which electors compose the *electoral assembly*, and choose, as there may be occasion, the members of the legislative body, the judges of the civil tribunals, and other magistrates.

One third of the members of each of the councils composing the le-

gislative body is renewed every year; the members, therefore, are three years in the exercise of their functions. They may be re-elected immediately once; after which there must be an interval of two years before they can be elected again.

The members of the directory must be forty years of age at least, and must have been members of the legislative body, or general agents of execution; but cannot be chosen till the expiration of one year after they have ceased to be members of the legislative body. The directory is partially renewed by the election of a new member every year. None of the members who have thus gone out can be re-elected till after an interval of five years. The directory provides, according to the laws, for the external and internal security of the republic; it disposes of the armed force, chooses the generals, and superintends the execution of the laws, and the coining of money.

Such is the outline of the French constitution as it stands at present, at least in theory. How long it may remain unaltered by a new revolution, time must discover.

After the reader has been told of the excellency of the climate, and fertility of the soil of France; her numerous manufactures and extensive commerce; her great cities, her numerous towns, sea-ports, rivers, and canals; the cheapness of provisions, wines and liquors; the formidable armies and fleets she has sent forth, to the terror of Europe; and the natural character of her inhabitants, their sprightliness and gaiety; he will undoubtedly conclude that her people are the most opulent and happy in Europe. The reverse, however, appears to be the state of that nation at present; and we do not find that in any former period they were more rich or more happy.

The most obvious causes of this rational poverty took their rise from the ambition and vanity of their kings and courtiers, which led them into schemes of universal dominion, the aggrandisement of their name, and the enslaving of Christendom. Their wars, which they sometimes carried on against one half of Europe, and in which they were generally unfortunate, led them into difficulties to which the ordinary revenues were inadequate; and hence proceeded the arbitrary demands upon the subject, under various pretences, in the name of loans, free gifts, &c. When these failed, other methods, more despotic and unwarrantable, such as raising and reducing the value of money as it suited their own purposes, national bankruptcies, and other grievous oppressions, were adopted, which gave the finishing blow to public credit, and shook the foundations of trade, commerce, and industry, the fruits of which no man could call his own.

When we consider the motives of these wars, a desire to enslave and render miserable the nations around them, that man must be devoid of humanity whose breast is not raised with indignation upon the bare mention of the blood that has been spilt, the miseries and desolations that have happened, and the numerous places that have fallen a sacrifice to their ambition. It appears too plain, that, while they thus grasp after foreign conquest, their country exhibits a picture of misery and beggary. Their towns, very few excepted, make a most dismal and solitary appearance. The shops are mean beyond description. That this is the appearance of their towns, and many of their cities, we may appeal to the observation of any one who has been in that kingdom. We have in another place mentioned the natural advantages of France, where the hills are covered with grapes, and most extensive plains produce excellent crops of corn, rye, and barley. Amidst this profusion of plenty,

the peasant and his family barely existed upon the gleanings, exhibiting a spectacle of indigence hardly credible; and to see him ploughing the ground with a lean cow, ass, and a goat yoked together, excited in an English traveller that pity to which human nature is entitled. The French peasant is now become a citizen; but time must decide whether his situation be essentially and permanently amended.

REVENUES.] Some authors make the amount of the assessed taxes for the year 1792, only 300,000,000 livres, equal to 12,500,000l. sterling, and with the incidental taxes, in all 15,500,000l. sterling; near nine millions less than before the revolution, when the noblesse and clergy were exempted.

All excises and excisemen, tythes, and game laws, are now abolished, and the roads maintained at public expense.

The **REVENUE** in the year 1788, before the revolution, was 20 millions and a half sterling; and its ordinary expenditure exceeded the revenue five millions and a half.

The public **DEBT**, 1784, was £. 141,666,000.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] There is no nation in Europe where the art of war, particularly that part of it relating to gunnery and fortification, is better understood than in France. Besides other methods for cultivating it, there was a royal military academy established purposely for training up 500 young gentlemen at a time, in the several branches of this great art.

ARMY.] The peace establishment of the *army*, for the year 1792, was,

Infantry,	111,000
Cavalry,	30,000
Artillery,	11,000
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Total,	152,000

These are called *troops of the line*, and, along with the volunteer national guards, form an army, at present on the frontiers, of 224,000 men.

The *municipal army*, or national guards, are a kind of embodied militia for the interior defence of the kingdom, and amount to between three and four millions.

The *gendarmerie* are an auxiliary body of troops, for the protection of laws and police.

This was the establishment before the war, but since the attack made upon the French by the allied powers, the number of troops they have brought into the field almost exceeds belief. In the year 1794, they had 780,000 effective men in arms, which force was distributed as follows:

The army of the north,	220,000
The united armies of the Rhine and Moselle,	280,000
The army of the Alps,	60,000
The army of the eastern Pyrenees,	80,000
The army of the south,	60,000
The army of the west,	80,000
	<hr/>
Total,	780,000

NAVY.] The report of the minister, towards the close of the year

1791, states the ships in good condition to be eighty-six of the line, and, including those building, as follows:

Large first rates,	8
100 guns,	5
80 guns,	10
74 guns,	67
64 guns,	1
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Total,	91
Frigates,	78

besides fireships, corvettes, galleys, and cutters. But from this account we must probably make a deduction, in consequence of the naval successes of England; and the ships destroyed at Toulon and in different sea-engagements.

There are twenty-eight of the line and five frigates in commission, and 80,000 seamen, with officers registered to man the fleet; but the French navy is at present without proper subordination.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, NOBILITY, } The NATIONAL ASSEMBLY, de-
AND ORDERS. } sires of establishing the French
constitution on the principles it has declared, abolished, irrevocably, those institutions which are injurious to liberty and equality of rights.

There is no longer any nobility, nor peerage, nor hereditary distinctions, nor difference of orders, nor feudal government, nor patrimonial jurisdiction, nor any of the titles, denominations, and prerogatives, which are derived from them; nor any of the orders of chivalry, corporations, or decorations, for which proofs of nobility were required; nor any kind of superiority but that of public functionaries in the exercise of their functions.

Royalty, which was one branch of the ancient constitution, is now abolished, and the unfortunate monarch decapitated.

[HISTORY.] The history of no country is better authenticated than that of France, and it is particularly interesting to an English reader. This kingdom, which was by the Romans called Transalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to distinguish it from Cisalpine Gaul, on the Italian side of the Alps, was probably peopled from Italy, to which it lies contiguous. Like other European nations, it soon became a desirable object to the ambitious Romans; and, after a brave resistance, was annexed to their empire, by the invincible arms of Julius Cæsar, about forty-eight years before Christ. Gaul continued in the possession of the Romans, till the downfall of that empire in the fifth century, when it became a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the Franks, who subdued but did not extirpate the ancient natives. The Franks themselves, who gave it the name of France, or Frankenland, were a collection of several people inhabiting Germany, and particularly the Salii, who lived on the banks of the river Sale, and who cultivated the principles of jurisprudence better than their neighbours. These Salii had a rule, which the rest of the Franks are said to have adopted, and has been by the modern Franks applied to the succession of the throne, excluding all females from the inheritance of sovereignty, and is well known by the name of the *Salic Law*.

The Franks and Burgundians, after establishing their power, and reducing the original natives to a state of slavery, parcelled out the lands among their principal leaders; and succeeding kings found it necessary to

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confirm their privileges, allowing them to exercise sovereign authority in their respective governments, until they at length assumed an independency, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave rise to those numerous principalities that were formerly in France, and to the several parliaments; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the whole kingdom; and no laws were made, or taxes raised, without the concurrence of the grand council, consisting of the clergy and of the nobility.

Thus, as in other European nations, immediately after the dissolution of the Roman empire, the first government in France seems to have been a kind of mixed monarchy, and the power of their kings extremely circumscribed and limited by the feudal barons.

The first Christian monarch of the Franks (according to Daniel, one of the best French historians) was Clovis, who began his reign anno 481, and was baptised, and introduced Christianity, in the year 496; the mind of Clovis had been affected by the pathetic tale of the passion and the death of Christ; and, insensible of the beneficial consequences of the mysterious sacrifice, he exclaimed, with religious fervour, "Had I been present with my valiant Franks, I would have revenged his injuries." But though he publicly professed to acknowledge the truth of the gospel, its divine precepts were but little respected. From this period the French history exhibits a series of great events; and we find them generally engaged in domestic broils, or foreign wars. The first race of their kings, prior to Charlemagne, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then over-ran Europe, and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity. In the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, whom we have often mentioned as the glory of those dark ages, became master of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and was crowned king of the Romans by the pope: he divided his empire, by will, among his sons; which proved fatal to his family and posterity. Soon after this, the Normans, a fierce warlike people from Norway, Denmark, and other parts of Scandinavia, ravaged the kingdom of France; and, about the year 900, obliged the French to yield Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo their leader, who married the king's daughter, and was persuaded to profess himself a Christian. This laid the foundation of the Norman power in France, which afterwards gave a king to England, in the person of William duke of Normandy, who subdued Harold, the last Saxon king, in the year 1066. This event proved unfortunate and ruinous to France, as it engaged that nation in almost perpetual wars with England, for whom it was not an equal match, notwithstanding its numbers, and the assistance it received from Scotland.

The rage of crusading, which broke out at this time, was of infinite service to the French crown, in two respects: in the first place it carried off hundreds of thousands of its turbulent subjects, and their leaders, who were almost independent of the king: in the next, the king succeeded to the estates of many of the nobility, who died abroad without heirs.

But, passing over the dark ages of the crusades, their expedition to the Holy Land, and wars with England, which have already been mentioned, we shall proceed to that period when the French began to extend their influence over Europe, in the reign of Francis I. contemporary with Henry VIII. of England. This prince, though he was brave to excess in his own person, and had defeated the Swifs, who till then were deemed invincible, was an unfortunate warrior. He had great abilities and great defects. He was a candidate for the empire of Germany, but

lost the imperial crown, Charles V. of the house of Austria, and king of Spain, being chosen. In the year 1520, Francis having invited Henry VIII. of England to an interview, the two kings met in an open plain, near Calais, where they and their attendants displayed their magnificence, with such emulation and profuse expense, as gave it the name of the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*. Feats of chivalry, parties of galantry, together with such exercises and pastimes as were in that age reckoned manly or elegant, rather than serious business, occupied both courts, during eighteen days that they continued together*. Francis made some successful expeditions against Spain, but suffered his mother, of whom he was very fond, to abuse his power: by which he disoblged the constable of Bourbon, the greatest of his subjects, who joined in a confederacy against him with the emperor and Henry VIII. of England. In his adventurous expedition into Italy, he was taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia, in the year 1524, and obliged to agree to dishonourable terms, which he never meant to perform, to regain his liberty. His non-performance of those conditions was afterwards the source of many wars between him and the emperor; and he died in 1547.

France, at the time of his death, notwithstanding the variety of disagreeable events during the late reign, was in a flourishing condition. Francis I. was succeeded by his son Henry II. who, upon the whole, was an excellent and fortunate prince. He continued the war with the emperor of Germany to great advantage for his own dominions; and was so well served by the duke of Guise, that, though he lost the battle of St. Quentin, against the Spaniards and the English, he retook Calais from the latter, who never since had any footing in France. He married his son the dauphin to Mary queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that kingdom to his crown; but in this scheme, he, or rather his country, was unfortunate, as may be seen in the history of Scotland. He was killed in the year 1559, at an unhappy tilting-match, by the count of Montgomey.

He was succeeded by his son Francis II. a weak, sickly, inactive prince, and only thirteen years of age, whose power was entirely engrossed by a prince of the house of Guise, uncle to his wife, the beautiful queen of Scotland. This engrossment of power encouraged the Bourbon, the Montmorenci, and other great families, to form a strong opposition against the government. Antony, king of Navarre, was at the head of the Bourbon family; but the queen-mother, the famous Catharine of Medicis, being obliged to take part with the Guises, the confederacy, who had adopted the cause of hugonotism, was broken in pieces, when the sudden death of Francis happened, in the year 1560.

* The French and English historians describe the pomp of this interview, and the various spectacles, with great minuteness. One circumstance mentioned by the *marechal de Fleuranges*, who was present, and which appears singular in the present age, is commonly omitted. "After the tournament," says he, "the French and English wrestlers made their appearance, and wrestled in presence of the kings and the ladies; and as there were many stout wrestlers there, it afforded excellent pastime; but as the king of France had neglected to bring any wrestlers out of Breragne, the English gained the prize.—After this the kings of France and England retired to a tent, where they drank together, and the king of England seizing the king of France by the collar, said, "My brother, I must wrestle with you," and endeavoured once or twice to trip up his heels; but the king of France, who was a dexterous wrestler, twisted him round, and threw him on the earth, with prodigious violence. The king of England wanted to renew the combat, but was prevented."—*Memoires de Fleuranges*, 12mo. Paris, 1753, p. 329.

This event took place while the prince of Condé, brother to the king of Navarre, was under sentence of death, for a conspiracy against the court; but the queen-mother saved him, to balance the interest of the Guises; so that the sole direction of affairs fell into her hands, during the minority of her second son, Charles IX. Her regency was a continued series of dissimulation, treachery, and murder. The duke of Guise, who was the scourge of the protestants, was assassinated by one Poltrot, at the siege of Orléans; and the murderer was unjustly thought to have been instigated by the famous Coligni, admiral of France, who was then at the head of the protestant party. Three civil wars succeeded. At length the court pretended to grant the hugonots a very advantageous peace; and a match was concluded between Henry, the young king of Navarre, a protestant, and the French king's sister. The heads of the protestants were invited to celebrate the nuptials at Paris, with the infernal view of butchering them all, if possible, in one night. The project proved but too successful, though it was not completely executed, on St. Bartholomew's day, 1572. The king himself assisted in the massacre, in which the admiral Coligni fell. The signal for the inhuman slaughter of so many thousands was to be made by striking the great bell of the palace. At that dreadful knell, the work of death was begun, and humanity recoils from the horrors of the fatal night of St. Bartholomew; yet the reader may expect, amidst the general carnage, that some few moments should be devoted to the fate of Coligni. He had long retired to rest, when he was aroused by the noise of the assassins, who had surrounded his house. A German, named Besme, entered his chamber; and the admiral, apprehending his intentions, prepared to meet death with that fortitude which had ever distinguished him. Incapable of resistance, from the wounds he had received by two balls in a late attempt to assassinate him, with an undismayed countenance, he had scarce uttered the words, "young man, respect these grey hairs, nor stain them with blood," when Besme plunged his sword into his bosom, and, with his barbarous associates, threw the body into the court. The young duke of Guise contemplated it in silence; but Henry, count d'Angoulême, natural brother to Charles, spurned it with his foot, exclaiming, "Courage, my friends! we have begun well; let us finish in the same manner." It is said that about 30,000 protestants were murdered at Paris, and other parts of France: and this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a fresh peace was concluded in 1573 with the protestants, yet a fifth civil war broke out the next year, when the bloody Charles IX. died without heirs.

His third brother, the duke of Anjou, had some time before been chosen king of Poland; and hearing of his brother's death, he with some difficulty escaped to France, where he took quiet possession of that crown, by the name of Henry III.

Religion at that time supplied to the reformed nobility of France the feudal powers they had lost. The heads of the protestants could raise armies of hugonots. The governors of provinces behaved in them as if they had been independent of the crown; and the parties were so equally balanced, that the name of the king alone turned the scale. A *holy league* was formed for the defence of the catholic religion, at the head of which was the duke of Guise. The protestants, under the prince of Condé and the duke of Alençon, the king's brother, called the German princes to their assistance; and a sixth civil war broke out in 1577, in which the king of Spain took the part of the league, in revenge of the duke of Alençon declaring himself lord of the Netherlands. The civil

war was finished within the year, by another pretended peace. The king, from his first accession to the crown, had plunged himself into a course of infamous debauchery and religious extravagancies. He was entirely governed by his profligate favourites, but he possessed natural good sense. He began to suspect that the proscriptions of the protestants, and the setting aside from the succession the king of Navarre, on account of his religion, which was aimed at by the holy league, was with a view to place the duke of Guise, the idol of the Roman catholics, on the throne, to which that duke had some distant pretensions. To secure himself on the throne, a seventh civil war broke out in 1579, and another in the year 1585, both of them to the disadvantage of the protestants, through the abilities of the duke of Guise. The king thought him now so dangerous, that, after inviting him in a friendly manner to court, both he, and his brother the cardinal, were by his majesty's orders, and in a manner under his eyes, safely assassinated in 1588. The leaguers, upon this, declared that Henry had forfeited his crown, and was an enemy to religion. This obliged him to throw himself into the arms of the protestants: but while he was besieging Paris, where the leaguers had their greatest force, he was in his turn assassinated by one Clement, a young enthusiastic monk, in 1589. In Henry III. ended the line of Valois.

The readers of history are well acquainted with the difficulties, on account of his religion, which Henry IV. king of Navarre*, head of the house of Bourbon, and the next heir by the Salic law, had to encounter before he mounted the throne. The leaguers were headed by the duke of Maine, brother to the late duke of Guise; and they drew from his cell the decrepit cardinal of Bourbon, uncle of the king of Navarre, to proclaim him king of France. Their party being strongly supported by the power of Spain and Rome, all the glorious actions performed by Henry, his courage and magnanimity, seemed only to make him more illustriously unfortunate: for he and his little court were sometimes without common necessaries. He was, however, personally beloved; and no objection lay against him, but that of religion. The leaguers, on the other hand, split among themselves; and the French nation in general being jealous of the Spaniards, who availed themselves of the public distractions, Henry, after experiencing a variety of good and bad fortune, came secretly to a resolution of declaring himself Roman catholic. This was called a measure of prudence, if not of necessity, as the king of Spain had offered his daughter Isabella Clara Eugenia to be queen of France, and would have married her to the young duke of Guise.

In 1593, Henry went publicly to mass, as a mark of his conversion. His complaisance wrought wonders in his favour; and having with great difficulty obtained absolution from the pope, all France submitted to his authority, and he had only the crown of Spain to contend with; which he did for several years with various fortune. In 1598, he published the famous edict of Nantes; which secured to his old friends the protestants, the free exercise of their religion; and next year the treaty of Ruvens was concluded with Spain. Henry next chastised the duke of Mayno, who had taken advantage of the late troubles in his kingdom; and applied himself with wonderful attention and success (assisted in all his undertakings by his minister, the great Sully) to cultivate the hap-

* A small kingdom lying upon the Pyrenean mountains, of the greatest part of the Upper Navarre, Henry's predecessors had been unjustly dispossessed by Ferdinand king of Spain, about the year 1512.

piness of his people, by encouraging manufactures, particularly that of silk, the benefit of which France experiences at this day. Having re-established the tranquillity, and in a great measure secured the happiness of his people, he formed connections with the neighbouring powers, for reducing the ambition of the house of Austria; for which purpose, it is said, he had formed great schemes, and collected a formidable army; others say (for his intention does not clearly appear), that he designed to have formed Christendom into a great republic, of which France was to be the head, and to drive the Turks out of Europe; while others attribute his preparations to more ignoble motives, that of a criminal passion for a favourite princess, whose husband had carried her for protection into the Austrian dominions. Whatever may be in these conjectures, it is certain, that, while he was making preparations for the coronation of his queen, Mary of Medicis, and was ready to enter upon his grand expedition, he was assassinated in his coach, in the streets of Paris, by one Ravallac, another young enthusiast like Clement, in 1610.

Lewis XIII. son to Henry IV. deservedly named the Great, was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death. As he grew up, he discarded his mother and her favourites, and chose for his minister the famous cardinal Richelieu, who put a period, by his resolute and bloody measures, to the remaining liberties of France, and to the religious establishment of the protestants there, by taking from them Rochelle, though Charles I. of England, who had married the French king's sister, made some weak efforts, by his fleet and arms, to prevent it. This put an end to the civil wars on account of religion in France. Historians say, that in these wars above a million of men lost their lives; that 150,000,000 livres were spent in carrying them on; and that nine cities, four hundred villages, two thousand churches, two thousand monasteries, and ten thousand houses, were burnt or otherwise destroyed, during their continuance.

Richelieu, by a masterly train of politics, though himself bigoted to popery, supported the protestants of Germany, and Gustavus Adolphus against the house of Austria. After quelling all the rebellions and conspiracies which had been formed against him in France, he died some months before Lewis XIII. who, in 1643, left his son, afterwards the famous Lewis XIV. to inherit his kingdom.

During that prince's non-age, the kingdom was torn in pieces into the administration of his mother Anne of Austria, by the factions of the great, and the divisions between the court and parliament, for the most trifling causes, and upon the most despicable principles. The prince Condé shined like a blazing star; sometimes a patriot, sometimes a courtier, and sometimes a rebel. He was opposed by the celebrated Turenne, who from a protestant had turned papist. The nation France was involved at once in civil and domestic wars; but the queen-mother having made choice of cardinal Mazarin for her first minister, he found means to turn the arms even of Cromwell against the Spaniards, and to divide the domestic enemies of the court so effectually among themselves, that, when Lewis assumed the reins of government in his own hands, he found himself the most absolute monarch that ever sat upon the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the death of Mazarin, to put the domestic administration of his affairs into the hands of Colbert, who formed new systems for the glory, commerce and manufactures of France, in all of which he was extremely successful.

To write the history of this reign, would be to write that of all Europe.

particularly that of his day. Having secured the happiness, labouring powers, for such purpose, it is said, a formidable army; others that he designed to have such France was to be while others attribute a criminal passion for her for protection into these conjectures, it is upon his grand expectations of Paris, by one in 1610.

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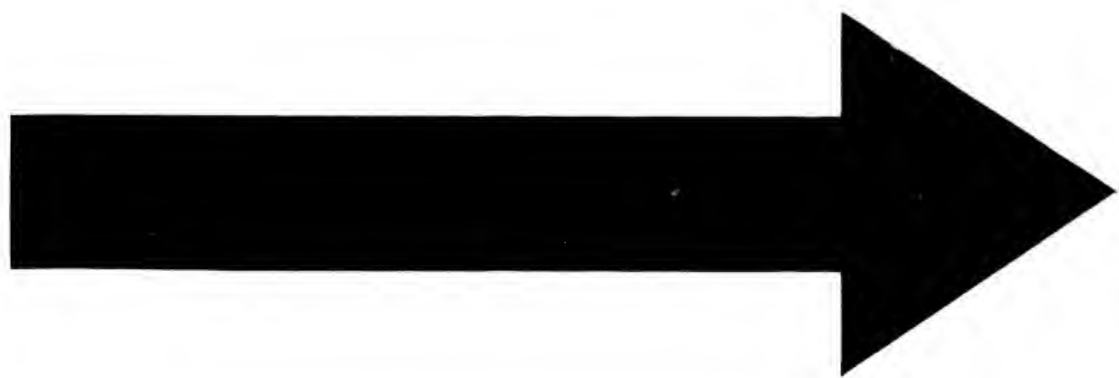
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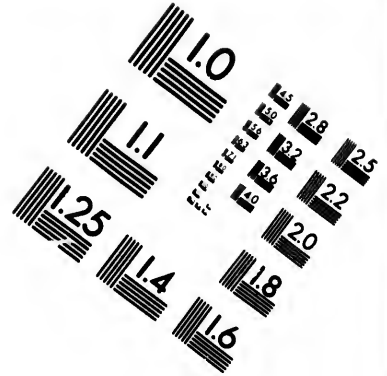
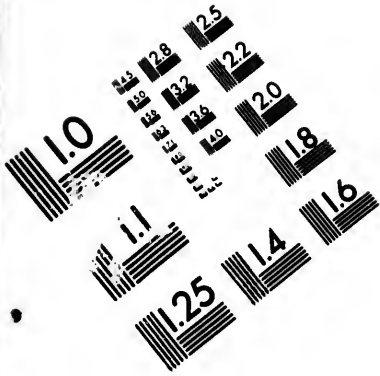
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Ignorance and ambition were the only enemies of Lewis; through the former, he was blind to every patriotic duty of a king, and promoted the interests of his subjects only that they might the better answer the purposes of his greatness: by the latter he embroiled himself with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a dismal scene of devastation. By his impolitic and unjust revocation of the edict of Nantes in the year 1685, and his persecutions of the protestants, he obliged them to take shelter in England, Holland, and different parts of Germany, where they established the silk manufacture, to the great prejudice of their own country. He was so blinded by flattery, that he arrogated to himself the divine honours paid to the pagan emperors of Rome. He made and broke treaties for his own convenience, and at last raised against himself a confederacy of almost all the other princes of Europe; at the head of which was king William III. of England. He was so well served, that he made head for some years against this alliance; but having provoked the English by his repeated infidelities, their arms, under the duke of Marlborough, and the Austrians, under the prince Eugene, rendered the latter part of his life as miserable as the beginning of it had been splendid. His reign, from the year 1702 to 1712, was one continued series of defeats and calamities; and he had the mortification of seeing those places taken from him; which, in the former part of his reign, were acquired at the expense of many thousand lives. Just as he was reduced, old as he was, to the desperate resolution of collecting his people, and dying at their head, he was saved, by the English Tory ministry deserting the cause, withdrawing from their allies, and concluding the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. He survived his demerit worthy of his elevated situation; "Why do you weep?" said he to his domestics, "Did you think me immortal?" He died on the 1st of September, 1715, and was succeeded by his great-grand-son, Lewis XV. The partiality of Lewis XIV. to his natural children might have involved France in a civil war, had not the regency been seized upon by the duke of Orléans, a man of sense and spirit, and the next legitimate prince of the blood, who having embroiled himself with Spain, the king was declared of age in 1722, and the regent, on the 5th of December 1723, was carried off by an apoplexy.

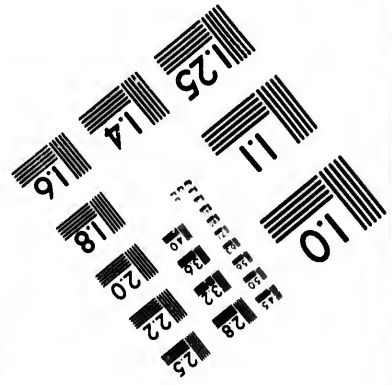
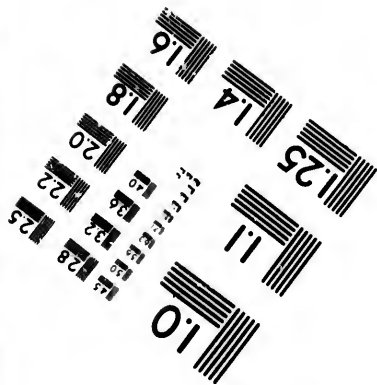
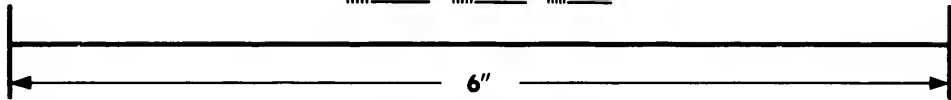
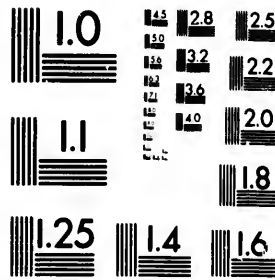
Among the first acts of the government of Louis XV. was his nominating his preceptor, afterwards cardinal Fleury, to be his first minister. Though his system was entirely pacific, yet the situation of affairs in Europe, upon the death of the king of Poland in 1734, more than once embroiled him with the house of Austria. The intention of the French king was to replace his father-in-law, Stanislaus, on the throne of Poland. In this he failed, through the interposition of the Russians and Austrians; but Stanislaus enjoyed the title of king, and the revenues of Lorraine, during the remainder of his life, and the connection between France and Spain forced the former to become principals in a war against Great Britain, which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748.

In the year 1757, Francis Damien, an unhappy wretch, whose sullen and, naturally unsettled, was inflamed by the disputes between the king and his parliament relative to religion, embraced the desperate resolution of attempting the life of his sovereign. In the dusk of the evening, as the king prepared to enter his coach, he was suddenly wounded, though slightly, with a penknife, between the fourth and fifth ribs, in the presence of his son, and in the midst of his guards. The daring





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assassin had mingled with the crowd of courtiers, and was instantly betrayed by his distracted countenance. He declared it was never his intention to kill the king; but that he only meant to wound him, that God might touch his heart, and incline him to restore the tranquillity of his dominions by re-establishing the parliament, and banishing the archbishop of Paris, whom he regarded as the source of the present commotions. In these frantic and incoherent declarations he persisted amidst the most exquisite tortures; and after human ingenuity had been exhausted in devising new modes of torment, his judges, tired out with his obstinacy, consigned him to a death, the inhumanity of which is increased by the evident madness that stimulated him to the desperate attempt; and which might fill the hearts of savages with horror. He was conducted to the common place of execution, amidst a vast concourse of the populace; stripped naked, and fastened to the scaffold by iron gyves. One of his hands was then burnt in liquid flaming sulphur. His thighs, legs, and arms, were torn with red hot pincers; boiling oil, melted lead, resin, and sulphur, were poured into the wounds; and, to complete the horrid catastrophe, he was torn to pieces by horses.

The Jesuits having rendered themselves universally odious by their share in the conspiracy against the late king of Portugal, fell in France under the lash of the civil power, for certain fraudulent mercantile transactions. They refused to discharge the debts of one of their body, who had become bankrupt for a large sum, and who was supposed to act for the benefit of the whole society. As a monk, indeed, he must necessarily do so. The parliament eagerly seized an opportunity of humbling their spiritual enemies. The Jesuits were every where cited before those high tribunals in 1761, and ordered to do justice to their creditors. They seemed to acquiesce in the decision, but delayed payment under various pretences. New suits were commenced against them, in 1762, on account of the pernicious tendency of their writings. In the course of these proceedings, which the king endeavoured in vain to prevent, they were compelled to produce their *Institute*, or the rules of their order, hitherto studiously concealed. That mysterious volume, which was found to contain maxims subversive of all civil government, and even of the fundamental principles of morals, completed their ruin. All their colleges were seized, all their effects confiscated; and the king, ashamed or afraid to protect them, not only resigned them to their fate, but finally expelled them the kingdom, by a solemn edict, and utterly abolished the order of Jesus in France.

Elated with this victory over ecclesiastical tyranny, the French parliaments attempted to set bounds to the absolute power of the crown, and seemed determined to confine it within the limits of law. Not satisfied with refusing, as usual, to register certain oppressive edicts, or with remonstrating against them, they ordered criminal prosecutions to be commenced against the governors of several provinces, acting in the king's name, who had enforced the registration of those edicts. The magnanimity of these assemblies had awakened new ideas in the bosoms of the French; they were taught by the late remonstrances to consider their inherent rights; and this flame, in the succeeding reign, burst forth with accumulated force, and overwhelmed the throne of despotism.

As to the war with Great Britain, which was ended by the peace of Fontainebleau in 1763, the chief events attending it, so humiliating to France, have been already mentioned in the history of England, and therefore need not be recapitulated here.

Corfica, a small island in the Mediterranean, had long resisted with manly firmness the oppressive councils of the Genoese, who claimed the sovereignty over it by right of conquest. But, unable to support those pretensions, Genoa transferred them to France, on condition that Lewis should put her in full possession of the adjacent island of Capraia, which the Corsicans had lately invaded and reduced. To execute his engagements, powerful armaments were fitted out by Lewis, at Antibes and Toulon; twenty battalions of French were landed in Corfica; and the natives, whose free suffrages had summoned Paoli, one of their principal chiefs, to the supreme government of the island, determined to defend their liberties to the utmost.

A sharp and bloody war, such as suited the inferior numbers of the inhabitants and the nature of the country, was carried on in all the fastnesses and mountainous parts of the island; and it was not till after the French had fatally experienced, in two successive campaigns, the enthusiastic courage which animates the champions of freedom, that they overwhelmed by their superior numbers this unfortunate people; nor had Lewis much reason to triumph in an acquisition, to attain which, he had sacrificed several thousands of his bravest troops, and only extended his dominion over a rugged and unproductive island.

The late unfortunate king, Lewis XVI. succeeded his grandfather, Lewis XV. on the 10th of May, 1774. Several regulations were made after his accession, highly favourable to the general interests of the nation, particularly the suppression of the *Moufquetaires*, and some other corps, which, being adapted more to the parade of guarding the royal person than any real military service, were supported at a great expense, without an adequate return of benefit to the state. One remarkable circumstance which attended this reign, was the placing of Mr. Necker, a protestant, and a native of Switzerland, at the head of the French finances, in 1776. Possessed of distinguished and acknowledged abilities, his appointment would have excited no surprise, had it not been contrary to the constant policy of France, which had carefully excluded the aliens of her country and faith from the controul of the revenue. Under the direction of Necker, a general reform took place in France, through every department in the revenue. When hostilities commenced, in 1777, between France and Great Britain in consequence of the assistance afforded by the former to the revolted British colonies in America, the people of France were not burthened with new taxes for carrying on the war; but the public revenue was augmented by the economy, improvements, and reformation, that were introduced into the management of the finances. In consequence of this national economy, the navy of France was also raised to so great a height, as to become truly formidable to Great Britain.

Actuated by a laudable zeal to extend the limits of science, Lewis fitted out several vessels for astronomical discoveries. The chevalier de Borda was instructed to ascertain the exact position of the Canary islands and Cape de Verd; and the different degrees of the coast of Africa from Cape Spartel to the island of Goree. The chevalier Grenier, who had traversed the Indian seas to improve the charts and correct the errors of former navigators, was likewise liberally rewarded.

The visit of the emperor of Germany to the court of Paris was another occurrence that excited the attention of Europe. He chose to travel under the humble title of count Falkenstein; he was received by Lewis with that respect which was due to the imperial dignity, and the regard that he was impatient to testify to the brother of his royal consort. Dur-

ing six weeks that the emperor remained at Paris, his hours were incessantly devoted to examine the various establishments of that capital, and in viewing the manufactures. With the same spirit of inquiry, he made a tour through the different provinces of the kingdom, and in his journey endeavoured to glean whatever might be advantageous to his own dominions.

Amidst the fury of war, Lewis displayed a regard for science. Previous to the commencement of hostilities, the English had sent two vessels into the South seas, commanded by captains Cook and Clerke, to explore the coasts and islands of Japan and California; the return of those vessels was hourly expected in Europe; and Lewis, with a considerate humanity which reflects the highest honour on his character, by a circular letter to all his naval officers, commanded them to abstain from all hostilities against these ships, and to treat them as neutral vessels. The letters mentioned also in terms of the greatest respect captain Cook, who had long distinguished himself in successive voyages of discovery. But death allowed not that celebrated navigator to enjoy this grateful testimony to his merit; for in one of the newly-discovered islands, he had already fallen a victim to the blind fury of the savage inhabitants.

At the beginning of the year 1780, in consequence of the representations of Mr. Necker, a variety of unnecessary offices in the household of the queen were abolished; and sundry other important regulations adopted, for the ease of the subject, and the general benefit of the kingdom. Could we implicitly credit his memorial, he changed the excess of the disbursements (at least one million sterling) of the year 1776, into an excess of revenue in the year 1780, to the amount of 445,000*l*. But the measures of Mr. Necker were not calculated to procure him friends at court: the vain, the interested, and the ambitious, naturally became his enemies; and the king appears not to have possessed sufficient firmness of mind to support an upright and able minister. He was therefore displaced, and is said to have been particularly opposed by the queen's party.

The freedom of America had been the grand object of France; and that having been acknowledged in the fullest and most express terms by Great Britain, the preliminary articles of peace were signed at Paris on the 20th of January 1783; but the immense expences incurred were found at last to be much more than the revenues of the kingdom could by any means support; and the miserable exigencies to which government was reduced, contributed no doubt to bring about the late revolution.

In the various wars of France with England, particularly in the last and present centuries, no object appeared of more consequence to her naval operations than the obtaining a port in the Channel. With a view of obviating this want, the ablest engineers in that kingdom have proceeded, by the most astonishing and stupendous works, to render the port of Cherbourg capable of receiving and protecting a royal navy. For several years after the last peace, they prosecuted this work at an annual expence of upwards of 200,000*l*.

In the year 1786 a treaty of navigation and commerce was concluded between the two courts of London and Versailles, as we have already noticed in our account of England.

The ambition of the French government, which made it acquainted with liberty in assisting the insurgents in America and Holland, excited a spirit amongst the people, which could not well admit of the conti-

ance of arbitrary power at home. The dismissal of monsieur Necker from the direction of public affairs, and succeeding ministers being endowed neither with his integrity nor abilities, the finances of the nation were on the point of being entirely ruined. When the edict for registering the loan at the conclusion of 1785, which amounted to the sum of three millions three hundred and thirty thousand pounds, was presented to the parliament of Paris, the murmurs of the people, and the remonstrances of that assembly, assumed a more legal and formidable form. The king, however, signified to the select deputations that were commissioned to convey to him their remonstrances, that he expected to be obeyed without farther delay. The ceremony of registering took place on the next day, but was accompanied with a resolution, importing, that public economy was the only genuine source of abundant revenue, the only means of providing for the necessity of the state, and restoring that credit which borrowing had reduced to the brink of ruin. This proceeding was no sooner known than the king required the attendance of the grand deputation of parliament; he erased from their records the resolution that had been adopted; and declared himself satisfied with the conduct of Monsieur de Calonne, his comptroller-general.

However gratified by the support of his sovereign, monsieur de Calonne could not fail of feeling himself deeply mortified by the opposition of the parliament. An anxious inquiry into the state of the public finances had convinced him that the expenditure had far exceeded the revenues; in the present situation, to impose new taxes was impossible, to continue the method of borrowing was ruinous, and to have recourse only to economical reforms, would be found wholly inadequate; and he hesitated not to declare that it would be impossible to place the finances on a solid basis, but by the reformation of whatever was vicious in the constitution of the state. To give weight to this reform, the minister was sensible that something more was necessary than royal authority; he perceived that the parliament was neither a fit instrument for introducing a new order into public affairs, nor would submit to be a passive machine for sanctioning the plans of a minister, even if those plans were the emanations of perfect wisdom.

Under these circumstances, the only alternative that seemed to remain was to have recourse to some other assembly, more dignified and solemn in its character, and that should consist, in a greater degree, of members from the various orders of the state, and the different provinces of the kingdom. But the true and legitimate assembly of the nation, the states-general, had not met since the year 1614. Another assembly had occasionally been substituted in the room of the states-general; this was distinguished by the title of the *notables*, or men of note, and consisted of a number of persons from all parts of the kingdom, chiefly selected from the higher orders of the state, and nominated by the king himself. This assembly had been convened by Henry the Fourth, and again by Lewis the Thirteenth; and was now once more summoned by the authority of the present monarch; and the 29th of January, 1787, was the period appointed for their opening.

It was under great difficulties that monsieur de Calonne first met the assembly of the notables, and opened his long-expected plan. He began by stating that the public expenditure had for centuries past exceeded the revenues; that a very considerable deficiency had of course existed; and that at his own accession to office it was three millions three hundred and thirty thousand pounds.

To remedy this evil, the comptroller-general recommended a territorial impost, in the nature of the English land-tax, from which no rank or order of men were to be exempted; and an inquiry into the possessions of the clergy, which hitherto had been exempted from bearing a proportion of the public burthens. The various branches of interual taxation were also to undergo a strict examination; and a considerable resource was presented in mortgaging the demesne lands of the crown.

Before monsieur Necker retired from the management of the finances, he had published his "Compte rendu au Roi," in which France was represented as possessing a clear surplus of four hundred and twenty-five thousand pounds sterling. This performance had been read with avidity, and had been considered as an æra in the history of France. The credit of this statement was ably vindicated by monsieur de Brienne, archbishop of Toulouse, and by the count de Mirabeau, a still more formidable enemy to Calonne. His eloquence, however, might have successfully vindicated his system and reputation against the calculations of Brienne, and invectives of Mirabeau; but the genius of the comptroller-general sunk under the influence of the three great bodies of the nation. The grand and essential object of reform was to equalise the public burthens, and, by rendering the taxes general, to diminish the load of the lower and most useful classes of the people. The ancient nobility and the clergy had ever been free from all public assessment; the crowds of new noblesse, who had purchased their patents, were by that shameful custom exempted, both themselves and their posterity, from contributing proportionably to the expenses of the state: the magistracies likewise throughout the kingdom enjoyed their share of exemptions; so that the whole weight of the taxes fell on those who were least able to bear them. Thus the nobility, the clergy, and the magistracy, were united against the minister; and the event was such as might be expected. The intrigues of those three bodies raised against him so loud a clamour, that, finding it impossible to stem the torrent, monsieur de Calonne not only resigned his place on the 12th of April, but soon after retired to England from the storm of persecution.

The notables proceeded in their inquiries; and it was now suggested that an assembly of the states should be called, as the notables were not competent to impose a new tax. As the deliberations of the notables were not carried on in secret, this proposal was instantly circulated through the capital, and supposed to be a new discovery. The notables were soon after dissolved, without having accomplished any thing except the justification of monsieur Necker.

The stamp-act, however, was established, and a bed of justice was held by the king on the 5th of August 1787; at which the parliament of Paris was obliged to attend, and the edict was registered, notwithstanding their protest to the contrary. But the parliament, though defeated, were far from subdued: on the day after the king had held his bed of justice, they entered a formal protest against the concession that had been extorted from them.

Painful as every appearance of violence must have proved to the mild disposition of Lewis, he could not consent to surrender, without a struggle, that authority which had been so long exercised by his predecessors. Since the commencement of the present discontents, the capital had been gradually filled with considerable bodies of troops; and about a week after the parliament had entered the protest, an officer of the French guards, with a party of soldiers, went at break of day to the

house of each individual member, to signify to him the king's command, that he should immediately get into his carriage and proceed to Troyes, a city of Champagne, about seventy miles from Paris; without writing or speaking to any person out of his own house before his departure. These orders were served at the same instant; and before the citizens of Paris were acquainted with the transaction, the parliament were already on the road to the scene of their banishment.

So great was the resentment of the whole nation on account of the banishment of the parliament, that after a month's exile it was recalled. This was scarcely done, when they were desired to register a loan; at which they hesitated, notwithstanding all the manoeuvres of the ministers. At last the king came to the house, and held what is called a royal session. The edicts were now registered; but the duke of Orléans protested, in the presence of the king, against the legality of the proceeding. The parliament protested against the legality of the session itself, but to no purpose. The duke of Orléans, with four others, were banished; the king called for the journals of the house, destroyed the protest, and forbid it to be inserted again. Great clamours were raised by the banishment of the duke of Orléans, and the other members of parliament; remonstrances were presented by the parliaments of Paris, Bourdeaux, and Rennes; but the exiles were not recalled till the spring of 1788.

No alternative remained now to Lewis but to plunge his country into all the calamity of civil war, or to comply with the wishes of his people, and re-establish the states-general. In the first case, he must have expected to encounter the majority of the people, animated by the exhortations and examples of their magistrates: the peers of the realm had expressed the strongest disapprobation of his measures, nor could he even depend any longer on the princes of his blood; but what afforded most serious matter of alarm was the spirit lately displayed among the military, who, during the disturbances in the provinces, had reluctantly been brought to draw their swords against their countrymen; and many of whose officers, who had recently served in America, publicly proclaimed their abhorrence of despotism.

It was under these impressions, in the beginning of August, an *arrêt* was published, which fixed the meeting of the states-general to the first of May in the ensuing year, viz. 1789; at the same time every step was taken to secure the favourable opinion of the public. New arrangements took place in the administration; and monsieur Necker, whom the confidence of the people had long followed, was again introduced into the management of the finances; the torture, which by a former edict had been restricted in part, was entirely abolished; every person accused was allowed the assistance of counsel, and permitted to avail himself of any point of law; and it was decreed, that, in future, sentence of death should not be passed on any person, unless the party accused should be pronounced guilty by a majority at least of three judges.

The eyes of all Europe were now turned on the states-general, or national assembly, whose re-establishment, in the month of May 1789, presented a new æra in the government of France. But the moment of this meeting was far from auspicious to the court, but greatly so to the interests of the nation. The minds of the French had long been agitated by various rumours; the unanimity that had been expected from the different orders of the states was extinguished by the jarring pretensions of each; and their mutual jealousies were attributed by the suspicions of the people to the intrigues of the court, who were supposed already to

repent of the hasty assent that had been extorted. A dearth that pervaded the kingdom increased the general gloom and discontent; and the people, pressed by hunger and inflamed by resentment, were ripe for revolt. The sovereign also, equally impatient of the obstacles he incessantly encountered, could not conceal his chagrin; the influence of the queen in the cabinet was again established, and was attended by the immediate removal of monsieur Necker. This step, which evinced a total change of resolutions, and which, from the popularity of the minister, was likely to produce a violent fermentation in every order of men, was followed by others equally injudicious. The states-general were driven into the "Salle des États," where they held their meetings, by detachments of the guards, who surrounded them, and who waited only the orders of the court to proceed to greater extremities against the obnoxious representatives of the nation.

Had these manifestations of vigour been only sustained by instantly attacking and entering Paris, it is not to be doubted, that, unprepared as it still was, and unwilling to expose to the licence of an incensed soldiery the lives and properties of its citizens, the capital would have been without difficulty reduced to obedience. But the delay which succeeded gave the inhabitants time to recover from their first emotions of surprise and apprehension. They saw the timidity and imbecillity of the government, which, having sounded the charge, dared not advance to the attack. They profited by this want of exertion; and passing from one extreme rapidly to another, they almost unanimously took up arms against their rulers. Joined by the French guards, who, from a long residence in the capital, had been peculiarly exposed to seduction, and who at this decisive moment abandoned their sovereign, the Parisians broke through every obstacle by which they had hitherto been restrained. The supplies of arms and ammunition which had been provided for their subjugation, were turned against the crown; and the "Hotel des Invalides," the great repository of military stores, after a faint resistance, surrendered.

The prince de Lambesc, who alone, of all the officers commanding the royal troops in the vicinity of Paris, attempted to carry into execution the plan for disarming the capital, was repulsed in a premature and injudicious attack, which he made at the head of his dragoons, near the entrance of the garden of the Tuilleries. Already the "Prevot des Marchands," monsieur de Flelles, convicted of entertaining a correspondence with the court, and detected in sending private intelligence to monsieur de Launay, governor of the Bastille, had been seized by the people; and fallen the first victim to general indignation. His head, borne on a lance, exhibited an alarming spectacle of the danger to which adherence to the sovereign must expose in a time of anarchy and insurrection.

The Bastille alone remained; and while it continued in the power of the crown, Paris could not be regarded as secure from the severest chastisement. It was instantly invested, on the 14th of July 1789, by a mixed multitude, composed of citizens and soldiers who had joined the popular banner. De Launay, who commanded in the castle, by an act of perfidy unjustifiable under any circumstances, and which rendered his fate less regretted, rather accelerated than delayed the capture of that important fortress. He displayed a flag of truce, and demanded a parley; but abusing the confidence which these signals inspired, he discharged a heavy fire from the caannon and musquetry of the place upon the besiegers, and made a considerable carnage. Far from intimidating

he only augmented, by so treacherous a breach of faith, the rage of an incensed populace. They renewed their exertions with a valour raised to frenzy, and were crowned with success. The Bastile, that awful engine of despotism, whose name alone diffused terror, and which for many ages had been sacred to silence and despair, was entered by the victorious assailants. De Launay, seized and dragged to the "Place de Grève," was instantly dispatched, and his head carried in triumph through the streets of Paris.

In this prison were found the most horrible engines for putting to the severest tortures those unhappy persons whom the cruelty or jealousy of despotism had determined to destroy. An iron cage, about twelve tons in weight, was found with the skeleton of a man in it, who had probably lingered out a great part of his days in that horrid mansion. Among the prisoners released by its destruction, were major White, a Scotsman, earl Massarene, an Irish nobleman, and the count de Lorges. The former appeared to have his intellectual faculties almost totally impaired by the long confinement and miseries he had endured; and, by being unaccustomed to converse with any human creature, had forgotten the use of speech. Earl Massarene, on his arrival at the British shore, eagerly jumped out of the boat, fell down on his knees, and kissing the ground thrice, exclaimed, "God bless this land of liberty!" The count de Lorges, at a very advanced period of life, was also liberated, and exhibited to the public curiosity in the "Palais Royal." His squalid appearance, his white beard which descended to his waist, and, above all, his imbecility, resulting probably from the effect of an imprisonment of thirty-two years, were objects highly calculated to operate upon the senses and passions of every beholder. It is indeed impossible not to participate in the exultation which a capital and a country, so long oppressed, must have experienced; at the extinction of this detestable and justly dreaded prison of state.

With the Bastile expired the despotism of the French princes, which long prescription, submission, and military strength, seemed to render equally sacred and unassailable; which neither the calamities of the close of Lewis XIV.'s reign, the profligacy and enormities of the succeeding regency, nor the state of degradation into which the monarchy sunk under Lewis XV. had ever shaken: that power, which appeared to derive its support almost as much from the loyalty and veneration as from the dread and terrors of the subject, fell prostrate in the dust, and never betrayed any symptom of returning life.

So many great events have arisen in consequence of this revolution, that the limits of our present work will not permit us to give any more than the most prominent features and important consequences of it. The next morning after the capture of the Bastile, the monarch appeared in the national assembly, but without the pomp and parade of despotism. His address was affectionate and consolatory. "He lamented the disturbances at Paris; disavowed all consciousness of any meditated attack on the persons of the deputies; and added, that he had issued orders for the immediate removal of the troops from the vicinity of the metropolis." The tear of sympathy started into almost every eye. An expressive silence first pervaded the assembly, which presently was succeeded by a burst of applause and acclamation. On the 16th, the king having intimated to the national assembly his intention of visiting Paris the following day, he accordingly, on the morning of the 17th, left Versailles in a plain dress, and with no other equipage than two carriages with eight horses each; in the first of which he rode himself; a

part of the national assembly in their robes accompanied him on foot; and the militia of Versailles composed his only guard till the procession arrived at the Seve, where they were relieved by the Paris militia, with the marquis de la Fayette at their head: and from this place the suite of the monarch amounted to about 20,000 men. The progress was remarkably slow; and no shout was to be heard but *Vive la nation!* Mr. Bailly, on presenting the keys of the city, addressed his majesty in a short speech, the exordium of which was:—“These, sir, are the keys which were presented to Henry IV. He came to re-conquer his people; it is our happiness to have re-conquered our king.” On receiving the complimentary addresses of the mayor, &c. the king exclaimed with an air of pathetic emotion, which scarcely allowed him utterance, “My people may always rely upon my affection.” He received from the hands of the mayor the national cockade; and when he showed himself at the window with this badge of patriotism, the joy of the people could no longer be restrained. The shout of *Vive le Roi!* which had scarcely been heard in the former part of the day, filled the whole atmosphere, and resounded from one extremity of the city to the other. The return of the king to Versailles was a real triumph. The citizens, almost intoxicated with joy, surrounded his carriage; his countenance, which in the morning bore the aspect of melancholy, was now cheerful and smiling; and he appeared sincerely to partake in the general satisfaction.

The events which followed, are by the candid of all parties allowed to be enveloped in an almost impenetrable veil of obscurity. An incident which occurred at Versailles, contributed to excite a most unhappy commotion. On the 1st of October an entertainment was given by the gardes du corps, or king's body guards, to the officers of a regiment of Flanders, who had just joined them in the service of guarding the monarch. Several of the officers of the national guard, with others of the military, were invited. At the second course, four toasts were given: “the king, the queen, the dauphin, and the royal family.” “The nation” was proposed, but, according to a number of witnesses, expressly rejected by the gardes du corps. After this, the queen, having been informed of the gaiety of the scene, persuaded his majesty, who was just returned from hunting, to accompany her, with the heir apparent, to the saloon. She appeared with the dauphin in her arms, affectionate as she was lovely, and carried the royal infant through the saloon, amidst the acclamations and murmurs of the spectators. Fired with enthusiasm, the soldiers drank the health of the king, the queen, and the dauphin, with their swords drawn; and the royal guests bowed respectfully and retired.

The entertainment, which had hitherto been conducted with some degree of order, now became a scene of entire confusion. Nothing was omitted to inflame the passions of the military. The music played the favourite air—“O Richard, O my king, the world abandons thee!” the ladies of the court distributed *white cockades*, the anti-patriot ensign; and even some of the national guard, it is said, had the weakness to accept them.

During these transactions the city of Paris was afflicted with all the evils of famine. At this juncture the news arrived of the fatal banquet at Versailles, with every circumstance greatly magnified. Early on the morning of the memorable 5th of October, a woman sallied out from the quarter of St. Eustache; and entering the corps de garde, and seizing a drum, paraded the adjacent streets beating an alarm, and exciting the people by clamours respecting the scarcity of bread. She was soon

joined by a very numerous mob, chiefly of women, to the amount of 800, who proceeded to Versailles, where the king, upon hearing their complaints, signed an order for bringing corn from Senlis and Lagny, and for removing every obstacle which impeded the supply of Paris. This order was reported to the women, and they retired with gratitude and joy.

This band of Amazons were no sooner dispersed, than it was succeeded by another. The national assembly continued sitting; but the session was tumultuous, and interrupted by the shouts and harangues of the Parisian fish-women, who filled the galleries; their applause was mingled with affecting murmurs and complaints, the multitude crying out that they were actually starving, and that the majority of them had eaten nothing for upwards of twenty-four hours. The president therefore humanely ordered that provisions should be sought for in every part of the town; and the hall of the assembly was the scene of a miserable, scanty, and tumultuous banquet. Indeed, such was the dreadful famine, that the horse of one of the gardes du corps being killed in a tumult, he was immediately roasted, and greedily devoured by the mob.

Darkness and a deluge of rain added to the horrors of the night. The wretched multitudes who had travelled from Paris, were exposed, almost famished, to the inclemencies of the weather, in the open streets: within the castle all was trepidation: nothing was to be heard from without but imprecations, and the voices of enraged multitudes demanding the life of the queen and the gardes du corps. Toward midnight, however, all appeared tolerably still and peaceable, when the beating of drums, and the light of innumerable torches, announced the approach of the Parisian army.

The day began to break at about half past five; and at this period crowds of women and other desperate persons, breathing vengeance, and thirsting for blood, advanced to the castle, which, in an hour of fatal security, was left unguarded in several places. An immense crowd found its way into every part. The queen had been awakened a quarter of an hour before by the clamours of the women who assembled upon the terrace; but her waiting-woman had satisfied her by saying, "that they were only the women of Paris, who, she supposed, not being able to find a lodging, were walking about." But the tumult approaching, and becoming apparently more serious, she rose, dressed herself in haste, and ran to the king's apartment by a private passage. In her way she heard the noise of a pistol and a musquet, which redoubled her terror. "My friends," said she to every person she met, "save me and my children." In the king's chamber she found the dauphin, who had been brought there by one of her women; but the king was gone. Awakened by the tumult, he had seen from a window the multitude pressing towards the great stair-case; and, alarmed for the queen, he hastened to her apartment, and entered it at one door at the moment she had quitted it by the other. He returned without loss of time; and having with the queen brought the prince's royal into the chamber, they prepared to face the multitude.

In the mean time the noise and tumult increased, and appeared at the very door of the chamber. Nothing was to be heard but the most dreadful exclamations, with violent and repeated blows against the outer door, a pannel of which was broken, and instant death was expected by the royal company. Suddenly, however, the tumult seemed to cease—every thing was quiet; and a moment after, a gentle rap was heard at the door. The door was opened, and in an instant the apartments were

filled with the Parisian guard. The officer who conducted them ordered them to ground their arms. "We come," said he, "to save the king;" and turning to such of the gardes du corps as were in the apartments; "We will save you also, gentlemen; let us from this moment be united."

The royal family now ventured to show themselves at the balcony, and received the most lively acclamations of respect from the soldiers and the people. A single voice, or a few voices, exclaimed—"The king to Paris!" and this was instantly followed by an universal acclamation enforcing the same demand. The king addressed them:—"You wish me to go to Paris:—I will go, on the condition that I am to be accompanied by my wife and children."—He was answered by reiterated acclamations of *Vive le roi!* It was two in the afternoon before the procession set out. During the progress all was gaiety and joy among the soldiers and spectators; and such was the respect in which the French nation still held the name and person of their king, that the multitude were superstitiously persuaded that the royal presence would actually put an end to the famine. On his arrival, the king was congratulated by the municipality, and declared his approbation of the loyalty which the city of Paris manifested.

The spirit of the nation was so entirely averse from the principles of the high aristocratic party, that numbers of them, particularly the king's two brothers, and some of the first rank and fortune, took refuge in foreign countries, where they applied themselves indefatigably to the purpose of exciting war against their country.

Great preparations were made for the celebration of a grand confederation, in which the representatives of the nation, the king, the soldiery, and all who were in ostensible situations, should solemnly and in the face of the whole nation renew their oaths of fidelity to the new constitution; and this confederation was decreed to take place on the 14th of July, 1790, in honour of the taking of the Bastille, and of the first establishment of Gallic liberty. The *Champ de Mars*, so famous for having been the rendez-vous of the troops which in the preceding year were intended to overawe the capital, was chosen for this solemnity. This piece of ground, which is about 400 toises, or 800 yards, in diameter, is bounded on the right and left by lofty trees, and commands at the further extremity a view of the military academy. In the middle of this vast plain an altar was erected for the purpose of administering the civic oath; and round it an immense amphitheatre was thrown up, of a league in circumference, and capable of containing 400,000 spectators. The entrance was through triumphal arches. The king's throne was placed under an elegant pavilion in the middle, and on each side of it were seats for the members of the national assembly.

The important 14th of July at length arrived. The national guards of the departments, distinguished by their respective standards, the battalions of infantry, and the different troops of cavalry, the marine of France, and the foreigners who served under its banners, being arranged in military order, the king and the national assembly took a solemn oath to maintain the constitution; the armed citizens repeated it amongst the applauses of innumerable spectators. They swore to live free, or die; and this oath was taken on the same day through the whole extent of the kingdom.

The escape of the king and queen with their infant children, and monsieur and madame, on the 20th of June, 1791, menaced France with the convulsions of anarchy and the horrors of civil war. The route of

the royal fugitives, which had been expected to have been towards the Austrian Netherlands, the nearest frontier of the kingdom, was in fact directed towards Metz, from the presence of so gallant and accomplished a royalist as M. de Bouillé in that quarter, from its vicinity to the prince of Condé's army in Germany, and from the probable reluctance of Leopold to hazard the tranquillity of his Netherlands, by permitting any incursion from them into France.—They reached St. Menehould, a small town about 150 miles from Paris. The king was there recognised by the postillion, who said to him, "*Mon Roi, je vous connois, mais je ne vous trahirai pas.*" "I know you, my king, but I will not betray you." But the post-master, M. Drouet, less full of monarchic prejudice, adopted a different conduct. He avoided, with great dexterity and presence of mind, betraying his knowledge of the rank of the royal travellers, being much struck with the resemblance which his majesty's countenance bore to his effigy on an assignat of 50 livres. The carriages taking the road to Varennes, he went a cross-road to rejoin them; and arriving before them at Varennes, he alarmed the town and assembled the national guards, who, notwithstanding the detachment of hussars by which they were escorted, disarmed them, and the KING was then *made a prisoner*; and at six o'clock in the afternoon of the 25th of June, their majesties, with the dauphin and madame royale, arrived at the Tuilleries.

The new constitution was presented to the king on the 3d of September, 1791, who on the 13th signified his acceptance of it in writing, and the following day appeared in the assembly, introduced by a deputation of sixty members, and solemnly consecrated the assent which he had already given, and concluded with an oath, "To be faithful to the nation and to the law, and to employ the powers vested in him for the maintenance of the constitution, and the due execution of the law." Soon after this, the second national council assembled, with abilities far inferior to the first.

The dubious and undecided conduct of the emperor, and the refuge and protection found in the German empire by the emigrant princes, excited France to vigorous resolutions; and a celebrated manifesto, addressed to all states and nations, made its appearance. The forcible measures pursued had the effect of intimidating the German princes; and the emigrants were constrained to an ignominious dispersion from the frontiers. But the protection of the emperor and the Prussian king afforded them asylums more remote and less obtrusive. Irresolution seemed to preside in the councils of the emperor, a monarch more eminent for the mild virtues of peace than for the exertions of war. He had acknowledged the national flag; he had declared that he regarded the king of the French as absolutely free, while the league of Pilitz (which, as was avowed by the court of Vienna, was not only intended to secure Germany from such a revolution as France had experienced, but even to extinguish the dreaded source), and the protection afforded to the emigrants, were infallible proofs that the emperor could not be regarded as a friend. His sudden death, on the first of March, 1792, excited great consternation among the aristocrats, and afforded joy and exultation to the supporters of the constitution. Another event no less unexpected happened in the death of the Swedish monarch, on the 29th of the same month. Fresh spirits were diffused through the nation; and the superstitious vulgar imagined that they beheld the peculiar protection of heaven in the removal of the two chief foes of France in one month.

In the progress of the negotiations between the national assembly and

the court of Vienna, the young Hungarian king, excited by the influence of Prussia, began to exhibit more enmity and to use severer language. At length, on the 5th of April, M. de Noailles, in his dispatches to the French minister for foreign affairs, explained the propositions of the imperial court, that satisfaction should be given to the German princes proprietors of Alsace; that Avignon, which had been appropriated by France, should be restored to the pope; and that the internal government of France should be invested with sufficient efficiency, that the other powers might have no apprehensions of being troubled by France. These terms produced a declaration of war against Francis I. king of Hungary and Bohemia, decreed by the assembly, and ratified by the French king, on the 24th of April.

The first movement of the French was stained with defeat, and with the unpropitious murder of Theobald Dillon, their leader, who fell a prey to the suspicions and savage ferocity of some of his soldiers, who fled from the enemy, but attacked their general. The court of Vienna had, in the beginning of July, published a declaration explaining the cause of the war, and retorting on the French nation some of the heavy charges contained in its declaration of war against the king of Hungary and Bohemia, now emperor of Germany. On the 26th day of the same month, the Prussian monarch issued a concise exposition of the reasons which determined him to take up arms against France. He pleaded his alliance with the emperor, and that, as sovereign of a German state, he was bound to interfere to prevent the violation of the rights of the German princes of Alsace and Lorraine, and the invasion of the territories of others: and he honestly concluded by avowing that it was his intention to repress the too great liberty of France, which might afford a dangerous example to neighbouring countries. At the same time the duke of Brunswick, general of the combined armies of Austria and Prussia, published, at Coblenz, a declaration to the inhabitants of France, conceived in the most haughty and presumptuous terms; he declared his intention of putting a stop to the anarchy which prevailed in France, and of restoring the king to his power; and yet he afterwards says his design was not to interfere in the internal government! It is unnecessary to dwell on the other parts of this insolent memorial, in which France was already regarded as a conquered country, and directions were given to the magistrates, national guards, and inhabitants at large: but the threat that the city of Paris should be given up to military execution in case the least outrage should be offered to the king, queen, or royal family, is worthy of a Hun.

The excesses of the night between the 9th and 10th of August we relate with pain. At midnight the alarm-bell sounded in every quarter of Paris, the *générale* was beat, and the citizens flew to arms. The palace of the Tuilleries was attacked by the multitude; and the king, queen, and royal family, were forced to take refuge in the national assembly. At first the Swiss guards (who were obnoxious to the people, and had been ineffectually proscribed by repeated decrees of the assembly, the king not being allowed to have a foreign guard) repelled the populace; but these being re-inforced by the Marseillois, and federates from Brest, bodies which the Jacobins seem to have brought to Paris to balance the Swiss, and by national guards, the gates of the palace were burst open. The artillery joined the assailants. The consequences were, that, after a slaughter of about four hundred on each side, the Swiss guards were exterminated, and the palace ransacked.

The month of September seemed pregnant with the total ruin of

French freedom, while the three following months reversed the scene, and exhibited a tide of success on the part of France, perhaps unexampled in modern history.—It is with infinite concern that we direct the attention of our readers to the prison scene, which occurred on the 22d and 23d of September. The horrid massacre of the defenceless prisoners, and other aristocrats, which took place at that period, is an eternal disgrace to the Parisian populace; who, in their fury, spared not even that gentle sex which all civilised nations hold in the highest respect. The number of the slain has doubtless been exaggerated, as thousand perished, the enormity of the deed remains the same. Some attenuation might be offered for the affair of the 10th of August, in which a people, who supposed themselves betrayed to slavery and all its evils; to recently experienced and shaken off, assumed their revenge and their cause into their own hands; but no defence can be offered for this unnecessary crime. Had the combined armies besieged Paris, it is difficult to conceive what aid they could have found from two or three thousand aristocrats; and many of these secured in chains.

A national convention had been called, to determine on the charges brought against the king. They met on the 24th of September; and, on the first day of the meeting, the abolition of royalty in France was decreed, by acclamation; and the following day it was ordered that all public acts should be dated "the first year, &c." of the French republic. But hardly was this convention constituted, when a violent faction appeared, headed by Marat, Robespierre, and others, who repeatedly degraded its transactions by their fanaticism; and being supported by the Jacobins and Parisian populace, proved too powerful for the convention to punish as it wished. Repeated instances have proved that the convention was not free, but must vote as the mob of Paris dictated; the moderation of the members being often obliged to yield to the indecent applauses and hisses of the galleries.

So rapid was the progress of the French arms, and so great were the distresses in the combined armies, arising from a scarcity of provisions, from a long rainy season, and from a considerable mortality among the Russians (by the French accounts, estimated at one half), that the Prussians retreated from the dominions of France; whose example the Austrians soon followed.

Even at the very time that Paris was in the greatest danger, the invasion of Savoy was ordered. On the 21st of September general Montefiore entered the Savoyard territories, seized on the frontier posts and castles without resistance, and two days after took Montmélian. Chambray and all Savoy soon followed; but the conquest, not being resisted, was productive of no military glory. The imprudence of the national convention, in permitting Savoy to incorporate itself with France, has excited wonder. After frequent declarations that the French would enter into no war with any view to conquest, their conduct in this respect was absurd and impolitic. It subjected them to the merited re-

Marat fell by the hands of female vengeance. Marie Anne Charlotte Corday, deeply impressed with the calamities which he had brought upon her country, took a journey to Paris, in July, 1793, on purpose to put a period to his existence. Meeting as he was coming from the bath, and entering into conversation with him, she certainly to identify his person, she plunged a dagger into his breast; upon which he fell, and soon expired. Glorifying in having exterminated a monster, she devoted herself to the officers of justice, and with the utmost firmness submitted to the punishment, in having her head severed by the guillotine, in the 3th year of her age.

proach that, under the pretence of liberty, they maintained the destructive maxims of their ancient government; and that their wishes to increase their territory, perhaps to subjugate Europe, remained the same. Admiral Trupquet, commanding a squadron in the Mediterranean, captured Nice, Villa-Franca, and the fortress of Montalban, belonging to the Sardinian king.

The conquest of Savoy was regarded as a trifle; but when Custine began his acquisitions in Germany, every eye was turned to the rapidity and importance of his progress, till diverted by the wonders of Dumouriez. Spire yielded to the French arms on the 30th of September, and Worms soon after followed; ample supplies of provisions and ammunition were found in these cities. Custine, pursuing his course along the left shore of the Rhine, next captured Mentz, and afterwards Frankfort. He was eager to proceed to Coblenz, that noted seat of the counter-revolutionists; but the Prussians and Austrians at length indicated a renewal of hostilities by garrisoning that town, and encamping in the adjacent country.

The conquest of the Austrian Netherlands forms the next grand object. Dumouriez had promised to pass his Christmas at Brussels; and what was regarded as an idle vaunt proved very modest, for that city was in his hands by the 14th of November. That able general, having entered the Netherlands on the first or the second of that month, with an army of forty thousand men, and with almost formidable train of artillery, repeated engagements with the Austrian army, commanded by the duke of Saxe-Teschén, governor of the Austrian Netherlands, and by general Beaulieu, which however exceeded not twenty thousand, occupied the first five days. At length, on the 6th of November, a decisive battle was fought at Jemappe, which decided the fate of the Netherlands. The contest was very general: all the points of the enemy's flanks and lines were attacked at once; all the bodies of the French were in action, and almost every individual fought personally. The cannonade began at seven in the morning; Dumouriez ordered the village of Carignon to be attacked; because he could not attempt the heights of Jemappe till he had taken that village. At noon the French infantry formed in columns, and rapidly advanced to decide the affair by the bayonet. After an obstinate defence, the Austrians at two o'clock retired in the utmost disorder.

Dumouriez immediately advanced, and took possession of the neighbouring town of Mons, where the French were received as brethren. The tidings arriving at Brussels, the court was struck with an indescribable panic, and instantly fled to Ruremond, whence it was again driven by the arms of Miranda. Tournay surrendered to a detachment on the 8th of November. Dumouriez having refreshed his troops at Mons, advanced to Brussels, where, after an indecisive engagement between his van and the Austrian rear, he was received with acclamations on the 14th of that month.— Ghent, Charleroi, Antwerp, Malines, Mechlin, Louvain, Ostend, Namur, in short all the Austrian Netherlands, except Luxembourg, successively followed the example of the capital; and the conquests of Louis XIV. were not more rapid.

Many of the priests, who were banished, came to England, and were received with great benevolence: this was followed by the decree of the national convention, against the emigrants, by which they are declared dead in law, their effects confiscated, and themselves adjudged to immediate death, if they appear in France.

Another decree of the 19th of November attracted the attention

every nation in Europe. It is in the following terms: "The national convention declare, in the name of the French nation, that they will grant fraternity and assistance to all those people who wish to procure liberty; and they charge the executive power to send orders to the generals to give assistance to such people, and to defend citizens who have suffered, or are now suffering, in the cause of liberty." This decree, and others of a similar tendency, seemed to institute a political crusade against all the powers of Europe.

No sooner had Antwerp yielded to the French arms, than, in order to conciliate the Belgians, the opening of the navigation of the Scheldt, shut up by the treaty of Munster, 1648, was projected and ordered; notwithstanding this treaty, so far as respects the shutting up of the navigation of this river, has been confirmed to the Dutch in succeeding treaties, guaranteed both by the courts of Versailles and London. The Dutch regard this measure as injurious to their trade, for Antwerp might prove a dangerous rival to Amsterdam. The infraction of this treaty is one of the reasons which had induced the parliament of Great Britain to oppose the unwarrantable pretensions of the French.

The memorable trial of the king commenced on the 11th of December. The issue is too well known. The firmness of this unfortunate monarch during his trial, and at the place of execution, on the 21st of January, 1793, increased the commiseration of every indifferent spectator; and callous indeed must be the person who does not partake of the sympathy which was felt through all Europe upon this transaction.

It would be a tedious and disagreeable undertaking to trace minutely and gradually the progress of the dispute between France and England. Without affixing any degree of credit to the reports that Great Britain had early but secretly acceded to the concert of princes and the treaty of Pilnitz, it is natural to believe that the British ministry had long viewed with a jealous eye the progress of the French revolution towards a turbulent democracy. We must, however, do the French nation the justice to confess, that the unanimous voice of that people was clamorous from the first for peace and alliance with England. A series of events changed this inclination. A bill for forcibly transporting aliens out of the kingdom was introduced into parliament. The ports of Great Britain were shut against the exportation of corn to France, while it was permitted to her enemies. In the end, the ambassador of the republic, M. Chauvelin, was ordered, under the authority of the alien bill, at a short notice, out of the kingdom; immediately after which dismissal, the convention declared that the French republic was at war with the king of England, and the stadtholder of the United Provinces.

In consequence of these measures, general Dumouriez proceeded with a large body of troops to invade Holland, exhorting the Batavians, in a violent manifesto, to reject the tyrannic aristocracy of the stadtholder and his party, and to become a free republic. The Dutch made preparations for defending themselves; and the English cabinet seconded their efforts, by an immediate embarkation of troops, to the command of which the duke of York was appointed.

The subjugation of Holland was the first project of general Dumouriez: and when the ease with which he had effected the conquest of the Netherlands, and the courage and ability displayed by him and his army at the famous battle of Jemappe, were considered, there seemed reason to apprehend that he would soon make an impression on these

provinces; and the easy surrender of Breda and Gertruydenberg encouraged him to boast that he would terminate the contest by a speedy approach to Amsterdam. Certain events, however, ensued, which effectually prevented him from the performance of this promise.

General Miranda, who had besieged the city of Maastricht, and summoned the governor to surrender, was attacked by prince Frederic of Brunswick, and defeated with considerable loss. The Austrians, after this, divided themselves into three columns, two of which marched towards Maastricht, and the siege of that place was immediately raised. The third pursued the advanced guard of the republic; and the absence of several commanding officers was supposed to have greatly facilitated the success of the Prussians in these rencounters.

On the 14th of March, the imperialists advanced from Tongres towards Tirlemont, by St. Tron, and were attacked by general Dumouriez successively on the 15th and following days. The first attempts were attended with success. The Austrian advanced posts were obliged to retire to St. Tron, through Tirlemont, which they had already passed. On the 18th, a general engagement took place, at Neerwinden, the French army being covered on the left by Dormael, and on the right by Landen. The action continued with great obstinacy on both sides, from seven in the morning till five in the afternoon, when the French were obliged to fall back, and the Austrian cavalry coming up, put them entirely to flight. The loss in each army was great. The French displayed considerable courage and address, but were overpowered by the superior numbers, and perhaps by the more regular discipline, of their enemies.

Dumouriez was now suspected of treachery, and general Miranda intimated his suspicions, in a confidential letter to Petion, dated the 21st of March. Four commissioners were immediately sent from Paris with powers to suspend and arrest all generals and military officers whom they should suspect, and bring them to the bar of the convention. These commissioners, on the 1st of April, proceeded to St. Amand, the head-quarters of Dumouriez, and being admitted to his presence, explained to him the object of their mission. After a conference of some hours, the general, not finding that he could persuade them to favour his intentions, gave the signal for a body of soldiers who were in waiting, and ordered the minister of war, Bournonville, who was sent to supersede him, and the commissioners, Camus, Blancal, La Marque, and Quinette, immediately to be conveyed to general Clairfait's head-quarters at Tournay, as hostages for the safety of the royal family.

Dumouriez, notwithstanding his splendid talents, found himself grossly mistaken with respect to the disposition of his army; and had repented the affront so imprudently offered to their general; but when he came to explain to them his plan, and propose the restoration of royalty in the person of the prince, they all forsook him; and he was obliged to fly with a very few attendants, making his escape through a dreadful discharge of musketry, which the whole column poured upon him and his associates.

The latter end of June, and the beginning of July, were chiefly distinguished, in the north, by some petty skirmishes between the two grand armies. In the latter part of July, the Austrians obtained some successes of more importance. The garrison of Condé, after sustaining a blockade of three months, surrendered on the 10th; by capitulation

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tion, to the prince of Cobourg; and Valenciennes, on the 20th of the same month, to the duke of York, not without some suspicions of treachery in both cases.

Encouraged by these successes, a large detachment from the combined army, under the command of the duke of York, proceeded, without loss of time, to attack the port and town of Dunkirk. On the 22d of August, the duke of York marched from Furnes to attack the French camp at Ghivelde, which was abandoned at his approach, and he was almost immediately enabled to take the ground which it was his intention to occupy during the siege. On the 24th, he attacked the outposts of the French, who, with some loss, were driven into the town. In this action, the famous Austrian general Dalton, and some other officers of note, were killed. The succeeding day, the siege might be said regularly to commence. A considerable naval armament from Great Britain was to have co-operated in the siege; but, by some neglect, admiral Macbride was not able to sail so early as was expected. In the mean time, the hostile army was extremely harassed by the gun-boats of the French; a successful sortie was effected by the garrison on the 6th of September; and the French collecting in superior force, the duke of York, on the 7th, after several severe actions, in which the allied forces suffered very considerably, was compelled to raise the siege, and leave behind him his numerous train of artillery. General Houchard was afterwards impeached by the convention, and beheaded, for not having improved his success to the best advantage, as it was asserted that he had it in his power to capture almost the whole of the duke of York's army.

The disaffection of the southern provinces of France was at this time productive of serious dangers to the new republic. It is well known that the deputies and people of these provinces were among the most active to promote the dethroning of the king on the 10th of August, 1792. It is, therefore, somewhat extraordinary, that the same men should be among the first to rebel against the authority of the convention. The formidable union which took place, under the name of *federal republicanism*, between the cities of Marseilles, Lyons, and Toulon, in the course of the months of June and July, seemed to threaten almost the dissolution of the existing authorities. A considerable army was, however, dispatched against Lyons, and the city closely besieged. The Marseillois, in the mean time, opened their gates on the approach of the republican army, and submitted; but the people of Toulon entered into a negotiation with the English admiral, lord Hood, who was then cruising in the Mediterranean; and he took possession both of the town and shipping, in the name of Lewis XVII. and under the positive stipulation that he should assist in restoring the constitution of 1789.

Among the victims of popular resentment which fell about this period, was the celebrated general Custine, whose former services, whatever might have been his subsequent demerits, ought to have secured him more lenient treatment. He was recalled to Paris, from the command of the northern army, in the beginning of July, and on the 22d, committed, by a decree of the convention, a prisoner to the Abbéy. He was tried by the revolutionary tribunal, and accused of having maintained an improper correspondence with the Prussians, while he commanded on the Rhine, and of having neglected various opportunities of throwing reinforcements into Valenciennes. It is needless to say that he was found guilty: to be suspected was then to be condemned; and the populace of Paris, now accustomed to such scenes, beheld the

sacrifice of their former defender, with calm indifference, or with blind exultation.

The trial and condemnation of the queen immediately followed that of general Cuffine. She had been removed, on the night of the 1st of August, from the Temple to a small and miserable apartment in the prison of the Conciergerie, where she remained till she was brought before the revolutionary tribunal, on the 15th of October. The act of accusation consisted of several charges, many of which were frivolous and incredible; and few of them appeared to be sufficiently substantiated by evidence; but had the conduct of Marie Antoinette been more unexceptionable than there is reason to believe it was, it is not very probable that she would have escaped. After an hour's consultation, therefore, the jury brought in their verdict — "Guilty of all the charges."

The queen heard the sanguinary sentence with dignity and resignation; perhaps, indeed, it might be considered by her, less as a punishment than as a release. On the 16th of October, at about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, she was conducted in a coach, from the prison of the Conciergerie, to a scaffold prepared in the Place de la Révolution, where her unfortunate husband had previously suffered. The people who crowded the streets as she passed, exhibited no signs of pity or compunction. Her behaviour, as her last sufferings approached, was decent and composed. She met her fate in the thirty-eighth year of her age.

Soon after the convention had brought the queen to the scaffold, they entered upon the trial of Brissot, and his supposed accomplices. Brissot was charged with having said and written, at the commencement of the revolution, that Fayette's retiring from the public service was a national misfortune; that he distinguished himself three times in the Jacobin club by speeches, of which one provoked the ruin of the colonies, another the massacre of the patriots in the Champ de Mars, and the third the war against Austria.

Upon these and other vague accusations, Brissot, and twenty-one more of the convention, were brought to trial before the revolutionary tribunal, on the 24th of October; a few days afterwards the jury declared all the accused members to be accomplices in a conspiracy which had existed against the unity and indivisibility of the French republic; and the tribunal immediately condemned them all to the punishment of death. Valszé, after he had heard his sentence, stabbed himself; and the remaining twenty-one were executed on the 30th of October.

The wretched and intriguing Egalité (late duke of Orléans) was soon after brought to the block. He was accused of having aspired to the sovereignty from the commencement of the revolution; but how well founded the charge was, it is not easy to determine. He was conveyed in a cart, on the evening of the 6th of November, to the place of execution, and suffered with great firmness, amidst the insults and reproaches of the populace.

In the fourth of France, neither the exertions of the allies, nor the surrender of the Toulonese, were sufficient to produce the expected consequence of establishing a monarchical government. On the 30th of November, the garrison of Toulon made a vigorous sortie, in order to destroy some batteries, which the French were erecting on certain heights within cannon-shot of the city. The detachment sent for this purpose accomplished it, and the French troops were surprised and fled. The allies, too much elated with their success, pursued the fugitives till they unexpectedly encountered a considerable force, which had been

sent to cover their retreat. At this moment, general O'Hara, commander in chief at Toulon, came up, and, while he was exerting himself to bring off his troops with regularity, received a wound in his arm, and was made prisoner by the republicans. Near a thousand of the British and allied forces were killed, wounded, or taken prisoners on this occasion.

Soon after the capture of the British general O'Hara, the city of Toulon was evacuated by the allies. On the morning of 19th of December, the attack began before all the republican forces had time to come up. It was chiefly directed against an English redoubt (Fort Mulgrave) defended by more than three thousand men, twenty pieces of cannon, and several mortars. This formidable post was attacked about five o'clock in the morning, and at six the republican flag was flying upon it.

The town was then bombarded from noon till ten o'clock the same evening, when the allies and part of the inhabitants, having first set fire to the town and shipping, precipitated their flight. Two chaloups, filled with the fugitives, were sunk by the batteries. The precipitation with which the evacuation was effected, caused a great part of the ships and property to fall into the hands of the French, and was attended with the most melancholy consequences to the wretched inhabitants, who, as soon as they observed the preparations for flight, crowded to the shores, and demanded the protection which had been promised them on the faith of the British crown. A scene of confusion, riot, and plunder ensued, and though great efforts were made to convey as many as possible of the people into the ships, thousands were left to all the horrors of falling into the hands of their enraged countrymen. Many of them plunged into the sea, and made a vain attempt to swim on board the ships; others were seen to shoot themselves on the beach, that they might not endure the greater tortures they might expect from the republicans. During all this, the flames were spreading in every direction, and the ships that had been set on fire, were threatening every instant to explode, and blow all around them into the air. This is but a faint description of the scene on shore, and it was scarcely less dreadful on board the ships. Loaded with the heterogeneous mixture of nations, with aged men and infants, as well as women; with the sick from all the hospitals, and with the mangled soldiers from the post just deserted, their wounds still undrest; nothing could equal the horrors of the sight, except the still more appalling cries of distraction and agony, that filled the ear, for husbands, fathers, and children, left on shore.

In the latter end of March, the party called the Hebertists, consisting of Hebert, Momoro, Vincent, and some others, were arrested, brought to trial before the revolutionary tribunal, and twenty of them executed. A few days after, the celebrated Danton, Fabre d'Eglantine, Bazire, Chabot, and others, were arrested as conspirators against the republic, tried in a very summary way, and sentenced to death; which sentence was executed on the 5th of April, 1794.

In consequence of these executions, the government of France, however nominally republican, became almost entirely vested in one man, the usurper Robespierre; a name which will probably be transmitted with infamy to late posterity. Under his sanguinary administration, the prisons of Paris, at one time, contained between seven and eight thousand persons. Of the number of those tried and executed, we have no precise account; but they in general appeared rather to be sacrificed in multitudes to a jealous and cowardly cruelty, than con-

demned with even the shadow of justice. In one of these barbarous slaughters, the princess Elizabeth, the sister of the late unfortunate monarch, having been condemned on the most frivolous pretence, was executed the last of twenty-six persons, who were carried to the scaffold on the same day.

But, after the death of Danton, the fall of this tyrannical demagogue rapidly approached. A strong party was secretly formed against him in the convention, headed by Tallien, Legendre, and some others. Finding themselves sufficiently strong, Tallien moved the arrest of Robespierre and his creatures; which decree was passed with applauses from every quarter. The president then ordered one of the ushers of the hall to take Robespierre into custody; but such was the awe which the presence of this man was accustomed to inspire, that the officer hesitated to perform his duty, till Robespierre himself made a sign of obedience; and followed the usher out of the hall. The prisoners were conducted by a few peace-officers to the prison of the Luxembourg; but the administrator of the police on duty there, who was one of their creatures, refused to receive them; and they were then conducted, rather in triumph, than as prisoners, to the Hotel de Ville.

In the mean time, Henriot, another leader of the party, had also been arrested, but found means to escape and raise his partisans, who took post with him and Robespierre, in the Hotel de Ville, where they pretended to form themselves into a new convention, and declared the other representatives traitors to their country. The people, however, did not espouse their cause; the national guard, who had at first obeyed their orders with reluctance, forsook them; and the deputies who had been dispatched for that purpose, attacked them in the Hotel de Ville. Bourdon de l'Oise, after having read the proclamation of the convention, rushed into the hall of the commune, with a sabre and pistols; the insurgents were completely deserted, and now endeavoured to turn their arms against themselves. Robespierre the elder discharged a pistol in his mouth, which, however, failed of its effect, and only wounded him in the jaw, while he received another wound from a gendarme in the side. The younger Robespierre threw himself out of a window, and broke a leg and an arm; Le Bas shot himself upon the spot; Couthon stabbed himself twice with a knife; and Henriot was thrown out of a window.

The prisoners were immediately conveyed before the revolutionary tribunal, and their persons being identified, they were condemned to suffer death, in the Place de la Révolution, where the two Robespierres and nineteen others were executed at seven in the evening of the 28th of July, 1794.

In the campaign of this year, the arms of the new republic were successful on every side against the allies. In Flanders, general Jourdan gained the battle of Fleurus; and Charleroi, Ypres, Bruges, and Courtray, surrendered to the French; Ostend was evacuated; general Clairfait defeated near Mons, which immediately surrendered; and the prince of Cobourg compelled to abandon the whole of the Netherlands, while the victors, without opposition, entered Brussels and Antwerp. Landrecy, Quesnoi, Valenciennes, and Condé, were successively retaken; and the French armies, pursuing their success, took Aix-la-Chapelle, defeated Clairfait near Juliers, and made themselves masters of Cologne and Bonn. Maestricht and Nimeguen were likewise taken.

The United Provinces began now to be seriously alarmed. The States of Frieland were the first to feel their danger, and, in the month

of October, these states determined to acknowledge the French republic, to break their alliance with England, and to enter into a treaty of peace and alliance with France. In some other provinces, resolutions hostile to the stadtholder and his government were likewise passed; and such appeared to be the temper of the people, even at Amsterdam, that, on the 17th of October, the government of Holland published a proclamation, prohibiting the presenting of any petition or memorial, upon public or political subjects, and all popular meetings or assemblies of the people, upon any occasion.

On the 7th of December, the French made a feeble attempt to cross the Waal, but were repulsed with loss; but on the 15th, the frost set in with unusual rigour, and opened a new road to the French armies. In the course of a week, the Maes and the Waal were both frozen over; and on the 27th, a strong column of French crossed the Maes, near the village of Driel. They attacked the allied army for an extent of above twelve leagues, and, according to the report of general Pichegru, "were, as usual, victorious in every quarter." The army of the allies retreated before them, and in its retreat, endured incredible hardships from the severity of the weather and the want of necessaries. On the 10th of January, 1795, general Pichegru, having completed his arrangements, made his grand movement. The French crossed the Waal at different points, with a force, according to some accounts, of 70,000 men. A general attack was made upon Walmoden's position, between Nimeguen and Arnheim. The allies were defeated in every quarter; and, utterly unprepared either for resistance or for flight, suffered equally from the elements and the enemy.

It was in vain that the stadtholder issued manifestoes, proclamations, and exhortations to the Dutch peasantry, conjuring them to rise in arms for the defence of the country. The French continued to advance, and the allies to fly before them, till Utrecht surrendered to them on the 16th of January, Rotterdam on the 18th, and Dort on the succeeding day. The utmost consternation now prevailed among the partisans of the stadtholder. The princess of Orange, with the younger and female part of the family, and with all the plate, jewels, and moveables that could be packed up, escaped on the 15th. The stadtholder and the hereditary prince did not leave Holland till the 19th. His serene highness embarked at Scheveling, in an open boat, with only three men to navigate her, and arrived safe at Harwich. In England, the palace of Hampton-court was assigned him for his residence, where he still remains.

On the 20th of January, general Pichegru entered Amsterdam in triumph, at the head of 5,000 men, and was received by the inhabitants with the loudest acclamations. The whole of the United Provinces either submitted to or was reduced by the French, in a few weeks. An assembly of the provisional representatives of the people met on the 27th of January, and the whole government was changed, and modelled nearly after the French plan.

In the mean time, the king of Prussia, finding he could derive no advantage from the war, began to relax in his efforts. The Prussian and Austrian forces, as well as their leaders, were on bad terms with each other; but it was not suspected that any desertion was about to take place, on the part of the Prussians, till they began to retreat towards the Rhine, which they soon after passed. A negotiation between Prussia and France followed, which ended in a treaty of peace, signed at Basle, on the 5th of April, 1795, by which his Prussian majesty entirely abandoned the coalition.

The Prussian negotiation was followed by the treaty made between the French republic and Spain, in which country, the arms of France had made a progress equally successful and rapid. Fontarabia, which guards the entrance of Spain, and which had cost the duke of Berwick 8,000 men, had been taken, almost immediately, by a detachment from the French army; Kosas was likewise taken; and the troops of the republic had made themselves masters of the greater part of the rich provinces of Biscay and Catalonia, and were, in fact, in full march for the capital of the kingdom. Orders were therefore dispatched to M. D'Yriarte, at Basle, immediately to conclude a treaty; which was accordingly signed by the Spanish minister and M. Barthelemi, at Basle, on the 22d of July.

About the middle of this year, died the infant son of the unfortunate Lewis XVI. An unjust and close imprisonment, if it did not produce, at least, it is probable, hastened his fate. He had always been an unhealthy child, and subject to a scrofulous complaint, a disorder in which confinement and inactivity are frequently fatal. For some time previous to his decease, he had been afflicted with a swelling in his knee, and another in his wrist. His appetite failed, and he was at length attacked with a fever. It does not appear that medical aid was denied him, or neglected. The disease, however, continued to increase; and on the morning of the 9th of June, he expired in the prison of the Temple, where he had been confined from the fatal autumn of 1792.

Moved perhaps by this event, or influenced by the general sympathy of the people of France, the committee of public safety, in the beginning of July, proposed the exchange of the princess, sister of the dauphin, who was likewise a prisoner in the Temple, for the deputies delivered up to Austria by the treachery of Dumouriez, and the two ambassadors, Semonville and Maret, who had been seized, contrary to the law of nations, on a neutral territory, by an Austrian corps. The emperor, after some hesitation, acceded to the proposal; and before the conclusion of the year, the princess was delivered to the Austrian envoy, at Basle in Switzerland, and the deputies were restored to their country.

In the course of this year, an expedition was planned by the English ministry, to invade the coast of France, in that part where the royalists, known by the name of Chouans, were in arms against the republicans. The force employed consisted chiefly of emigrants, under the command of M. Puffaye, M. D'Hervilly, and the count de Sombreuil. They landed in the bay of Quiberon, and took the fort of the same name; but soon after experienced a sad reverse; the fort being surprised by the republican troops, under the command of general Hoche, who killed or made prisoners the greater part of the emigrants, chouans, and English, in the fort, amounting to nearly 10,000 men. The count de Sombreuil, the bishop of Dol, with his clergy who accompanied him, and most of the emigrant officers, who were made prisoners, were tried by a military tribunal, and put to death. Before the month of April, in the ensuing year (1796), the force of the insurgents in this part of France was entirely broken, and their chiefs, Charette and Stoffet, taken prisoners, and put to death.

In Germany, the French army had crossed the Rhine, near Mannheim, and blockaded Mentz, to which they had already laid siege for several months. In this attempt, however, they were unsuccessful: they suffered a defeat from the Austrians, and were compelled to re-pass the river. A suspension of arms, for three months, was soon after a-

agreed to by the generals of the contending armies, which was ratified by the respective powers.

In the succeeding year (1796), the campaign opened in the south, on the 9th of April, when the rapid and signal victories of the republican troops, under the command of the then obscure and little known, but now justly celebrated Buonaparte, ended, in little more than a month, the war with Sardinia. The battles of Milleffimo, Dego, Mondovi, Monte Lerino, and Monte Notte, compelled his Sardinian majesty to accept such terms as the conquerors thought proper to offer; and a treaty of peace, by which he ceded Savoy and Nice to France, was signed on the 17th of May.

Buonaparte pursued his success, and again defeating Beaulieu, the Austrian general, at the battle of the bridge of Lodi; forced the shattered remains of the Austrian army to retire towards Mantua, pursued by one part of the republican forces, while the remainder entered Milan, on the 18th of May, without further resistance, and the French armies gained possession of the whole of Lombardy.

The armistice which had been concluded on the Rhine, was afterwards prolonged, but at length declared to be at an end on the 31st of May; when the army of the Sambre and Meuse, under general Jourdan, gaining considerable advantages over the Austrians, advanced into the heart of the empire; while another army, under general Moreau, passed the Rhine at Strasbourg, took the fort of Kehl, a post of great importance, on the opposite bank, and penetrating through Bavaria, nearly to Ratibon, endeavoured to form a junction with the army of Jourdan. This attempt, however, did not succeed; both armies experienced a reverse of fortune, and were obliged to retreat till they recrossed the Rhine. The situation of general Moreau was highly critical, and his retreat is acknowledged on all sides, to have been conducted with great military skill. The archduke Charles, who commanded the Austrian army, followed Moreau in his retreat, and laid siege to the fort of Kehl, which he re-took, after a most obstinate resistance on the part of the French.

To restore the affairs of Italy, the emperor assembled a new army, composed of the flower of the German troops serving on the Rhine, and gave the command of it to general Wurmser, one of the oldest and ablest of the imperial generals. This force, on its first arrival, was successful. The French were repulsed, defeated, and compelled to raise the siege of Mantua. Buonaparte, however, soon returned to the charge; and, after a series of hotly-contested actions, the army of Wurmser was so reduced and harassed, that he was obliged to shut himself up in Mantua, where he was closely besieged by the victors; who at the same time, made incursions into the Tyrol, and, by the battle of Roveredo, and the possession of Trent, became masters of the passes that led to Vienna. The Austrians, at the same time, made a great effort, under general Alvinzy, to rescue the gallant Wurmser and his besieged army; but the battle of Arcole completely defeated their design; and Mantua was soon after obliged to surrender.

The victories of Buonaparte compelled the pope, the king of Naples, and the inferior princes of Italy, to conclude such treaties as the French thought proper to dictate. The victors likewise founded a new republic in Italy, at first called the Cispadane, but now the Cisalpine republic, to which they have annexed such parts of the papal territory as they have judged convenient.

After the taking of Mantua, the victorious Buonaparte penetrated in-

to the Tyrol, and directed his course towards the imperial capital. The archduke Charles was opposed to him, but was unable to check his progress. The republican armies had at length advanced to near to Vienna, that the utmost alarm and confusion prevailed in that city. The bank suspended its payments, and the emperor was preparing to forsake his capital, and remove to Olmutz. In this critical situation of his affairs, his imperial majesty opened a negotiation with Buonaparte; a short armistice was agreed to, and the preliminaries of peace between the emperor and king of Hungary, and the French republic, were signed at Leoben, in the month of April, 1797.

In the mean time, a tumult having taken place at Venice, in which a number of the French soldiers were murdered in the hospitals of that city, the French armies, on their return, abolished the ancient government of Venice, planted the tree of liberty in St. Mark's Place, established a municipality, and proposed to annex the city and territory to the new Cisalpine republic. But the conclusion of the definitive treaty of peace with the emperor being protracted on account of the French refusing to restore Mantua, as it is alleged it was stipulated they should, in the preliminaries, they at length agreed to cede to him the city and a part of the territory of Venice in compensation for Mantua.

The definitive treaty of peace between France and the emperor was signed at Campo Formio, on the 17th of October, 1797. By this treaty the emperor cedes to France the whole of the Netherlands, and all his former territory in Italy. He is to receive in return the city of Venice, Istria, and Dalmatia, and the Venetian islands in the Adriatic: the French are to possess the other Venetian islands.

The peace with the empire of Germany is not yet concluded. A congress is now assembled at Rastadt, to discuss the terms of this peace, and adjust the claims of the several princes. The decisions of this congress, or rather of France and the emperor, will, it is probable, somewhat reduce the limits of the empire, and be productive of considerable changes in the claims and sovereignties of several of its princes.

GENEALOGICAL LIST of the late royal family of France.

Lewis XVI. the late unfortunate king of the French, was born August 24, 1754: married, April 9, 1770, to Maria-Antoinetta, archduchess of Austria, born November 2, 1755; succeeded his grand-father Lewis XV. May 10, 1774; crowned at Rheims, June 11, 1775; beheaded January 21, 1793. The issue of Lewis XVI. and Maria-Antoinetta, is

1. Madame Maria-Theresa-Charlotta, born December 19, 1778.

Brothers and sisters to his late majesty.

1. Lewis-Stanislaus-Xavier, count de Provence, born November 17, 1755; married, May 14, 1771, Maria-Josepha-Louisa, daughter of the king of Sardinia, born September 2, 1753.

2. Charles-Philip, count d'Artois, born October 9, 1757, married, November 6, 1773, to Maria-Theresa, daughter of the king of Sardinia, born Jan. 21, 1776, by whom he has issue:

Louisa-Antoine, born Jan. 24, 1778.

A princess, born August 5, 1780.

Another princess, born Jan. 8, 1783.

3. Maria-Adelaide-Clotilda-Xaveria, born Sept. 23, 1759.

Issue of Lewis XV. now living, are

1. Maria-Adelaide, duchess of Lorraine and Bar, born 1732.

2. Victoria-Louisa-Marie-Theresa, born 1733.

3. Sophia-Philippina-Elizabeth-Justina, born 1734.

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Friebla
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4. Louisa-Maria, born 1737, who went into a convent of Carmelite and took the veil in 1770.

NETHERLANDS.

THE seventeen provinces, which are known by the name of the Netherlands, were formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and afterwards of the circle of Belgium or Burgundy, in the German empire. They obtained the general name of the Netherlands, Pais-Bas, or Low Countries, from their situation in respect of Germany.

EXTENT, SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES OF THE SEVENTEEN PROVINCES.

Miles.

Degrees.

Length, 360 } between { 49 and 54 North lat.
Breadth, 260 } { 2 and 7 East long.

They are bounded by the German sea, on the north; by Germany, east; by Lorraine and France, south; and by the British Channel, west. We shall, for the sake of perspicuity, and to avoid repetition, treat of the seventeen provinces under two great divisions: first, the *Northern*, which contains the Seven United Provinces, usually known by the name of HOLLAND; secondly, the *Southern*, containing the French Netherlands. The United Provinces are, properly speaking, eight, viz. Holland, Overysse, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Groningen, Gelderland, and Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one sovereignty, they generally go by the name of the Seven United Provinces.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Miles.

Degrees.

Length 150 } between { 51 and 54 North lat.
Breadth nearly the same } { 3 and 7 East long.

Containing 10,000 square miles, with 275 inhabitants to each.

The following, from Templeman's survey of the globe, is the most satisfactory account we meet with of the geographical division, including the Texel, and other islands:

Countries and United Provinces.	Square Miles.	°	'	Chief Cities.
Overysse	1903	60	50	Deventer
Holland	1800	84	52	AMSTERDAM
Gelderland	986	50	40	Nimwegen
Friesland	870	44	34	Leuwarden
Zutphen	644	37	33	Zutphen
Groningen	540	45	37	Groningen
Utrecht	450	41	22	Utrecht
Zealand	303	29	24	Middleburg
Texel and other islands.	113			
Total	7546			

AIR, SEASONS, SOIL, AND FACE } These provinces lie opposite to
OF THE COUNTRY. } England, at the distance of 90 miles,
upon the east side of the English Channel, and are only a narrow slip of low swampy land, lying between the mouths of several great rivers, and

what the industry of the inhabitants have gained from the sea by means of dykes, which they have raised, and still support, with incredible labour and expence. The air of the United Provinces is therefore foggy and gross, until it is purified by the frost in winter, when the east wind usually sets in for about four months, and their harbours are frozen up. The moisture of the air causes metals to rust, and wood to mould, more than in any other country; which is the reason of their perpetually rubbing and scouring, and of the brightness and cleanliness in their houses; so much taken notice of. The soil is unfavourable to vegetation; but, by the industry of the inhabitants in making canals, it is rendered fit for pasture, and in many places for tillage. Holland, with all its commercial advantages, is not a desirable country to live in, especially to foreigners. Here are no mountains, nor rising grounds, no plantations, purling streams, or cataracts. The whole face of the country, when viewed from a tower or steeple, has the appearance of a continued marsh or bog, drained, at certain distances, by innumerable ditches; and many of the canals, which in that country serve as high-roads, are in the summer months no better than offensive stagnated waters.

RIVERS AND HARBOURS.] The rivers are an important consideration to the United Provinces; the chief of which are the Rhine, one of the largest rivers in Europe; the Maese, the Scheldt, and the Vecht. There are many small rivers that join these, and a prodigious number of canals; but there are few good harbours in the United Provinces; the best are those of Rotterdam, Helvoetsluys, and Flushing; that of Amsterdam, though one of the largest and safest in Europe, has a bar at the entrance of it, over which large vessels cannot pass, without being lightened.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND.} The quantity of grain produced here is not sufficient for home consumption; but, by draining their bogs and marshes, they have many excellent meadows, which fatten lean German and Danish cattle, to a vast size; and they make prodigious quantities of the best butter and cheese in Europe. Their country produces turf, madder, tobacco, some fruit, and iron; but all the pit-coal and timber used there, and, indeed, most of the comforts, and even the necessaries of life, are imported. They have a good breed of sheep, whose wool is highly valued; and their horses and horned cattle are of a larger size than in any other nation in Europe. It is said that there are some wild bears and wolves here. Storks build and hatch on their chimneys; but being birds of passage, they leave the country about the middle of August, with their young, and return the February following. Their river-fish is much the same as ours; but their sea-fish is generally larger, owing perhaps to their fishing in deep water. No herrings visit their coasts; but they have many excellent oyster-beds about the islands of the Texel, producing very large and well-tasted oysters. Notwithstanding all these inconveniences, the industry of the Hollanders furnishes as great a plenty of the necessaries and commodities of life, and upon as easy terms (except to travellers and strangers), as they are to be met with in any part of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.} The seven United Provinces are perhaps the best peopled of any spot of the same extent in the world. They contain, according to the best accounts, 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages, and about 2,000,000 of inhabitants; besides the twenty-five towns, and the people, in what is called the Lands of the Generality, or conquered

countries and towns of other parts of the Netherlands*. The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch (for so the inhabitants of the United Provinces are in general called), seem to be formed by their situation, and to arise from their natural wants. Their country, which is preserved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour; and the artificial drains, with which it is every where intersected, must be kept in perpetual repair. Even what may be called their natural commodities; their butter and cheese, are produced by a constant attention to the laborious parts of life. Their principal food they earn out of the sea, by their herring-fisheries; for they dispose of most of their valuable fishes to the English, and other nations, for the sake of gain. The air and temperature of their climate incline them to phlegmatic, slow dispositions, both of body and mind; and yet they are irascible, especially if heated with liquor. Even their virtues are owing to their coldness with regard to every object that does not immediately concern their own interests; for, in all other respects, they are quiet neighbours and peaceable subjects. Their attention to the constitution and independency of their country is owing to the same principle.

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active, when they find their interests at stake; witness their sea-wars with England and France. Their boors, though slow of understanding, are manageable by fair means. Their seamen are plain, blunt, but rough, surly, and an ill-natured sort of people, and appear to be insensible of public spirit, and affection for each other. Their tradesmen in general are reckoned honest in their dealings, and very sparing of their words. Smoking tobacco is practised by old and young, of both sexes; and as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no people are so unfeeling. A Dutchman of low rank, when drunk, is guilty of every species of brutality. The Dutch have also been known to exercise the most dreadful inhumanities for interest abroad, where they thought themselves free from discovery; but they are in general quiet and inoffensive in their own country, which exhibits but few instances of murder, rapine, or violence. As to the habitual tipping and drinking charged upon both sexes, it is owing, in a great measure, to the nature of their soil and climate. In general all appetites and passions seem to run lower and cooler here, than in most other countries, that of avarice excepted. Their tempers are not airy enough for joy, or any unusual strains of pleasant humour, nor warm enough for love; so that the softer passions seem no natives of this country; and love itself is little better than a mechanical affection, arising from interest, convenience, or habit; it is talked of sometimes among the young men, but as a thing they have heard of rather than felt, and as a discourse that becomes them rather than affects them.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, the Dutch are certainly the most expert of any people; as, to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, they unite the no less necessary science of preserving it. It is a kind of general rule for every man to spend less than his income, be that what it will; nor does it often enter into the heads of this sagacious people, that the common course of expence should equal the revenue;

* Mons. de Wit, at the beginning of this century, computed the people of Holland at 2,500,000, but Mr. Templeman estimates them only at 2,000,000; which, in proportion to the populousness of England, is more than six to one, considering the extent of the country. Holland is also reckoned to have as many souls as the other six provinces; which if true, the people of the seven provinces, with their appendages, must be very numerous.

and when this happens, they think, at least, they have lived that year to no purpose; and the report of it used to discredit a man among them, as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. But this rigid frugality is not so universal among the Dutch as it was formerly; for a greater degree of luxury and extravagance has been introduced among them, as well as the other nations of Europe. Gaming is likewise practised by many of their fashionable ladies, and some of them discover more propensity to gallantry than was known here in former times. No country can vie with Holland in the number of those inhabitants whose lot, if not riches, is at least a comfortable sufficiency; and where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midst of a world of taxes and contributions, they flourish and grow rich. From this systematic spirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the most obstinate perseverance, they succeeded in the stupendous works of draining their country of those immense deluges of water, that had overflowed so large a part of it during many ages, while, at the same time, they brought under their subjection and command the rivers and seas that surround them, by dykes of incredible thickness and strength, and made them the principal bulwarks on which they rely for the protection and safety of their territories, against the danger of an enemy. This they have done by covering their frontiers and cities with innumerable sluices, by means of which, at the shortest notice, the most rapid inundations are let in, and they become, in a few hours, inaccessible. From that frugality and perseverance by which they have been so much characterised, they were enabled, though labouring under the greatest difficulties, not only to throw off the Spanish yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the most tender parts, by seizing her rich galleons, and forming new establishments in Africa, and the East and West Indies, at the expense of Spain, and thereby becoming, from a despicable province, a most powerful and formidable enemy. Equally wonderful was the rise of their military and marine establishments, maintaining, during their celebrated contention with Lewis XIV. and Charles II. of England, not less than 150,000 men, and upwards of eighty ships of the line. But a spirit of frugality being now less universal among them, the rich traders and mechanics begin to approximate to the luxuries of English and French dressing and living; and their nobility and high magistrates, who have retired from trade, rival those of any other part of Europe in their table, buildings, furniture, and equipages.

The diversions of the Dutch differ not much from those of the English, who seem to have borrowed from them the neatness of their drinking booths, skittle, and other grounds and small pieces of water, which form the amusements of the middling ranks, not to mention their hand-organs, and other musical inventions. They are the best skaters upon the ice in the world. It is amazing to see the crowds in a hard frost upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women in darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity.

DRESS.] Their dress formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men; and the jerkins, plain mobs, short petticoats, and other oddities of women; all which, added to the natural thickness and clumsiness of their persons, gave them a very grotesque appearance. These dresses now prevail only among the lower ranks, and more particularly amongst the sea-faring people.

RELIGION.] The established religion here is the presbyterian and Calvinism; none but presbyterians are admitted to any office or post in the government, excepting in the army; yet all religions and sects are

tolerated, and have their respective meetings or assemblies for public worship, among which the papists and Jews are very numerous. And indeed, this country may be considered as a striking instance of the benefits arising to a nation from universal toleration. As every man is allowed to worship God according to the dictates of his own conscience, persons of the most opposite opinions live together in the most perfect harmony and peace. No man in this republic has any reason to complain of being oppressed on account of his religious principles, nor any hopes, by advancing his religion, to form a party, or to break in upon the government; and, therefore, in Holland, men live together as citizens of the world; their differences in opinion make none in affection, and they are associated together by the common ties of humanity and bonds of peace, under the protection of the laws of the state, with equal encouragement to arts and industry, and equal freedom of speculation and inquiry.

[LANGUAGE.] The natural language of the United Provinces is Low Dutch, which is a corrupted dialect of the German; but the people of fashion speak English and French. The Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Onse Vader, die in de hemel zyn, uwen naam worde gebedelicht: uw koninkryk come: uwe wille geschiede gelyck in den hemel zoo ook op den arden, ons dagelicks broot geef ons beeden, ende vergeeft onse schulden gelyck ook wy verg. wien onse schuldenaaren: ende enlaet ons neit in verseeckinge, maer verlast ons van der boesen. Amen.*

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Erasmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, stand at the head of modern learning, as Boerhave does of medicine. Haerlem disputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and the magistrates keep two copies of a book intitled *Speculum Salvationis*, printed by Koster in 1440; and the most elegant editions of the classics came from the Dutch presses of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. The Dutch have excelled in controversial divinity, which insinuated itself so much into the state, that, before principles of universal toleration prevailed, it had almost proved fatal to the government; witness the violent disputes about Arminianism, free-will, predestination, and the like. Besides Boerhave, they have produced excellent writers in all branches of medicine. Grævius and Burman stand at the head of their numerous commentators upon the classics. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and arise chiefly from their employments, in universities, church, or state.

[UNIVERSITIES.] These are Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and Franeker.

The university of Leyden, which was founded in 1575, is the largest and most ancient in all the united Netherlands. Its library, besides a number of printed books, has two thousand oriental manuscripts, many of which are in Arabic; and a large sphere adapted to the Copernican system, and moving by clock-work. Here is also a physic-garden, and an anatomical theatre.

The university of Utrecht, in the province of the same name, was changed from a school into an university, in 1636; but it has not all the privileges of the other universities, being entirely subject to the magistrates of the city. The physic-garden here is very curious; and for the recreation of the students, on the east side of the city, just without the gate, is a beautiful mall, consisting of seven straight walks, two thousand paces in length, regularly planted with limes; but that in the middle is properly the mall.

There are abundance of youth, of the principal nobility and gentry from most countries in Europe, at these seminaries of literature; and as every one may live as he pleases, without being obliged to be profuse in his expenses, or so much as quitting his night-gown for either weeks or months together, foreigners of all ranks and conditions are to be seen here. The force of example is strikingly exhibited at these universities; for frugality in expense, order, a composed behaviour, attention to study, and assiduity in all things, being the characteristics of the natives, strangers who continue amongst them, soon adopt their manners and forms of living. And though the students live as they please, and study as much or as little as they think fit, yet they are in general remarkable for their sobriety and good manners, and the assiduity and success with which they apply themselves to their studies. No oaths are imposed, nor any religious tests; so that Roman catholic parents, and even Jews, send their children here with as little scruple as protestants.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The prodigious dykes, some of
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } which are said to be seventeen
 cells in thickness, mounds, and canals, constructed by the Dutch, to
 preserve their country from those dreadful inundations by which it
 formerly suffered so much, are stupendous, and hardly to be equalled.
 A stone quarry near Maastricht, under a hill, is worked into a kind of
 subterraneous palace, supported by pillars twenty feet high. The stad-
 house of Amsterdam is perhaps the best building of that kind in the
 world: it stands upon 13,659 large piles, driven into the ground; and
 the inside is equally convenient and magnificent. Several museums,
 containing antiquities and curiosities, artificial and natural, are to be
 found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the university
 of Leyden; such as the effigies of a peasant of Russia, who swallowed a
 knife ten inches in length, and is said to have lived eight years after it
 was taken out of his stomach; but the truth of this seems to be doubt-
 ful. A shirt made of the entrails of a man. Two Egyptian mummies,
 being the bodies of two princes of great antiquity. All the muscles and
 tendons of the human body, curiously set up by professor Stalpert Van-
 der Weil.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, } Amsterdam, which is
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } built upon piles of wood,
 is thought to contain 241,000 people, and to be, next to London, the
 most commercial city in the world. Its conveniences for commerce,
 and the grandeur of its public works, are almost beyond description.
 In this, and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the
 canals, and walks under trees planted on their borders, are admirable;
 but above all, we are struck with the neatness and cleanliness that is
 every where observed within doors. This city, however, labours un-
 der two great disadvantages; bad air, and the want of fresh wholesome
 water, which obliges the inhabitants to preserve the rain water in refer-
 voirs. Rotterdam is next to Amsterdam for commerce and wealth; its
 inhabitants are computed at 56,000. The Hague, though but a village,
 is the seat of government in the United Provinces, and is celebrated for
 the magnificence and beauty of its buildings, the resort of foreign am-
 bassadors and strangers of all distinctions who live in it, the abundance
 and cheapness of its provisions, and the politeness of its inhabitants, who
 are computed to be about 40,000; it is no place of trade, but it has been
 for many years noted as an emporium of pleasure and politics. Leyden
 and Utrecht are fine cities, as well as famous for their universities.
 Scardam, though a wealthy trading place, is mentioned here as

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workshop where Peter the Great, of Muscovy, in person, served his apprenticeship to ship-building, and laboured as a common handicraft. The upper part of Gelderland is subject to Prussia, and the capital city Gelder.

INLAND NAVIGATION, CANALS, AND } MANNER OF TRAVELING. } The usual way of passing from town to town, is by covered boats called treckscoits, which are dragged along the canal by horses on a slow uniform trot, so that passengers reach the different towns where they are to stop, precisely at the appointed instant of time. This method of travelling, though to strangers rather dull, is extremely convenient to the inhabitants, and very cheap. By means of these canals, an extensive inland commerce is not only carried on through the whole country, but, as they communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, the productions of every country are conveyed at a small expence into various parts of Germany; and the Austrian and French Flanders. A treckscoit is divided into two different apartments, called the roof and the ruin; the first for gentlemen, and the other for common people, who may read, smoke, eat, drink, or converse with people of various nations, dresses, and languages. Near Amsterdam and other large cities, a traveller is astonished when he beholds the effects of an extensive and flourishing commerce. Here the canals are lined for miles together with elegant neat country-houses, seated in the midst of gardens and pleasure grounds, intermixed with figures, busts, statues, temples, &c. to the very water's edge. Having no objects of amusement beyond the limits of their own gardens, the families in fine weather spend much of their time in these little temples, smoking, reading, or viewing the passengers, to whom they appear complaisant and polite.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] An account of the Dutch commerce would comprehend that of almost all Europe. There is scarcely a manufacture that they do not carry on, or a state to which they do not trade. In this they are assisted by the populousness of their country, the cheapness of their labour, and, above all, by the water carriage, which, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond all other nations. The United Provinces are the grand magazine of Europe: and goods may be purchased here sometimes cheaper than in the countries where they grow. The East India company have had the monopoly of the fine spices for more than a hundred years, and, till the late and present wars with England, was extremely opulent and powerful. Their capital city in India is Batavia, which is said to exceed in magnificence, opulence, and commerce, all the cities of Asia. Here the viceroys appear in greater splendour than the stadtholder; and some of the Dutch subjects in Batavia scarcely acknowledge any dependence on the mother country. They have other settlements in India; but the island of Ceylon, and the Cape of Good Hope, the grand rendezvous of the ships of all nations, outward or homeward bound, have been lately taken by the English. When Lewis XIV. invaded Holland with an army of 80,000 men, the Dutch made some dispositions to ship themselves off to their settlements in India; so great was their aversion to the French government. Not to mention their herring and whale fisheries, which they have carried off from the native proprietors, they are distinguished for their pottery, tobacco-pipes, delf-ware, finely refined salt; their oil-mills, and starch-manufactures; their hemp, and fine paper manufactures; their fine linen and table damasks; their saw-mills for timber, either for shipping or houses, in immense quantities; their great sugar-baking; their vast woollen, cotton, and silk manufactures;

wax-bleaching; leather-dressing; the great quantity of coin and specie, assisted by their banks, especially by that of Amsterdam; their East India trade; and their general industry and frugality. Their commerce, however, must have greatly suffered during the present war, and especially since the French entered the country.

[PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of these, the capital is the East India, incorporated in 1602, by which formerly the Dutch acquired immense wealth, divided forty per cent. and sometimes sixty about the year 1660; at present the dividends are much reduced; but in a hundred and twenty-four years, the proprietors, on an average, one year with another, divided somewhat above twenty-four per cent. So late as the year 1760, they divided fifteen per cent; but the Dutch West India company the same year divided no more than two and a half per cent. This company was incorporated in 1621. The bank of Amsterdam was thought to be inexhaustibly rich, and was under an excellent direction; it is said by sir William Temple, to contain the greatest treasure, either real or imaginary, that is known any where in the world. What may seem a paradox, is, that this bank is so far from paying any interest, that the money in it is worth somewhat more than the current cash is, in common payments. Mr. Anderson supposed, that the cash, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, which are kept in the vaults of the stadthoufe, amount to thirty-six (though others say only to thirty) millions sterling.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Before the French entered Holland in January 1795, the United Provinces formed a common confederacy, yet each province had an internal government or constitution independent of the others; this government was called the *states* of that province; and the delegates from them formed the *states-general*, in whom the sovereignty of the whole confederacy was vested; but though a province should send two or more delegates, yet such province had no more than one voice in every resolution; and before that resolution could have the force of a law, it must be approved of by every province, and by every city and republic in that province. This formality in times of great danger and emergency has been set aside. Every resolution of the states of a particular province must be carried unanimously.

The *council of state* consisted likewise of deputies from the several provinces; but its constitution was different from that of the states-general; it was composed of twelve persons, whereof Gelderland sent two; Holland, three; Zealand, two; Utrecht, two; Friesland, one; Overijssel, one; and Groningen, one. These deputies, however, did not vote provincially, but personally. Their business was to prepare estimates, and ways and means for raising the revenue, as well as other matters that were to be laid before the states-general. The states of the provinces were styled "Noble and Mighty Lords," but those of Holland, "Noble and Most Mighty Lords;" and the states-general, "High and Mighty Lords," or, "The Lords the States-general of the united Netherlands;" or, "Their High Mightinesses." Subordinate to these two bodies, was the chamber of accounts, which was likewise composed of provincial deputies, who audited all public accounts. The admiralty formed a separate board, and the executive part of it was committed to five colleges in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Friesland. In Holland the people had nothing to do either in choosing their representatives or their magistrates. In Amsterdam, which took the lead in all public deliberations, the magistracy was lodged in thirty

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fix senators, who were chosen for life, and every vacancy among them was filled up by the survivors. The same senate also elected the deputies to represent the cities in the province of Holland.

The above particulars are mentioned, because, without a knowledge of them, it is impossible to understand the history of the United Provinces from the death of king William to the year 1747, when the stadtholdership was made hereditary in the male and female representatives of the family of Orange. This office in a manner superseded the constitution already described. The stadtholder was president of the states of every province; and such was his power and influence; that he could change the deputies, magistrates, and officers, in every province and city. By this he had the moulding of the assembly of the states-general, though he had no voice in it: in short, though he had not the title, he had more real power and authority than some kings; for, besides the influence and revenue he derived from the stadtholdership, he had several principalities and large estates of his own. The present stadtholder is William V. prince of Orange and Nassau, son of the late stadtholder William Charles, who married Anne, princess royal of Great Britain, and died 1751.

Though Holland under this constitution was called a republic, yet its government was far from being of the popular kind; nor did the people enjoy that degree of liberty which might at first view be apprehended. It was indeed rather an oligarchy than a commonwealth; for the bulk of the people were not suffered to have the least share in any part of the government, not even in the choice of the deputies. It may also be observed, that very few persons in this state dared speak their real sentiments freely; and they were generally educated in principles so extremely cautious, that they could not relinquish them when they entered more into public life.

With respect to the administration of justice in this country, every province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal causes, appeal lies from the petty and county courts; and it is said that justice is nowhere distributed with more impartiality.

Since the entrance of the French into the country, Holland is under the government of a convention, elected by the people, in the manner of that of France. A constitution has been framed and presented to the people for their acceptance; but it was rejected by a large majority, on the ground that it was not sufficiently free. The constitutional committee was therefore ordered to draw up a new one.

REVENUES.] The government of the United Provinces proportion their taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. Those taxes consist of an almost general excise, a land-tax, poll-tax, and hearth-money; so that the public revenue amounts annually to about two millions and a half sterling. The province of Holland pays nearly half of this revenue. The following is the rate at which each of the seven United Provinces is said to contribute towards the public expence:

Of every million of ducats, the Province of	} 420,000	
Holland contributes		
Zealand		130,000
Friesland		170,000
Utrecht		85,000
Groningen		75,000
Gelderland		70,000
Overyssel	50,000	

Of the 420,000 ducats paid by the province of Holland, the city of Amsterdam furnishes upwards of 320,000. The taxes in these provin-

ces are so heavy, and so many, that it is not without reason a certain author asserts, that the only thing which has escaped taxation there, is the air they breathe. But, for the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandise are exceedingly low. The immense sums in the British funds have given reason for some people to imagine that Holland labours under heavy debts; but the chief reason is, the state only pays two and a half per cent. interest for money.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The number of land forces in the United Provinces in time of peace commonly amounts to about forty thousand: twenty-five thousand of whom serve in garrisons; many of them are Scots and Swifs; and in time of war they hire whole regiments of Germans. The chief command of the army is vested in the stadtholder, under whom is the field-marshal general. The marine force of the United Provinces used to be very great, and they formerly fitted out very formidable fleets: but their navy has of late been much neglected. Their late war with Great Britain obliged them to increase it; and they have great resources for that purpose.

Their navy must at present be in a very feeble and shattered state, in consequence of the surrender of admiral Lucas's Squadron at the Cape of Good Hope, and the recent victory gained by admiral Duncan. They are now, however, making great efforts to restore it by voluntary contributions; and a tax for that purpose has been decreed by the Batavian convention, of an eighth of every person's income above a certain sum, to bear an interest of three per cent.

ORDER OF TEUTONIC KNIGHTS.] This was one of the most powerful as well as ancient orders in Europe, now divided into two branches; the first for papists, and the second branch for protestants. This branch has a house at Utrecht, where they transact their business. The nobles of Holland, if they propose a son to be a knight, enter his name in the register, and pay a large sum of money to the use of the poor maintained by the order; and the candidate succeeds in rotation, if he brings with him proof of his nobility for four generations on the father's and mother's side. The ensign is a cross pattie, enamelled white, surmounted with another black; above the cross is a ball twisted, white and black; it is worn pendent to a broad black watered riband, which is worn about the neck. The same cross is embroidered on the left breast of the upper garment of each knight.

ARMS.] The ensigns armorial of the seven United Provinces, or the States of Holland, are, *Or*, a lion, gules, holding with one paw a cutlass, and with the other a bundle of seven arrows close bound together, in allusion to the seven confederate provinces, with the following motto; *Concordia res parva crescant.*

HISTORY.] See the Austrian Netherlands.

William V. prince of Orange and Nassau, hereditary stadtholder, captain-general and admiral of the seven United Provinces, and knight of the garter, was born March 19, 1748, married, in 1767, the princess Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, of Prussia, born in 1751; by whom he has issue:

1. Frederica-Louisa-Wilhelmina, born Nov. 28, 1770; married to the hereditary prince of Brunswick.

2. William-Frederic, hereditary prince, born Aug. 2, 1772; married, Oct. 1, 1791, to princess Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, of Prussia.

3. William-George-Frederic, born Feb. 15, 1774.

The stadtholder has one sister, Wilhelmina-Carolina, born 1745, and married to the prince of Nassau Weilbur.

FRENCH AND LATE AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Degrees;
 Length 200 } between { 49 and 52 North latitude.
 Breadth 200 } { 2 and 7 East longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the United Provinces on the North; by Germany, East; by Lorraine, Champaign, and Picardy, in France, South; and by another part of Picardy, and the English sea, West.

As this country so lately belonged to three different powers, the Austrians, French, and Dutch, we shall continue to distinguish the provinces and towns belonging to each state.

1. Province of BRABANT.

Subdivisions	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
1. Dutch Brabant	Boisseduc	} N. 1374
	Breda	
	Bergen-op-Zoom	
	Grave, NE.	
2. Late Austrian Brabant	Lillo	} NW. 1892
	Steenbergen	
	Brussels, E. long. 4 deg. 28 min. N. lat. 50-51	
	Louvain	
3. ANTWERP, and, 3. MALINES, are provinces independent of Brabant, though surrounded by it; they were subject to the house of Austria.	Vilvorden	} in the middle.
	Landen	

4. Province of LIMBURG, S. E.

3. Chief Towns	Limburg, E. long. 65. N. lat. 50-37. late sub. to Austria.	} 312	
	Maestricht		
	Dalem		} sub. to the Dutch } 300
	Fauquemont, or Valkenburg		

5. Province of LUXEMBURG.

Late Austrian Luxemburg	{ Luxemburg, E. long. 6. 8. N. lat. 49. 15.	} SE. 2408 292
French Luxemburg	Thionville	
	Montmedy	

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, late subject to Austria.

Chief Towns	{ Namur, on the Sambre and Maefe, } 425 E. long. 4-50. N. lat. 50-30
	{ Charleroy on the Sambre

7. Province of HAINAULT.

Late Austrian Hainault	} Mons, E. long. 3-33. N. lat. 50-30	} in the } middle. } 640	
			Aeth
French Hainault	} Valenciennes Bouchain Condé Landrecy	} S. W. } 800	
			Engghien

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

Subject to France	} Cambray, E. of Arras, E. long. 3-15. N. lat. 50-15.	} 150
	Creveccœur, S. of Cambray.	

9. Province of ARTOIS.

Subject to France	} Arras, SW. on the Scarpe, E. long. 2-5. N. lat. 50-20	} 990	
			St. Omer, E. of Boulogne
			Aire, S. of St. Omer
			St. Venant, E. of Aire
			Bethune, SE. of Aire
	} Terouen, S. of St. Omer		

10. Province of FLANDERS.

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.				
Dutch Flanders	} Slus, N. Axel, N. Hult, N. Sans van Gent, N.	} 280				
			Ghent, on the Scheldt, E. lon. 3-36. N. lat. 51.			
			} Bruges Ostend } NW. near the sea			
				Newport		
Late Austrian Flanders	} Oudenard on the Scheldt Courtray } on the Lis Dixmude } Ypres, N. of Lisle Tournay on the Scheldt Menin on the Lis	} 190				
			} Little, W. of Tournay Dunkirk, on the coast E. of Calais			
				} Douay, W. of Arras Mardike, W. of Dunkirk St. Amand, N. of Valenciennes Gravelines, E. of Calais		
			French Flanders		} 760	

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of Brabant, and upon the coast of Flanders, is bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the seasons more settled, both in winter and summer, than they are in Eng-

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land. The soil and its produce are rich, especially in corn and fruits. They have abundance of pasture; and Flanders itself has been reckoned the granary of France and Germany, and sometimes of England. The most barren parts for corn rear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. Upon the whole, the late Austrian Netherlands, by the culture, commerce, and industry of the inhabitants, was formerly the richest and most beautiful spot in Europe, whether we regard the variety of its manufactures, the magnificence and riches of its cities, the pleasantness of its roads and villages, or the fertility of its land. If it has fallen off in latter times, it is owing partly to the neglect of its government, but chiefly to its vicinity to England and Holland; but it is still a most desirable and agreeable country. There are few or no mountains in the Netherlands: Flanders is a flat country, with scarcely a single hill in it: Brabant, and the rest of the provinces, consist of little hills and valleys, woods, inclosed grounds, and champaign fields.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Maese, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel, Scheldt, Lis, Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The principal canals are those of Brussels, Ghent, and Ostend.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Mines of iron, copper, lead, and brimstone, are found in Luxemburg and Limburg, as are some marble quarries; and in the province of Namur there are coal-pits, and a species of bituminous fat earth proper for fuel, with great plenty of fossile nitre.

INHABITANTS, POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } The Flemings (for so the inhabitants of Flanders and the Low Countries are generally called) are thought to be a heavy, blunt, honest people: but their manners are somewhat indelicate. Formerly they were known to fight desperately in defence of their country; at present they make no great figure. The late Austrian Netherlands are extremely populous; but authors differ as to their numbers. Perhaps we may fix them, at a medium, at a million and a half. They are ignorant, and fond of religious exhibitions and pageants. Their other diversions are the same with those of the peasants of the neighbouring countries.

DRESS AND LANGUAGE.] The inhabitants of French Flanders are mere French men and women in both these particulars. The Flemings on the frontiers of Holland dress like the Dutch boors, and their language is the same; but the better sort of the people speak French, and dress in the same taste.

RELIGION.] The established religion here is the Roman catholic; but protestants, and other sects, are not molested.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbishoprics are Cambray, Malines, or Mechlin: the bishoprics, Ghent, Bruges, Autwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St. Omer, Namur, and Ruremonde.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND ARTISTS. } The societies of Jesuits formerly produced the most learned men in the

Austrian Low Countries, in which they had many comfortable settlements. Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, were their chief productions. Strada is an elegant historian and poet. The Flemish painters and sculptors have great merit, and form a school by themselves. The works of Reubens and Vandyke cannot be sufficiently admired. The models for heads of Flamingo, or the Fleming, particularly those of children, have never

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yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engrossed tapestry weaving to themselves.

UNIVERSITIES.] Louvain, Douay, Tournay, and St. Omer. The first was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant, and enjoys great privileges. By a grant of pope Sixtus IV. this university has the privilege of presenting to all the livings in the Netherlands, which right they enjoy, except in Holland.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Some Roman monuments of
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } temples and other buildings are
to be found in these provinces. Many curious bells, churches, and the like, ancient and modern, are also found here; and the magnificent old edifices of every kind, seen through all their cities, give evidence of their former grandeur. In 1607, some labourers found 1600 gold coins, and ancient medals, of Antoninus Pius, Aurelius, and Lucius Verus.

CITIES.] This article has employed several large volumes published by different authors, but in times when the Austrian Netherlands were far more flourishing than now. The walls of Ghent, formerly the capital of Flanders, and celebrated for its linen and woollen manufactures, contain the circuit of ten miles; but now unoccupied, and great part of it in a manner a void. Bruges, formerly so noted for its trade and manufactures, but above all for its fine canals, is now dwindled to an inconsiderable place. Ostend is a tolerably convenient harbour for traders; and soon after the rupture between Great Britain and Holland, during the American war, became more opulent and populous. In 1781, it was visited by the emperor, who granted to it many privileges and franchises, and the free exercise of the protestant religion. As to Ypres, it is only a strong garrison town. The same may be said of Charleroy and Namur.

Louvain, the capital of the Austrian Brabant, instead of its flourishing manufactures and places of trade, now contains pretty gardens, walks, and arbours. Brussels retains somewhat of its ancient manufactures; and having been the residence of the governor or viceroy of the Austrian Netherlands, is a populous, lively place. Antwerp, once the emporium of the European continent, is now reduced to be a tapestry and thread-lace shop, with the houses of some bankers, jewellers, and painters adjoining. One of the first exploits of the Dutch, soon after they threw off the Spanish yoke, was to ruin at once the commerce of Antwerp, by sinking vessels, loaded with stone, in the mouth of the Scheldt; thus shutting up the entrance of that river to ships of large burthen. This was the more cruel, as the people of Antwerp had seen their friends and fellow-sufferers in the cause of liberty; but they foresaw that the prosperity of their own commerce was at stake.

It may be observed here, that every gentleman's house is a castle or *chateau*; and that there are more strong towns in the Netherlands than in all the rest of Europe; but since the decline of their trade by the rise of the English and Dutch, these towns are considerably diminished in size, and whole streets, particularly in Antwerp, are in appearance uninhabited. In the Netherlands, provisions are extremely good and cheap. A stranger may dine at Brussels, on seven or eight dishes of meat, for less than a shilling English. Travelling is safe, reasonable, and delightful, in this luxurious country. The roads are generally a broad causeway, and run for some miles in a straight line, till they terminate with the view of some noble buildings. At Cassel, in the French Netherlands, may be seen thirty-two towns, itself being on a hill.

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COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief manufactures of the Netherlands are their beautiful linens and laces; in which, notwithstanding the boasted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet unrivalled; particularly in that species called cambrics, from Cambray, the chief place of its manufacture. These manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Austrian Netherlands were considered as a circle of the empire, of which the archducal house, as being sovereign of the whole, was the sole director and summing prince. This circle contributed its share to the imposts of the empire, and sent an envoy to the diet, but was not subject to the judicatories of the empire. At present they must be considered as annexed to France, and under the same constitution and government.

REVENUES.] These arose from the demesne lands and customs: but so much was the trade of Austrian Flanders reduced, that they are said not to have defrayed the expense of their government. The French Netherlands brought in a considerable revenue to the nation.

ARMS.] The arms of Flanders are, Or, a lion sable, langued gules.

HISTORY.] The seventeen provinces, and that part of Germany which lies west of the Rhine, was called Belgica Gallia by the Romans. About a century before the Christian æra, the Battæ removed from Hesse to the marshy country bounded by the Rhine and the Maese. They gave the name of Batavia to their new country. Generous and brave, the Batavians were treated by the Romans with great respect, being exempted from tribute, governed by their own laws, and obliged only to perform military services. Upon the decline of that empire, the Goths, and other northern people, possessed themselves of these provinces first, as they passed through them in their way to France, and other parts of the Roman empire; and afterwards being erected into small governments, the heads of which were despotic within their own dominions, Batavia and Holland became independent on Germany, to which it had been united under one of the grandsons of Charlemagne, in the beginning of the 10th century, when the supreme authority was lodged in the three united powers, of a Count, the Nobles, and the Towns. At last, they were swallowed up by the house of Burgundy, in 1433.

The emperor Charles V. the heir of that family, transferred them, in the year 1477, to the house of Austria, and ranked them as part of the empire, under the title of the Circle of Burgundy. The tyranny of his son, Philip II. who succeeded to the throne of Spain, made the inhabitants attempt to throw off his yoke, which occasioned a general insurrection, the counts Hoorn and Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appearing at the head of it; and Luther's reformation gaining ground about the same time in the Netherlands, his disciples were forced by persecution to join the malcontents. Whereupon king Philip introduced a kind of inquisition, which, from the inhumanity of its proceedings, was called the "Council of blood," in order to suppress them; and many thousands were put to death by that court, besides those that perished by the sword. Count Hoorn and count Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, whom they elected to be their stadtholder, retiring into Holland, that and the adjacent provinces entered into a treaty for their mutual defence, at Utrecht, in the year 1579. And though these revolted at first were thought so despicable as to be termed *Beggars* by their tyrants, their perseverance and courage were such, under the prince of Orange, and with the assistance

afforded them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, that they forced the crown of Spain to declare them a free people, in the year 1609; and afterwards they were acknowledged by all Europe to be an independent state, under the title of THE UNITED PROVINCES. By their sea wars with England, under the Commonwealth, Cromwell, and Charles II. they justly acquired the reputation of a formidable naval power. When the house of Austria, which for some ages ruled over Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, with which they afterwards continued to carry on bloody wars, was become no longer formidable; and when the public jealousy was directed against that of Bourbon, which was favoured by the government of Holland, who had dispossessed the prince of Orange of the stadtholdership; the spirit of the people was such, that they revived it in the person of the prince, who was afterwards William III. king of Great Britain; and during his reign, and that of queen Anne, they were principals in the grand confederacy against Lewis XIV. king of France.

Their conduct towards England in the wars of 1742 and 1756, has been discussed in the history of that country, as also the occurrences which led to a rupture between them and the English in the year 1780. As it was urged that they refused to fulfil the treaties which subsisted between them and Great Britain, so all the treaties which bound Great Britain to them were declared null and void, as if none had ever existed. By the war, their trade suffered considerably; but Negapatnam, in the East Indies, is the only place not restored to them by the late peace.

Probably, to their separation from Great Britain, may be attributed the late differences between the States General and the emperor Joseph II. who, from the exhausted state of several of the European powers, seemed to have a favourable opportunity of accomplishing his ambitious designs. In the year 1781, he had been allowed to demolish the Dutch barrier in his dominions, for which they had contended so desperately in the time of queen Anne; and he now seemed willing to encroach upon their territories. A conference concerning the boundaries of their respective nations was proposed to the states; but before this could take place, he began to commit some acts of hostility, and extended his dominions a little by way of preliminary. Two small forts, St. Donat, and St. Paul, were seized upon, as well as some part of the marshes in the neighbourhood of Sluys. As a prelude to the negotiations, he also demanded that the Dutch guard-ship should be removed from before Lillo, in acknowledgment that one of the prerogatives of his imperial majesty was the free navigation of the Scheldt. This being complied with, the negotiations were opened at Brussels, on the 24th of April, 1784, when several other demands of small portions of territory and little sums of money were made; the most material requisition being the town of Maestricht, and its territory. For some time the conferences were carried on in that dry and tedious manner which generally marks the proceedings of the Dutch; but the emperor urged on his demands with great vigour, and matters seemed fast tending towards an open rupture. On the 23d of August, he delivered in his *ultimatum* to the commissioners at Brussels, in which he offered to give up his demand on Maestricht, in consideration of having the free and unlimited navigation of the Scheldt in both its branches to the sea; and in token of his confidence of the good intentions of the states, he determined to consider the river as open from the date of that paper. Any insult on his flags, in the execution of these purposes, he would

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conclude to be a direct act of hostility, and a formal declaration of war on the part of the republic. To prevent all injuries contrary to the incontestable rights of his imperial majesty, and to leave no doubt of his unalterable resolution to adhere to the propositions contained in the ultimatum, his majesty could not forbear determining to send to sea, from Antwerp, a ship under his flag, after having declared long enough before, in what manner he should consider all violent opposition that might be made to the free passage of the said ship.

The ship was stopped in its passage, as was another, ordered to sail from Ostend up the Scheldt to Antwerp. But the Dutch offered to dismiss the vessels if the captains would engage to return to their respective places, and not continue their voyage on the river; which they refused to do. This the emperor called insulting his flag, and declared to all foreign courts, he could not look on this fact, but as "an effective declaration of war on the part of the republic." In answer to their conduct in stopping the imperial ships, which the emperor styled an insult to his flag, and by which he declared them to have begun hostilities, the Dutch ministers at Brussels, in a paper delivered to that court, protest, "that as their sole aim was to support their uncontroversial right, they cannot be suspected of any hostile aggression, which is the less to be laid to their charge, as they positively declared not to stand any ways answerable for the consequences that may ensue from the particular construction which his imperial majesty may be pleased to put upon the affair. The republic, far from being considered in the light of a power having acted offensively, still persisted in their peaceable dispositions; but if unfortunately such dispositions can have no influence on the mind of his imperial majesty, though the states still preserved some hopes to the contrary, the republic will find itself in the disagreeable necessity of having recourse to such means as the rights of nature and nations entitle them to; hoping that Divine Providence, and the applauding voice of the neutral powers, will assist in maintaining the republic in the just defence of its dearest rights."

Great preparations were made for immediate hostilities against the Dutch; and several hundred of the imperialists, with some field-pieces, advancing towards the counterscarpe of Lillo, the commanding officer of that place ordered the sluices to be opened, November 7, 1784, which effected an inundation that laid under water many miles of flat country around the forts on the Scheldt, to preserve them from an attack. Both parties exerted themselves, in case they should be called forth to open a campaign in the next spring; but France and Prussia interposed as negotiators and mediators, and succeeded in bringing about a reconciliation. However, from the conduct of the emperor in the partition of Poland, and in demolishing the fortifications of the barrier places in the Netherlands, and demanding a free navigation of the Scheldt, and to the East Indies; advancing from one pretension to another, it is apparent, that the most solemn treaties will be no longer observed by some courts and statesmen, than till they have an opportunity with ability to break them.

During the progress of their contentions with the emperor, this country was greatly distressed by the most unhappy animosities within themselves, which it may be proper in this place briefly to state. The continued series of losses which they had sustained in the late war with Great Britain was peculiarly disgraceful to the republic. All their settlements in the West Indies fell into the hands of the British, without resistance; their ships were captured and trade ruined; while the dis-

asters of the war excited the animosity of the two factions against each other to the highest degree. The patriots, or aristocratic party, attributed these defeats to the stadtholder, who had openly expressed his predilection for the English, at the beginning of the American quarrel. To this conduct the patriots now very artfully reverted. They accused him of having advised the aggression of the English, and of contributing to their success by treachery. The evident inequality of the struggle, the notorious deficiency of all warlike articles in the dock-yards and arsenals of the republic, the frequent and public reclamations made by the prince and by the council of state on the subject of that deficiency, were forgotten; and the wilful misconduct of the stadtholder was boldly alleged by the patriots as the sole cause of that miserable succession of defeat and disgrace, which immediately followed the commencement of hostilities. Whilst these were the recriminations of the patriots, the monarchical, or Orange party, accused their antagonists of having involved the country in a dangerous war, at a time when it was entirely unprepared for it.

This produced various accusations and vindications between the two parties, until at last, in the month of May, 1786, the stadtholder gave orders to seize on Vreeswijk, a post of importance to the city of Utrecht, on account of its situation on the canal between that city and the territories of South Holland; containing the sluices by which both these provinces might be overflowed. This brought on a skirmish between the troops of the stadtholder and the burghers of Utrecht, in which the latter proved victorious. Some other unimportant hostilities took place; but while the military operations were carried on in such a languid manner, a violent tumult happened at Amsterdam, which, as usual, was excited by the partisans of the stadtholder, in which several persons were killed. This was followed by a revolt of most of the regular troops of Holland, who went over to the stadtholder; but notwithstanding this apparent advantage, and some others which afterwards took place, the disputes still continued with extreme violence, inasmuch that the princess of Orange herself was seized, and detained prisoner a night by the patriots.

These most turbulent commotions were, however, at last settled by the king of Prussia, who, for this purpose, marched an army into the territories of the United States, and took possession of the city of Rotterdam, and some other places, without resistance. This success over-awed both parties, that they quickly came to an accommodation, and a treaty was concluded between that monarch and the state of Holland. By this, the two contending parties were formally reconciled, and the courts of London and Berlin guaranteed the stadtholdership, as well as the hereditary government of each province, in the house of Orange, with all the rights and prerogatives settled in the years 1747 and 1748; by which all attempts to disturb the domestic tranquillity of the republic, by means of any foreign interference, appeared to be effectually guarded against by the close union that subsisted between those two important powers.

The late revolution in Holland, in consequence of the irruption of the French, and the expulsion of the stadtholder from that country, has already been briefly narrated in our history of France; to which we must refer the reader.

AFTER the independency of the Seven United Provinces was acknowledged, the Spaniards remained possessed of the other ten provinces, or, as they are termed, the Low COUNTRIES, until the duke of Marlborough, a general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramillies, in the year 1706; after which, Brussels, the capital, and great part of these provinces, acknowledged Charles VI. afterwards emperor of Germany, for their sovereign; and his daughter, the late empress-queen, remained possessed of them until the war of 1741, when the French reduced them, except part of the province of Luxemburg; and would have possessed them from that time, but for the exertions of the Dutch, and chiefly of the English, in favour of the house of Austria. The places retained by the French, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in the year 1748, may be seen in the preceding general table of divisions.

It was not long after the settlement of the disturbances in Holland, that the provinces of the Netherlands belonging to the emperor determined to assert their liberty. The quarrel originated, like those in other countries, about the prerogatives assumed by the emperor, and which were more extensive than his subjects wished to allow; and the emperor making use of force to assert his claims, the territories of the United States became a refuge for the discontented Brabanters.

On the part of his imperial majesty, the insurgents were not treated with lenity. A proclamation was issued by count Trautmansdorff, governor of Brussels, intimating, that no quarter should be given them, and that the villages in which they concealed themselves should be set on fire. General Dalton marched with 7000 men to retake the forts, proclaiming that he meant to become master of them by assault, and would put every soul he found in them to the sword.

In opposition to this sanguinary proclamation, the patriots issued a manifesto, in which they declared the emperor to have forfeited his authority, by his various oppressions and cruelties, his annulling his oath, and infringing the constitution. Banishment was threatened to such as took part with him; and all were exhorted to take up arms in defence of their country, though strict orders were given that no crowds or mobs should be allowed to pillage; and whoever was found doing so, should be treated as an enemy to his country.

This was dated at Hoogstraten, in Brabant, October the 24th, 1789. Almost every town in Austrian Flanders showed its determination to oppose the emperor, and the most enthusiastic attachment to military affairs displayed itself in all ranks of men. Even the ecclesiastics manifested their valour on this occasion; which perhaps was naturally to be expected, as the emperor had been very active in depriving them of their revenues. A formidable army was soon raised, which, after some successful skirmishes, made themselves masters of Ghent, Bruges, Tournay, Malines, and Ostend; so that general Dalton was obliged to retire to Brussels. A battle was fought before the city of Ghent, in which the patriots were victorious, though with the loss of 2000 men, besides women and children. It reflects indelible disgrace on the imperial character, as well as on the commanders of the troops, that they committed the most dreadful acts of cruelty on the unhappy objects who fell into their hands. Orders were given to plunder and destroy wherever they could obtain any booty; while the merciless savages not only destroyed the men, but killed women and sucking infants. Some of them plunged their bayonets into the bodies of children in the cradle, or pinned them against the walls of the houses. By these monstrous cruelties, they insured success to their adversaries; for the whole coun-

tries of Brabant, Flanders, and Maes, almost instantly declared in their favour. They published a memorial for their justification, in which they gave, as reasons for their conduct, the many oppressive edicts with which they had been harassed since the death of the empress-queen; the unwarrantable extension of the imperial prerogatives, contrary to his coronation-oath, and which could not be done without perjury on his part; the violence committed on his subjects, by forcibly entering their houses at midnight, and sending them prisoners to Vienna, to perish in a dungeon, or on the banks of the Danube. Not content with this, he had openly massacred his subjects; he had consigned towns and villages to the flames, and entered into a design of exterminating people who contended only for their rights. These things, they owned, might be terrible at the time, and easily impose upon weak minds, but "the natural courage of a nation roused by repeated injuries, and animated by despair, would rise superior to those last efforts of vindictive tyranny, and render them as impotent and abortive, as they were wicked and unexampled." For all which reasons they declared themselves **INDEPENDENT, and for ever released from the house of AUSTRIA.**

The emperor, now perceiving the bad effects of his cruelty, published proclamations of indemnity, &c. but they were treated with the utmost contempt. The patriots made the most rapid conquests insomuch, that before the end of the year they were masters of every place in the Netherlands, except Antwerp and Luxemburg.

Notwithstanding they thus appeared for ever separated from the house of Austria, yet the death of Joseph, happening soon after, produced such a change in the conduct of government, as gave a very unexpected turn to the situation of affairs; and the mild and pacific disposition of Leopold, who succeeded his brother, the conciliatory measures he adopted, together with the mediation of Great Britain, Prussia, and Holland, made a material alteration in the affairs of these provinces; and a convention, which was signed at Reichenbach, on the 27th of July, 1790, by the above-mentioned high contracting powers, had for its object the re-establishment of peace and good order in the Belgic provinces of his imperial majesty.

Their majesties of Great Britain and Prussia, and the states general of Holland, became, in the most solemn manner, guarantees to the emperor and his successors for the sovereignty of the Belgic provinces, now reunited under his dominion.

The ratification of this convention was exchanged between the contracting parties within two months from the date of signing, which was executed at the Hague, on the 10th of December, 1790.

The incursion of the French into these provinces, their complete conquest, and the final cession of them to France by the treaty of Campo Formio, have already been related in our history of the late transactions of that people; which will supersede the necessity of any repetition of it in this place.

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GERMANY

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GERMANY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. ✓	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600 } between { 5 and 19 East long. } 181,631.		
Breadth 520 } { 45 and 55 North lat. }		
GERMANY and BOHEMIA contain 191,573 square miles, with 135 inhabitants to each.		

BOUNDARIES.] THE empire of Germany, properly so called, is bounded by the German Ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic, on the North; by Poland and Hungary, including Bohemia, on the East; by Switzerland and the Alps, which divide it from Italy, on the South; and by the dominions of France and the Low Countries, on the West, from which it is separated by the Rhine, Moselle, and the Maese.

GRAND DIVISIONS.] The divisions of Germany, as laid down even by modern writers, are various and uncertain. We shall therefore adhere to those that are most generally received. Germany formerly was divided into the Upper, or Southern, and the lower, or Northern. The emperor Maximilian, predecessor and grandfather to the emperor Charles V. divided it into ten great circles; and the division was confirmed in the diet of Nuremberg, in 1552; but the circle of Burgundy, or the seventeen provinces of the Low Countries, being now detached from the empire, we are to confine ourselves to nine of those divisions, as they now subsist.

Of these, three are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the south.

The northern circles	- - -	{ Upper Saxony Lower Saxony Westphalia
The circles in the middle	- - -	{ Upper Rhine Lower Rhine Franconia
The southern circles	- - -	{ Austria Bavaria Swabia

1. UPPER SAXONY CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
Pomerania, in the North	{ Prus. Pomerania, NE. }	{ Stettin, E. l. 14-50. N. lat. 53-30. }	} 4820 2991
	{ Swed. Pomer. NW. }	{ Stralsund }	
Brandenburg in the middle, sub. to its own elec. for the K. of Prussia	{ Altmark, west }	} { Stendel Berlin, Potsdam Frankf. Custrin. }	} 10,910
	{ Middlemark }		
	{ Newmark, east }		

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.	
Saxony Proper, in the south, sub. to its own elector	Duchy of Saxony, N. } Lusatia, marq. east } Misnia, marq. south }	Wirtemberg	7500	
		Bautzen, Gorlitz } Dresd. E. lon. 13-36. N. lat. 51. }		
Thuringia, langr. west		Meissen	3620	
		Erfurt		
The duchies of	Saxe Meinungen } Saxe Zeitz } Saxe Altenb. SE. } Saxe Weimar, W. } Saxe Gotha, W. } Saxe Eifn, SW. } Saxe Saalfeld }	Subject to their own dukes	Meinungen	240
			Zeltz	
			Altenburg	
			Weimar	
			Gotha	
The counties of	Schwartf. W. } Belchin. N. }	Subject to their respective counts	Saalfeldt	1500
			Mansfeldt.	
The duchies of	Hall, mid. sub. to Pruf. } Saxe Naumburg, subject to its own duke }		Hall	210
			Naumburg	
The counties of	Stolberg, north-west } Hohenstein, west }		Stolberg	96
			Northhausen	
Principality of	Anhalt, north		966	
Bishopric of	Saxe Hall, west			
Duchy of	Volgland, south, subject to the elector of Saxony } Mersburgh, middle, subject to the elector of Saxony }		Hall	696
			Plawen	
			336	
		Mersburg		

2. LOWER SAXONY CIRCLE.

Holstein D. north of the Elbe	Holstein Proper, N. } Ditmarsh, west } Stormaria, south } Hamburg, a sovereign state } Wagerland, east }	Partly sub. to Denmark, and partly to the Duke of Holstein	Gottorp	Kiel, sub. to Holstein	1850
				Gottorp	
				Meldorp } sub. to	
				Gluckstat } Demn.	
Lauenburg Duchy, north of the Elbe, sub. to Hanover				Hamburg, E. l. 10-35. N. l. 54. an Imperial city	450
				Lubec, an Imperial city	
Subject to the duke of Brunfwic Wolfenbottle	D. Brunfwic Proper, } D. Wolfenbottle } C. Rheinfstein, south } C. Blanckenburg }	middle		Brun. E. l. 10-30	86
				N. lat. 52-30.	
				Wolfenbottle	
				Rheinfstein.	
Subject to the elector of Hanover, K. of G. Britain.	D. Calenberg } D. Grubenhagen } Gottingen }			Blanckenburg	800
				Hanover	
				Grubenhagen	
				Gottingen	
Luneburg D. sub. to Hanover.	D. of Luneburg Proper } D. Zell }			Luneburg	200
				Zell, E. lon. 10. N. lat. 52-52.	
Bremen D. and Verden D., sub. to Hanover, north				Bremen, E. lon. 9. N. lat. 53-30. an Imperial city	600
				Verden	

GERMANY.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
Mecklenburg D.	D. Schwerin, north, subject to its duke	Schwerin, E. lon. 11-30. N. lat. 54.	4400
	D. Gultrow, north, subject to its duke	Gultrow.	
Hildersheim bishopric, in the middle, subject to its bishop	Hildersheim, an Imperial city		1302
Magdeburg duchy, south east, subject to the king of Prussia	Magdeburg		1535
Halberstadt duchy, subject to Prussia, south-east	Halberstadt		450

3. WESTPHALIA CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.	
North Division.	Embden C. or East Frief. sub. to the king of Prussia	Embden, an Imperial city	720	
	Oldenburg, C. } sub. to the K. of Den.	Oldenburgh		
	Hoye } subject to Hanover	Diepholt		
	Diepholt } subject to Hanover	Hoye		
Western Division.	Munster B. sub. to its bp.	Diepholt	624	
	Paderborn B. sub. to its bp.	Munster, E. lon. 7-10. N. lat. 52	220	
	Osnaburg, B. sub. to its bp.	Munster, E. lon. 7-10. N. lat. 52	3600	
	Lippe C. sub. to its count	Paderborn	800	
	Minden D. } sub. to Pru.	Osnaburg	870	
	Ravensberg C. } sub. to the elector of Cologne	Lippe, Pyrmont,	400	
	Westphalia D. sub. to the elector of Cologne	Minden	495	
	Tecklenb. C. } sub. to their respective counts	Ravensberg	525	
	Ritberg C. } sub. to their respective counts	Atensburg	1444	
	Schawenb. C. } sub. to their respective counts	Tecklenburg	840	
	Cleves D. sub. to the king of Prussia	Ritberg	120	
	Middle Division.	Berg D. } sub. to the elector Palatine	Schawenburg	630
Juliers D. } sub. to Prussia		Cleves, E. lon. 5-36. N. lat. 51-40		
Mark C. sub. to Prussia		Duffeldorf		
Liege, B. sub. to its own bp.		Juliers, Aix	1300	
Benth. C. sub. to Hanover		Ham	280	
Steinfort C. sub. to its count		Liege, E. lon. 5-56. N. lat. 50-40	1942	
		Hary		
	Bentheim	418		
	Steinfort	114		

4. UPPER RHINE CIRCLE.

Hesse Cassel, landg. N.	Cassel, E. lon. 9-20. N. lat. 51-20	3500
Hesse Marpurgh, landg. N.	Marpurgh	396
Hesse Darmstadt, landg.	Darmstadt	
Each of the above subdivisions are subject to their respective landgraves.		
Hesse Homberg	Homberg	180
Hesse Rhinefeldt	Rhinefeldt	
Wonfeldt	Wonfeldt	

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq.M.
Counties in the Wetteraw, south	Nassau Dillenburgh	Dillenburgh	1200
	Nassau Diets	Diets	
	Nassau Hadamar	Hadamar	
	Nassau Kerber-	Kerber	
	Nassau Siegen	Siegen	
	Nassau Idstein	Idstein	
	Nassau Weilburg	Weilburg	
	Nassau Wisbaden	Wisbaden	
	Nassau Bielfteid	Bielfteid	
	Nassau Otweiler	Otweiler	
	Nassau Ufingen	Ufingen	
	Each county subject to its own count of the house of Nassau.		
Territory of Frankfort, a sovereign state	Frankfort on the Main,		120
	E. lon. 8-30. N. lat. 50-10. an imperial city		
County of Erpach, sub. to its own count	Erpach east		230
Bishopric of Spire, a sovereign state	Spire on the Rhine, an imperial city		240
Duchy of Zweybrucken, or Deuxponts, subject to the duke of Deuxponts.	Deuxponts in the Palat.		700
County of Catzenellbogen, sub. to Hesse Cassel,	Catzenellbogen on the Lhon		
	Waldec, sub. to its own count	Waldec	360
	Solms, sub. to its own count	Solms	
	Hanau, sub. to Hesse Cassel	Hanau	430
	Isenburg, sub. to its own count	Isenburg	
Counties of	Sayn	Sayn	
	Wied	Wied	
	Wirgenstein	Wirgenstein	
	Hatzfield	Hatzfield	
	Westerburg	Westerburg	
Abbey of Fulda, subject to its abbot	Fulda	Fulda	600
Hirschfeld, subject to Hesse Cassel	Hirschfeld	Hirschfeld	

5. LOWER RHINE CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
Palatinate of the Rhine, on both sides that river, sub. to the elector Palatine		Heidelberg on the Neckar, E. lon. 8-40. N. lat. 49-20
		Philipsburgh, Manheim, and Frankendal on the Rhine.
Archbishoprics and electorates of	Cologn	Cologn, on the Rhine, E. lon. 6-40. N. lat. 50-50.
	Mentz	Bonn, on the Rhine
	Triers	Mentz, on the Rhine, Afschaffenb. on the Maine
		Triers on the Moselle
Bishopric of Worms, a sovereign state	Worms on the Rhine, an imperial city	
Duchy of Simmeren, sub. to its own duke.	Simmeren.	
Counties of	Rhinegravestein	Rhinegravestein
	Meurs, subject to Prussia	Meurs
	Veldentz, subject to the elector Palatine	Veldentz
	Spanheim	Creutznach
	Leyningen	Leyningen

6. FRANCONIA CIRCLE.

Divisions.		Chief Towns. Sq. M.	
Bishoprics of	Wurtzburg, W.	Sub. to	Wurtzburg 1645
	Bamberg, N.	their ref.	Bamberg 1700
	Aichstat, S.	bishops	Aichstat 573
Marquises of	Cullenback, } north-east	Sub. to their respective margraves.	Cullenback 900
	Anspach, S.		Anspach 1000
	Subdivisions.		Chief Towns.
Principality of Henneberg, N.		Henneberg	
Duchy of Coburg, N. subject to its duke		Coburg	400
Duchy of Hilburghausen, subject to its duke		Hilburghausen	
Burgrate of Nuremberg, SE. an independent state		Nuremberg, an imperial city	640
Territory of the great master of the Teutonic order, Mergentheim, SW.		Mergentheim	56
Counties of	Reineck, W.	Reineck	
	Bareith, E. sub. to its own mar.	Bareith	188
	Papenheim, S. f. to its own C.	Papenheim	
	Wertheim, W.	Wertheim	
	Cassel, middle	Cassel	120
	Schwartzburg, subject to its own count	Schwartzburg middle	96
	Holach, SW.	Holach	220

7. AUSTRIA CIRCLE.

The whole circle belongs to the emperor, as head of the house of Austria.

Divisions.		Chief Towns.	
Archduchy of Austria proper	Vienna, E. lon. 16-20. N. lat. 48-20.	Lints, Ens, west	7106
	Stiria and Cilley, C.	Gratz, Cilley, SE.	5000
Duchies of	Carinthia	Clagenfurt, Lavem. SE.	3000
	Carniola	Laubach, Zerknitz, Trieste, St. Veits, SE.	4575
County of Tyrol	Goritia	Goritz, SE.	
	Inspruck	SW. on the confines of Italy and Switzerland	3900
Bishoprics of	Brixen	Brixen	1300
	Trent	Trent	210

8. BAVARIA CIRCLE.

Subdivisions.		Chief Towns.	
Duchy of Bavaria proper on the Danube	Subject to the elector Palatine as successor to the late elector of Bavaria.	Munich, E. lon. 11-32. N. lat. 48-5.	
		Landschut, Ingoldstat, north-west: Donawert [Ratif. N. an imperial city.]	8500
		Amberg [Sultzbach], north of the Danube.	
Fresslingen, subject to its bishop		Fresslingen	240
Bishopric of Passau, sub. to its own bishop		Passau, E. of the Danube	240

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
Duchy of Neuberg, subject to the elector Palatine	Neuberg, W. of the Danube	450
Archbishopric of Saltzburgh, sub. to its own archbishop		
	Saltzburgh, SE. Hallen.	2540

9. SWABIA CIRCLE.

Duchy of Wurtemberg, subject to the duke of Wurtemberg	Stutgard, E. lon. 9. N. lat. 48-40. Tubingen, Hailbron	On or near the Neckar	3364
Marquises of Baden	sub. to their own respective marg.	Baden-Durlach	258
Bishopric of Augsburg, subject to its own bishop	Augsburg, an imperial city, Hochstet, Blenheim, on or near the Danube		765
Territory of Ulm, a sovereign state	Ulm, on the Danube, an imperial city		280
Bishopric of Constance, sub. to its own bishop, under the house of Austria	Constance, on the lake of Constance		60
Principalities of	Mindelheim	Subject to their respective princes	Mindelh. S. of Augs. 216
	Furstenberg		Furstenberg, S. 788
	Hohenzollern		Hohenzollern, S. 150
Counties of	Ceting		Ceting, east 580
	Konigsack		Konigsack, south-east 379
	Hohenuichburg		Gemund, north 120
Baronies of	Waldburg		Waldburg, south-east
	Limpurg		Limpurg, north
	Kempton		Kempton on the Iller.
Abbies of	Buchaw		Buchaw, S. of the Danube.
	Lindaw		Lindaw, on the lake of Constance, imperial cities,
	Imperial cities, or sovereign states		Nordlingen, N. of the Danube. Memmingen, east. Rotweil, on the Neckar, and many more.
Subject to the house of Austria	Black forest, NW.		Rhinefeldt and Lauffenb. 480
	Rhinefeldt, C.		Burgaw, east 650
	Marquise of Burgaw		Friburg and Brisac 380
	Territory of Brisgaw on the Rhine		

NAME.] Great part of modern Germany lay in ancient Gaul, as we have already mentioned; and the word Germany is of itself but modern. Many fanciful derivations have been given of the word; the most probable is, that it is compounded of *Ger* or *Gar*, and *Man*; which, in the ancient Celtic, signifies a warlike man. The Germans went by various other names, such as *Allemanni*, *Teutones*; which last is said to have been their most ancient designation; and the Germans themselves call their country *Teutschland*.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL.] The climate of Germany, as in all large tracts of country, differs greatly, not only on account of the situation, north, east, south, and west; but according to the improvement of the soil, which has a vast effect on the climate. The most mild and

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settled weather is found in the middle of the country, at an equal distance from the sea and the Alps. In the north it is sharp; towards the south it is more temperate.

The soil of Germany is not improved to the full by culture; and therefore in many places it is bare and sterile, though in others it is surprisngly fruitful. Agriculture, however, is daily improving; which must necessarily change the most barren parts of Germany greatly to their advantage. The seasons vary as much as the soil. In the south and western parts, they are more regular than those that lie near the sea, or that abound with lakes and rivers. The north wind and the eastern blasts are unfavourable to vegetation. Upon the whole, there is no great difference between the seasons of Germany and those of Great Britain.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains of Germany are the Alps, which divide it from Italy, and those which separate Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia from Bohemia. But many other large tracts of mountains are found in different parts of the empire.

FORESTS.] The great passion which the Germans have for hunting the wild boar is the reason why perhaps there are more woods and chases yet standing in Germany, than in many other countries. The Hercynian forest, which in Cæsar's time was nine days' journey in length, and six in breadth, is now cut down in many places, or parcelled out into woods, which go by particular names. Most of the woods are pine, fir, oak, and beech. There is a vast number of forests of less note in every part of this country; almost every count, baron, or gentleman, having a chase or park adorned with pleasure-houses, and well stocked with game, viz. deer, of which there are seven or eight sorts, as roebucks, stags, &c. of all sizes and colours, and many of a vast growth; plenty of hares, conies, foxes, and boars. They abound so much also with wild fowl, that in many places the peasants have them, as well as venison, for their ordinary food.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] No country can boast a greater variety of noble large rivers than Germany. At their head stands the Danube or Donaw, so called from the swiftness of the current, and which some pretend to be naturally the finest river in the world. From Vienna to Belgrade in Hungary, it is so broad, that in the wars between the Turks and Christians, ships of war have been engaged on it; and its conveniency for carriage to all the countries through which it passes is inconceivable. The Danube, however, contains a vast number of cataracts and whirlpools; its stream is rapid, and its course, without reckoning turnings and windings, is computed to be 1620 miles. The other principal rivers are the Rhine, Elbe, Oder, Weser, and Moselle.

The chief lakes of Germany, not to mention many inferior ones, are those of Constance and Bregentz. Besides these, are the Chiemsee, or the lake of Bavaria; and the Zirnitzer-see, in the duchy of Carniola, whose waters often run off and return again in an extraordinary manner.

Besides these lakes and rivers, in some of which are found pearls, Germany contains large noxious bodies of standing water, which are next to pestilential, and afflict the neighbouring natives with many deplorable disorders.

MINERAL WATERS AND BATHS.] Germany is said to contain more of these than all Europe besides. The Spa waters, and those of Seltzer and Pymont, are well known. Those of Aix-la-Chapelle are still more noted. They are divided into the Emperor's Bath, and the Little

Bath; and the springs of both are so hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they use them. Each of these, and many other waters, have their partisans in the medical faculty; and if we believe them, cure diseases internal and cutaneous, either by drinking or bathing. The baths and medicinal waters of Embs, Wisbaden, Schwalbach, and Wildungen, are likewise reported to perform wonders in almost all diseases. The mineral springs at the last mentioned place are said to intoxicate as soon as wine, and therefore they are inclosed. Carlsbad and Baden baths have been described and recommended by many great physicians, and used with great success by many royal personages. It is, however, not improbable that great part of the salutary virtues ascribed to these waters is owing to the exercises and amusements of the patients, and numbers of the company which crowd to them from all parts of the world; many of whom do not repair thither for health, but for amusement and conversation.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Germany abounds in both. Many places in the circle of Austria, and other parts of Germany, contain mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, sulphur, nitre, and vitriol. Salt-petre, salt-mines, and salt-pits are found in Austria, Bavaria, Silesia, and the Lower Saxony; as are carbuncles, amethysts, jasper, sapphire, agate, alabaster, several sorts of pearls, turquois stones, and the finest of rubies, which adorn the cabinets of the greatest princes and virtuosi. In Bavaria, Tirol, and Liege, are quarries of curious marble, slate, chalk, ochre, red lead, alum, and bitumen; besides other fossils. In several places are dug up stones, which to a strong fancy represent different animals, and sometimes trees, or the human form. Many of the German circles furnish coal-pits; and the *terra sig.* of Mentz, with white, yellow, and red veins, is thought to be an antidote against poison.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] These differ in Germany very little, if at all, from the countries already described; but naturalists are of opinion, that, had the Germans, even before the middle of this century, been acquainted with agriculture, their country would have been the most fruitful of any in Europe. Even in its present, what we may call rude state, provisions are more cheap and plentiful in Germany than in any other country perhaps in the world; witness the prodigious armies which the most uncultivated part of it maintained during the late war, while many of the richest and most fertile provinces remained untouched.

The Rhenish and Moselle wines differ from those of other countries in a peculiar lightness, and detersive qualities, more sovereign in some diseases than any medicine.

The German wild boar differs in colour from our common hogs, and is four times as large. Their flesh, and the hams made of it, are preferred by many even to those of Westmoreland, for flavour and grain. The *glutton* of Germany is said to be the most voracious of all animals. Its prey is almost every thing that has life, which it can manage, especially birds, hares, rabbits, goats, and fawns; whom they surprise artfully, and devour greedily. On these the glutton feeds so ravenously, that it falls into a kind of a torpid state, and not being able to move, he is killed by the huntsmen; but though both boars and wolves will kill him in that condition, they will not eat him. His colour is a beautiful brown, with a faint tinge of red.

Germany yields abundance of excellent heavy horses; but their horses, oxen, and sheep are not comparable to those of England, probably owing to their want of skill in feeding and rearing them. Some parts of Ger-

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many are remarkable for fine larks, and great variety of singing birds, which are sent to all parts of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } As the empire of Ger-
 CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } many is a collection of
 separate states, each having a different government and police, it hath
 been difficult to speak with precision as to the number of its inhabi-
 tants; but the following estimate has been formed of them:

Moravia	1,100,000
Austrian Silesia	200,000
High and Low Lusatia	380,000
Circle of Austria	4,150,000
Bavaria	1,148,438
Archbishopric of Salzburg	250,000
Wurtemberg	565,890
Baden	200,000
Augsburg	40,000
Bamberg and Wurtzburg	400,000
Nuremberg	70,000
Juliers and Berg	260,000
Munster	130,000
Osnaburg	116,664
The Prussian Estates in the Circle of Westphalia	550,000
Nassau, Dillenberg, Siegen, Dietz, and Hadaman	74,699
Oldenburg	79,071
Mentz	314,000
Palatinate of Rhine	289,614
Hesse Cassel and Darmstadt	700,000
Fulda	7,000
Frankfort on the Main	42,600
High Saxony, and Circle of Franconia	1,326,041
Swedish Pomerania	100,549
Prussian Pomerania	462,970
Brandenburg	1,007,232
Gotha	77,898
Schwartzburg, Magdeburg, and Mansfeldt	271,461
Halberstadt and Hohenstein	130,761
Hanover	750,000
Brunswic	166,540
Holstein	300,000
Mecklenburg	220,000
Mulhausen	13,000
Hamburg	100,000
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	17,166,868

This calculation extends only to the principal parts of Germany; and when the inferior parts are added, the number in all, including the kingdom of Bohemia, is now computed at twenty-six millions; and when the landholders become better acquainted with agriculture and cultivation, population must naturally increase among them.

The Germans in their persons are tall, fair, and strong built. The ladies have generally fine complexions; and some of them, especially in Saxony, have all the delicacy of features and shape that are so bewitching in some other countries.

Both men and women affect rich dresses, which in fashion are the same as in France and England: but the better sort of men are excessively fond of gold and silver lace, especially if they are in the army. The ladies at the principal courts differ not much in their dress from the French and English, only they are not so excessively fond of paint as the former. At some courts they appear in rich furs; and all of them are loaded with jewels if they can obtain them. The female part of the burghers' families, in many of the German towns, dress in a very different manner; and some of them inconceivably fantastic, as may be seen in many prints published in books of travels; but in this respect they are gradually reforming, and many of them make quite a different appearance in their dress from what they did thirty or forty years ago. As to the peasantry and labourers, they dress, as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments, conveniency, and circumstances. The stoves made use of in Germany are the same with those already mentioned in the northern nations, and are sometimes made portable, so that the ladies carry them to church. In Westphalia, and many other parts of Germany, they sleep between two feather beds, with sheets stitched to them, which by use becomes a very comfortable practice. The most unhappy part of the Germans are the tenants of little needy princes, who squeeze them to keep up their own grandeur; but in general, the circumstances of the common people are more comfortable than those of their neighbours.

The Germans are naturally a frank, honest, hospitable people, free from artifice and disguise. The higher orders are ridiculously proud of titles, ancestry, and show. The Germans in general are thought to want animation, as their persons promise more vigour and activity than they commonly exert, even in the field of battle. But when commanded by able generals, especially the Italians, such as Montecuculi and prince Eugene, they have done great things both against the Turks and the French. The imperial arms have seldom made any remarkable figure against either of those two nations, or against the Swedes or Spaniards, when commanded by German generals. This possibly might be owing to the arbitrary obstinacy of the court of Vienna; for in the two last wars the Austrians exhibited prodigies of military valour and genius.

Industry, application, and perseverance, are the great characteristics of the German nation, especially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible, were they not visible, especially in watch and clock making, jewellery, turnery, sculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture, some of which we shall have occasion to mention. The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjustly, owing to the vast plenty of their country in wine and provisions of every kind. But those practices seem now to be wearing out. At the greatest tables, though the guests drink pretty freely at dinner, yet the repast is commonly finished by coffee, after three or four public toasts have been given. But no people have more feasting at marriages, funerals, and on birth-days.

The German nobility are generally men of so much honour, that a sharper, in other countries, especially in England, meets with more credit if he pretends to be a German, rather than any other nation. All the sons of noblemen inherit their fathers' titles, which greatly perplexes the heralds and genealogists of that country. The German husbands are not quite so complaisant as those of some other countries to their ladies,

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who are not entitled to any pre-eminence at the table; nor indeed do they seem to affect it, being far from either ambition or loquacity, though they are said to be somewhat too fond of gaming. From what has been premised, it may easily be conceived, that many of the German nobility, having no other hereditary estate than a high-sounding title, easily enter into their armies, and those of other sovereigns. Their fondness for title is attended with many other inconveniences. Their princes think that the cultivation of their lands, though it might treble their revenue, is below their attention; and that, as they are a species of beings superior to labourers of every kind, they would degrade themselves by being concerned in the improvement of their grounds.

The domestic diversions of the Germans are the same as in England; billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In summer, people of fashion repair to places of public resort, and drink the waters. As to their field diversions, besides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear-baiting, and the like. The inhabitants of Vienna live luxuriously, a great part of their time being spent in feasting and carousing; and in winter, when the several branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with snow, the ladies take their recreation in sledges of different shapes, such as griffins, tigers, swans, scallop-shells, &c. Here the lady sits, dressed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the sledge is drawn by one horse, stag, or other creature, set off with plumes of feathers, ribands, and bells. As this diversion is taken chiefly in the night-time, servants ride before the sledges with torches; and a gentleman, standing on the sledge behind, guides the horse.

[RELIGION.] This is a copious article, but I shall confine myself to what is most necessary to be known. Before the reformation introduced by Luther, the German bishops were possessed (as indeed many of them are at this day) of prodigious power and revenues, and were the tyrants of the emperors as well as the people. Their ignorance was only equalled by their superstition. The Bohemians were the first who had an idea of reformation, and made so glorious a stand for many years against the errors of Rome, that they were indulged in the liberty of taking the sacrament in both kinds, and other freedoms not tolerated in the Romish church. This was in a great measure owing to the celebrated Englishman, John Wickliffe, who went much farther in reforming the real errors of popery than Luther himself, though he lived about a century and a half before him. Wickliffe was seconded by John Hus and Jerome of Prague, who, notwithstanding the emperor's safe-conduct, were infamously burnt at the council of Constance.

The reformation introduced afterwards by Luther*, of which we have spoken in the Introduction, though it struck at the chief abuses in the church of Rome, was thought in some points (particularly that of consubstantiation, by which the real body of Christ, as well as the elements of bread and wine, is supposed to be taken in the sacrament) to be imperfect. Calvinism †, therefore, or the religion of Geneva (as

* Born in Saxony, in the year 1483, began to dispute the doctrines of the Romish church, 1517, and died, 1546, in the 63d year of his age.

† John Calvin was born in the province of Picardy, in the north of France, anno 1506. Being obliged to fly from that kingdom, he settled at Geneva, in 1539, where he established a new form of church discipline, which was soon after embraced by several nations and states, who are now denominated presbyterians, and from their doctrinal articles, Calvinists. He died at Geneva, in the year 1564; and his writings make nine volumes in folio.

now practised in the church of Scotland) was introduced into Germany, and is the religion professed in the territories of the king of Prussia, the Landgrave of Hesse, and some other princes, who maintain a parity of orders in the church. Some even assert, that the numbers of protestants and papists in the empire are now almost equal. Germany, particularly Moravia and the Palatinate, as also Bohemia, is over-run with sectaries of all kinds; and Jews abound in the empire. At present, the modes of worship and forms of church government are by the protestant German princes considered in a civil rather than a religious light. The protestant clergy are learned and exemplary in their deportment, but the popish, ignorant and libertine.

ARCHBISHOP AND BISHOP SEES.] These are differently represented by authors: some of whom represent Vienna as being a suffragan to the archiepiscopal see of Saltzburg; and others as being an archbishopric, but depending immediately upon the pope. The other: are the archbishop of Mentz, who has under him twelve suffragans; but one of them, the bishop of Bamberg, is said to be exempted from his jurisdiction:—Triers has three suffragans;—Cologne has four;—Magdeburg has five;—Saltzburg has nine, besides Vienna;—and Bremen three.

At different periods since the Reformation; it has been found expedient, to satisfy the claims of temporal princes, to secularise the following bishop-sees, Bremen, Verden, Magdeburg, Halberstadt, Minden, Lubec, and Osnaburg, which last goes alternately to the houses of Bavaria and Hanover, and is at present held by his Britannic majesty's second son. Such of those sees as were archbishoprics are now considered as duchies, and the bishoprics as principalities.

LANGUAGE.] The Teutonic part of the German tongue is an original language, and has no relation to the Celtic. It is called High Dutch, and is the mother tongue of all Germany; but varies so much in its dialect, that the people of one province scarcely understand those of another. Latin and French are the most useful languages in Germany, when a traveller is ignorant of High Dutch.

The German Pater-noster is as follows: *Unser Vater, der du bist im himmel, geheiligt werde dein name. Zukomme dein reich. Dein wille geschehe, wie im himmel also auch auf erden. Unser taglich brodt gib uns heute. Und vergib uns unsere schulden, als wir vergeben unsern schuldigen. Und suchre uns nicht in versuchung. Sondern erlase uns von dem boesen. Den dein ist das reich, und die krafft, und die herrlichkeit, in ewigkeit: Amen.*

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, } No country has produced a greater
AND UNIVERSITIES. } variety of authors than Germany, and there is no where a more general taste for reading, especially in the protestant countries. Printing is encouraged to a fault; almost every man of letters is an author; they multiply books without number; thousands of theses and disputations are annually published; for no man can be a graduate in their universities, who has not published one disputation at least. In this country there are 36 universities, of which 17 are protestant, 17 Roman catholic, and two mixed; besides a vast number of colleges, gymnasia, pedagogics, and Latin schools. There are also many academies and societies for promoting the study of natural philosophy, the belles-lettres, antiquities, painting, sculpture, architecture, &c. as the imperial Leopoldine academy of the *natura curiosi*: the academy of sciences at Vienna, at Berlin, at Gottingen, at Erfurth, at Leipsic, at Duisburg, at Giesen, and at Hamburg. At Dresden and Nuremberg are academies for painting: at Berlin a royal military academy; and at Augsburg is the imperial Franciscan academy of fine arts;

to which we may add the Latin society at Iena. Of the public libraries the most celebrated are those of Vienna, Berlin, Halle, Wolfenbuttle, Hanover, Göttingen, Weimar, and Leipzig.

Many of the Germans have greatly distinguished themselves in various branches of learning and science. They have written largely upon the Roman and canon laws. Stahl, Van Swieten, Stork, Hoffman, and Haller, have contributed greatly to the improvement of physic; Ruvinus and Dillenius, of botany; Heister, of anatomy and surgery; and Newman, Zimmerman, Pott, and Margraff, of chemistry. In astronomy, Kepler deservedly obtained a great reputation; and Puffendorf is one of the first writers on the law of nature and nations, and has also merit as an historian. But at the end of the last century, and the beginning of the present, Germany, by her divines, and by her religious sects, was so much involved in disputes about systematic theology, that few comparatively paid any attention to other parts of learning, or to polite literature. The language also, and the style of writing in German books, which at the time of the Reformation was pure and original, became ridiculous, by a continual intermixture of Latin and French words; which, though they were not understood by the people in general, were thought to give an air of superiority to the writers, and therefore much affected. For an opinion prevailed among the learned in Germany, and many have not yet divested themselves of it, that compiling huge volumes, and larding them with numberless quotations from all sorts of authors, and from all languages, was the true test of great erudition. Their productions, therefore, became heavy and pedantical, and were in consequence disregarded by other nations.

It was about the year 1730, that the prospects of literature in Germany began to brighten. Leibnitz and Wolfius opened the way to a better philosophy than had hitherto prevailed. Gottsched, an author and professor at Leipzig, who was greatly honoured by Frederic II, king of Prussia, introduced a better taste of writing, by publishing a German grammar, and by instituting a literary society for polishing and restoring to its purity the German language, and by promoting the study of the *belles-lettres*. We may consider this as the epocha from which the Germans began to write with elegance in their own language upon learned subjects, and to free themselves in a considerable degree from that verbosity and pedantry by which they had been characterised. About this time several young men in the university of Leipzig, and other parts of Lower Germany, united in publishing some periodical works, calculated for the general entertainment of persons of literary taste. Some of these gentlemen afterwards became eminent authors; and their works are held in Germany in high estimation.

The style of preaching among the German divines also now underwent a considerable change. They began to translate the best English and French sermons, particularly those of Tillotson, Sherlock, Saurin, Bourdaloue, and others. They improved by these models: and Mosheim, Spalding, Zollikofer, and others, have published sermons which would do credit to any country: although they still retain too much of that prolixity for which German divines and commentators have been so much censured. Nor can it be denied, that great numbers of the German preachers, even in large and opulent towns, are still too much distinguished by vulgar language, absurd opinions, and an inattention to the dictates of reason and good sense.

Some of the English periodical writings, such as the *Spectator*, *Tatler*, and *Guardian*, being translated into the German language, excited

great emulation among the writers of that country, and a number of periodical papers appeared, of various merit. One of the first and best was published at Hamburg, under the title of "The Patriot;" in which Dr. Thomas, the late bishop of Salisbury, was concerned; he being at that time chaplain to the British factory at Hamburg, and a considerable master of the German language. The late professor Gillert, who is one of the most elegant of the German authors, and one of the most esteemed, has greatly contributed to the improvement of their taste. His way of writing is particularly adapted to touch the heart, and to inspire sentiments of morality and piety. His fables and narrations written in German verse, his letters, and his moral romances, are so much read in Germany, that even many of the ladies have them almost by heart. His comedies are also very popular; though they are rather too sentimental, and better adapted for the closet than for the stage.

Haller, the famous physician, Hagedorn, Uz, Cronegh, Lessing, Gleim, Gerstenberger, Kleist, Klopstock, Ramler, Zacarie, Wieland, and others, have excelled in poetry. Schlegel, Cronegh, Lessing, Wieland, and Wiese, have acquired fame by their dramatic writings. Rabener has, by his satirical works, immortalised his name among the Germans; though some of his pieces are of too local a nature, and too much confined to German customs, manners, and characters, to be read with any high degree of pleasure by persons of other nations. Gesner, whose Idylls and Death of Abel have been translated into the English language, and favourably received, is better known to an English reader.

In chemistry and in medicine, the merit of the Germans is very conspicuous; and Reimarus, Zimmermann, Abt, Kästner, Segner, Lambert, Mayer, Kruger, and Sulger, have acquired fame by their philosophical writings. Busching is an excellent geographical writer; and Masco, Bunau, Putter, Gatterer, and Gebaur, have excelled in historical works. But it cannot be denied that the Germans, in their romances, are a century behind us. Most of their publications of this kind are imitations of ours, or else very dry and uninteresting; which perhaps is owing to education, to false delicacy, or to a certain taste of knight-errantry, which is still predominant among some of their novel-writers.

In works relating to antiquity, and the arts known among the ancients, the names of Winckelman, Klog, and Lessing, are familiar with those who are skilled in this branch of literature. In ecclesiastical, philosophical, and literary history, the names of Albertus Fabricius, Mosheim, Semler, and Brucker, are well known among us. Raphelius, Michaelis, and Walch, are famous in sacred literature. Cellarius, Burman, Taubman, Reiske, Ernesti, Reimarus, Havercamp, and Heyne, have published some of the best editions of Greek and Latin classics.

It is an unfavourable circumstance for German literature, that the French language should be so fashionable in the German courts instead of the German, and that so many of their princes should give it so decided a preference. Frederic II. king of Prussia, had ordered the Philosophical Transactions of his royal society at Berlin, from the beginning of its institution, to be published in the French tongue; by which, some of the Germans think, his majesty cast a very undeserved reproach upon his native language.

With respect to the fine arts, the Germans have acquitted themselves very well. Germany has produced some good painters, architects, sculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the first inventors of engraving, etching, and mezzotint. Printing, if first in-

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vented in Holland, was soon after greatly improved in Germany. The Germans are generally allowed to be the first inventors of great-guns, as also of gunpowder, in Europe, about the year 1320. Germany has likewise produced some excellent musicians; Handel, Bach, Haffé, and Haydn, of whom Handel stands at the head, having arrived at the sublime of music.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, } This is a copious
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE; with occasional estimates } head in all coun-
of REVENUES AND POPULATION. } tries, but more par-
ticularly so in Germany, on account of the numerous independent
states it contains.

Though Berlin is accounted the capital of all his Prussian majesty's dominions, and exhibits perhaps the most illustrious example of sudden improvement that this age can boast of; yet, during the seven years' war, it was found a place of no strength, and fell twice, almost without resistance, into the hands of the Austrians, who, had it not been for the politeness of their generals, and their love of the fine arts, which always preserves mankind from barbarity and inhumanity, would have levelled it to the ground.

Berlin lies on the river Spree, and, besides a royal palace, has many other superb palaces; it contains fourteen Lutheran, and eleven Calvinist churches, besides a popish one. Its streets and squares are spacious, and built in a very regular manner. But the houses, though neat without, are ill finished, and ill furnished within, and very indifferently provided with inhabitants. The king's palace here, and that of prince Henry, are very magnificent buildings. The opera-house is also a beautiful structure: and the arsenal, which is handsomely built in the form of a square, contains arms for 200,000 men. There are sundry manufactures in Berlin, and several schools, libraries, and charitable foundations. The number of its inhabitants, according to Busching, in 1755, was 126,661, including the garrison. In the same year, and according to the same author, there were no fewer than 443 silk looms, 149 of half silks, 2858 for woollen stuffs, 453 for cotton, 248 for linen, 454 for lace-work, 39 frames for silk stockings, and 310 for worsted ones. They have here manufactures of tapestry, gold and silver lace, and mirrors.

The electorate of Saxony is by nature the richest country in Germany, if not in Europe; it contains 210 walled towns, 61 market-towns, and about 3000 villages, according to the latest accounts of the Germans themselves (to which, however, we are not to give an implicit belief); and the revenue, estimating each rix-dollar at four shillings and six-pence, amounts to 1,350,000*l*. This sum is so moderate, when compared to the richness of the soil (which, if we are to believe Dr. Busching, produces even diamonds, and almost all the precious stones to be found in the East Indies and elsewhere, and the variety of splendid manufactures), that I am apt to believe the Saxon princes to have been the most moderate and patriotic of any in Germany.

We can say little more of Dresden, the elector of Saxony's capital, than has been already said of all fine cities, that its fortifications, palaces, public buildings, churches, charitable foundations, and, above all, its suburbs, are magnificent beyond all expression; that it is beautifully situated on both sides the Elbe; and that it is the school of Germany for statuary, painting, enamelling, and carving; not to mention its mirrors, and founderies for bells and cannon, and its foreign commerce carried on by means of the Elbe. The inhabitants of Dresden, by the latest accounts, amount to 110,000.

The city of Leipzig in Upper Saxony, 46 miles distant from Dresden, is situated in a pleasant and fertile plain on the Pleisse, and the inhabitants are said to amount to about 40,000. There are also large and well-built suburbs with handsome gardens. Between these suburbs and the town is a fine walk of lime-trees, which was laid out in the year 1702, and encompasses the city. Mulberry-trees are also planted in the town-ditches: but the fortifications seem rather calculated for the use of the inhabitants to walk on, than for defence. The streets are clean, commodious, and agreeable, and are lighted in the night with seven hundred lamps. They reckon 436 merchant houses, and 192 manufactories of different articles, as brocades, paper, cards, &c. Leipzig has long been distinguished for the liberty of conscience allowed here to persons of different sentiments in religion. Here is an university, which is still very considerable, with six churches for the Lutherans (theirs being the established religion), one for the Calvinists, and a chapel in the castle for those of the Romish church. The university-library consists of about 26,000 volumes, 6000 of which are folios. Here is also a library for the magistrates, which consists of about 36,000 volumes and near 2000 manuscripts, and contains cabinets of urns, antiques, and medals, with many curiosities of art and nature. The exchange is an elegant building.

The city of Hanover, the capital of that electorate, stands on the river Leine, and is a neat, thriving, and agreeable city. It contains about twelve hundred houses, among which there is an electoral palace. It carries on some manufactures; and in its neighbourhood are the palace and elegant gardens of Herenhausen. The dominions of the electorate of Hanover contain about seven hundred and fifty thousand people, who live in fifty-eight cities, and sixty market towns, besides villages. The city and suburbs of Bremen, belonging, by purchase, to the said elector, contain about fifty thousand inhabitants, who have a considerable trade by the Weser. The other towns belonging to this electorate have trade and manufactures; but in general, it must be remarked, that the electorate has suffered greatly by the accession of the Hanover family to the crown of Great-Britain. It may be proper to mention, on account of its relation to our royal family, the secularized bishopric of Osnaburg, lying between the rivers Weser and Ems. The chief city, Osnaburg, has been long famous all over Europe for the manufacture known by the name of the duchy, and for the manufacture of the best Westphalia hams. The whole revenue of the bishopric amounts to about 30,000*l*.

Breslau, the capital of Silesia, which formerly belonged to the kingdom of Bohemia, lies on the river Oder, and is a fine city, where all sects of Christians and Jews are tolerated; but the magistracy is Lutheran. Since Silesia fell under the Prussian dominion, its trade is greatly improved, being very inconsiderable before. The manufactures of Silesia, which principally centre at Breslau, are numerous. The revenue of the whole is, by some, said to bring his Prussian majesty in near a million sterling; but this sum seems to be exaggerated; if, as other authors of note write, it never brought in to the house of Austria above 500,000*l*. yearly.

Frankfort on the Main, so called to distinguish it from another of the same name on the Oder, is situated in a healthful, fertile, and delightful country, on the river just mentioned, by which it is divided into two parts, distinguished by the names of Frankfort and Sachsenhausen. The former of these, being the largest, is divided into twelve wards,

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and the latter into two; and both are computed to contain about three thousand houses. The fortifications, which are both regular and solid, form a decagon, or figure consisting of ten bastions, faced with hewn stone; the ditches are deep, and filled with fresh water; and all the out-works are placed before the gates. Frankfort is the usual place of the election and coronation of the kings of the Romans, and is also a free and imperial city. It is of a circular form, without any suburbs; but the streets are generally narrow, and the houses are mostly built of timber and plaster, and covered with slate; though there are some handsome private structures, of a kind of red marble, that deserve the name of palaces; as the buildings called the Compestel and Fronhof, the Trierthof, the Cullenhof, the German-house, an august edifice, situated near the bridge over the Maine; the Hesse Darmstadtthof, the paice of the prince de la Tour, and the houses of the counts of Solms, Schauenburg, and Schouborn. There are likewise three principal squares.

Vienna is the capital of the circle of Austria, and, being the residence of the emperor, is supposed to be the capital of Germany. It is a noble and a strong city, and the princes of the house of Austria have omitted nothing that could contribute to its grandeur and riches. Vienna contains an excellent university, a bank, which is in the management of her own magistrates, and a court of commerce, immediately subject to the aulic council. Its religious buildings, with the walks and gardens, occupy a sixth part of the town; but the suburbs are larger than the city, of which are imperial; its squares, academies, and libraries; and, among others, the fine one of prince Eugene, with his and the imperial cabinets of curiosities. Among its rich convents, is one of the Scotch nation, built in honour of their countryman St. Colman, the patron of Austria; and one of the six gates of this city is called the Scots gate, in remembrance of some notable exploit performed there by the troops of that nation. The inhabitants of Vienna, including the suburbs, are computed at about three hundred thousand; and the encouragement given them by their sovereigns has rendered this city the rendez-vous of foreigners.

The streets, except those in the suburbs, are narrow and dirty. The houses of this city are generally of stone, five or six stories high, and flat-roofed. They have three or four cellars under one another, with open space in the middle of each arched roof, for the communication of air; and from the lowermost of all, there is a tube to the top, to let in air from the street. The winds often blow so strong that it is troublesome to walk the streets. A remarkable prerogative of the sovereign here, is, that the second floor of every house belongs to him, and is assigned to whomsoever he thinks proper: and hence there is no room in Germany where lodging is so dear as at Vienna. An odd custom prevails here of putting iron bars to all the windows, up to the tops of the houses; which makes them all look like so many prisons. The houses and furniture of the citizens are greatly disproportioned to the magnificence of the palaces, squares, and other public buildings; but the excessive imposts laid by the house of Austria upon every commodity in its dominions, must always keep the manufacturing part of the subjects poor.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } In describing the mineral and
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } other springs, I anticipated great
of this article, which is of itself very copious. Every court of
many produces a cabinet of curiosities, artificial and natural, an-

cient and modern. The tun at Heidelberg holds 800 hogshheads, and is generally full of the best Rhenish wine, from which strangers are seldom suffered to retire sober: Vienna itself is a curiosity; for here you see the greatest variety of inhabitants that is to be met with any where, as Greeks, Transylvanians, Slavonians, Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats, Germans, Poles, Spaniards, French, and Italians, in their proper habits. The imperial library at Vienna is a great literary rarity, on account of its ancient manuscripts. It contains upwards of 80,000 volumes, among which are many valuable manuscripts in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkish, Armenian, Coptic, and Chinese; but the antiquity of some of them is questionable, particularly a New Testament in Greek, said to have been written 1500 years ago, in gold letters, upon purple. Here are likewise many thousand Greek, Roman, and Gothic coins and medals; with a vast collection of other curiosities in art and nature. The vast Gothic palaces, cathedrals, castles, and above all, town-houses in Germany, are very curious, and impress the beholder with their rude magnificence; many castles have the same appearance, probably, as they had 400 years ago; and their fortifications generally consist of a brick wall, trenches filled with water, and bastions or half-moons.

Next to the lakes and waters, the caves and rocks are the chief natural curiosities of Germany. There is said to be a cave, near Blackenburg, in Hartz-forest, of which no person has yet found the end, though many have advanced into it for twenty miles. But the most remarkable curiosity of that kind is near Hamelen, about thirty miles from Hanover, where, at the mouth of a cave, stands a monument which commemorates the loss of 130 children, who were there swallowed up in 1284. This fact, however, though it is very strongly attested, has been disputed by some critics. Frequent mention is made of two rocks near Blackenburg, exactly representing two monks in their proper habits; and of many stones which seem to be petrifications of fishes, frogs, trees, and leaves.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Germany has vast advantages in point of commerce, from its situation in the heart of Europe, and being intersected, as it were, with great rivers. Its native materials for commerce (besides the mines and minerals I have already mentioned) are hemp, hops, flax, anise, camin, tobacco, saffron, madder, truffles, variety of excellent roots and pot-herbs, and fine fruits, equal to those of France and Italy. Germany exports to other countries, corn, tobacco, horses, lean cattle, butter, cheese, honey, wax, wines, linen and woollen yarn, ribands, silk and cotton stuffs, toys, turnery wares in wood, metals, and ivory, goat-skins, wool, timber both for ship-building and houses, cannon and bullets, bombs and bomb-shells, iron plates and stoves, tinned plates, steel work, copper, brass-wire, porcelain the finest upon earth, earthen-ware, glasses, mirrors, hogs' bristles, mutt, beer, tartar, smalts, zaffer, Prussian blue, printers' ink, and many other things. Some think that the balance of trade between England and Germany is to the disadvantage of the former; but others are of a different opinion, as they cannot import coarse woollen manufactures, and several other commodities, so cheap from any other country.

The revocation of the edict of Nantes by Lewis XIV. which obliged the French protestants to settle in different parts of Europe, was of infinite service to the German manufactures. They now make velvet, silks, stuffs of all kinds, fine and coarse; linen and thread, and every thing necessary for wear, to great perfection. The procelain of Meissen

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in the electorate of Saxony, and its paintings, have been long in great repute.

TRADING COMPANIES.] The Asiatic company of Embden, established by Frederic II. king of Prussia, was, exclusive of the Hanseatic league, the only commercial company in Germany; but no ships have been sent out since the year 1760. The heavy taxes imposed on the company have been the cause of its total annihilation. In the great cities of Germany, very large and extensive partnerships in trade subsist.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Almost every prince in Germany (and there are about 300 of them) is arbitrary with regard to the government of his own estates; but the whole of them form a great confederacy, governed by political laws, at the head of which is the emperor, and whose power in the collective body, or the diet, is not directorial, but executive; but even that gives him vast influence. The supreme power in Germany is the diet, which is composed of the emperor, or, in his absence, of his commissary, and of the three colleges of the empire. The first of these is the electoral college; the second is the college of princes; and the third, the college of imperial towns.

The empire was hereditary under the race of Charlemagne, but after that, became elective; and in the beginning, all the princes, nobility, and deputies of cities, enjoyed the privilege of voting. In the reign of Henry V. the chief officers of the empire altered the mode of election in their own favour. In the year 1239, the number of electors was reduced to seven. One elector was added in 1649, and another in 1692.

The dignity of the empire, though elective, has for some centuries belonged to the house of Austria, as being the most powerful of the German princes; but, by French management, upon the death of Charles VI. grandfather, by the mother's side, to the emperor Joseph II. the elector of Bavaria was chosen to that dignity, and died, as it is supposed, heart-broken, after a short uncomfortable reign. The power of the emperor is regulated by the capitulation he signs at his election; and the person, who in his life-time is chosen king of the Romans, succeeds, without a new election, to the empire. He can confer titles and enfranchisements upon cities and towns; but, as emperor, he can levy no taxes, nor make war or peace, without the consent of the diet. When that consent is obtained, every prince must contribute his *quota* of men and money, as valued in the matriculation roll, though perhaps, as an elector or prince, he may espouse a different side from that of the diet. This forms the intricacy of the German constitution; for George II. of England, as elector of Hanover, was obliged to furnish his *quota* against the house of Austria; and also against the king of Prussia, while he was fighting for them both. The emperor claims a pre-eminence for his ambassadors in all Christian courts.

The nine electors of the empire have each a particular office in the imperial court, and they have the sole election of the emperor. They are in order,

First, The archbishop of Mentz, who is high-chancellor of the empire when in Germany.

Second, The archbishop of Triers, who is high-chancellor of the empire in France.

Third, The archbishop of Cologne, who is the same in Italy.

The king, or rather elector of Bohemia, who is cup-bearer.

The elector of Bavaria, who is grand sewer, or officer who serves out the feast.

The elector of Saxony, who is great marshal of the empire.

The elector of Brandenburg (now king of Prussia), who is great chamberlain.

The elector Palatine, who is great steward; and,

The elector of Hanover (king of Great Britain), who claims the post of arch-treasurer.

It is necessary for the emperor, before he calls a diet, to have the advice of those members; and, during the vacancy of the imperial throne, the electors of Saxony and Bavaria have jurisdiction, the former over the northern, and the latter over the southern circles.

The ecclesiastical princes are as absolute as the temporal ones in their several dominions. The chief of these, besides the three ecclesiastical electors already mentioned, are the archbishop of Saltzburgh, the bishops of Liege, Munster, Spire, Worms, Wurtzburg, Strasburg, Osnaburg, Bamberg, and Paderborn. Besides these, there are many other ecclesiastical princes. Germany abounds with many abbots and abbesses, whose jurisdictions are likewise absolute, and some of them very considerable; and all of them are chosen by their several chapters. The chief of the secular princes are the landgrave of Hesse, the dukes of Brunswic, Wolfenbuttle, Wurtemberg, Mecklenburg, Saxe-Gotha, the marquisses of Baden and Culmbach, with the princes of Nassau, Anhalt, Furstenburg, and many others, who have all high titles, and are sovereigns in their own dominions. The free cities are likewise sovereign states: those which are imperial, or compose part of the diet, bear the imperial eagle in their arms; those which are Hanse-towns, of which we have spoken in the Introduction, have still great privileges and immunities, but they subsist no longer as a political body.

The imperial chamber, and that of Vienna, which is better known by the name of the aulic council, are the two supreme courts for determining the great causes of the empire, arising between its respective members. The imperial council consists of fifty judges or assessors. The president and four of them are appointed by the emperor, and each of the electors chooses one, and the other princes and states the rest. This court is at present held at Wetzlar, but formerly resided at Spire: and causes may be brought before it by appeal. The aulic council was originally no better than a revenue court of the dominions of the house of Austria. As that family's power increased, the jurisdiction of the aulic council was extended upon the powers of the imperial chamber, and even of the diet. It consists of a president, a vice-chancellor, a vice-president, and a certain number of aulic counsellors, of whom six are protestants, besides other officers; but the emperor, in fact, is master of the court. These courts follow the ancient laws of the empire for their guides, the golden bull, the pacification of Passau, and the civil law.

Besides these courts of justice, each of the nine circles I have already mentioned, has a director to take care of the peace and order of the circle. These directors are commonly as follow: for Westphalia, the bishop of Munster, or duke of Neuburg. For Lower Saxony, the elector of Hanover or Brandenburg. For Upper Saxony, the elector of Saxony. For the Lower Rhine, the archbishop of Mentz. For the Upper Rhine, the elector Palatine, or bishop of Worms. For Franconia, the bishop of Bamberg, or marquis of Culmbach. For Swabia, the duke of Wurtemberg, or bishop of Constance. For Bavaria, the elector of Bavaria, or archbishop of Saltzburgh; and for Austria, the archduke of Austria, his imperial majesty.

Upon any great emergency, after the votes of the diet are collect-

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and sentence pronounced, the emperor, by his prerogative, commits the execution of it to a particular prince or princess, whose troops live at free quarter upon the estates of the delinquent party, and he is obliged to make good all expenses.

Upon the whole, the constitution of the Germanic body is of itself a study of no small difficulty. However plausibly invented the several checks upon the imperial power may be, it is certain that the house of Austria has more than once endangered the liberties of the empire, and that they have been saved by France. The house of Austria indeed met with a powerful opposition from the house of Brandenburg, in consequence of the activity and abilities of the king of Prussia. It may here be proper to inform the reader of the meaning of a term which frequently appears in the German history, I mean that of the *Pragmatic Sanction*. This is no other than a provision made by the emperor Charles VI. for preserving the indivisibility of the Austrian dominions in the person of the next descendent of the last possessor, whether male or female. This provision has been often disputed by other branches of the house of Austria, who have been occasionally supported by France from political views, though the pragmatic sanction is strongly guaranteed by almost all the powers of Europe. The late emperor, elector of Bavaria, and the late king of Poland, attempted to overthrow it, as being descended from the daughters of the emperor Joseph, elder brother to Charles VI. It has likewise been repeatedly opposed by the court of Spain.

Few of the territories of the German princes are so large as to be assigned to viceroys, to be oppressed and fleeced at pleasure; nor are they entirely without redress when they suffer any grievance; they may appeal to the general diet or great council of the empire for relief. The subjects of the petty princes in Germany are generally the most unhappy; for these princes, affecting the grandeur and splendor of the more powerful, in the number and appearance of their officers and domestics, in their palaces, gardens, pictures, curiosities, guards, bands of music, tables, dress, and furniture, are obliged to support all this vain pomp and parade at the expense of their vassals and dependents. With respect to the burghers and peasants of Germany, the former in many places enjoy great privileges: the latter also, in some parts, as in Franconia, Swabia, and on the Rhine, are generally a free people, or perform only certain services to their superiors, and pay the taxes: whereas, in the marquisate of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Lusatia, Moravia, Bohemia, Austria, &c. they may justly be denominated slaves, though in different degrees.

[REVENUES.] The only revenue falling under this head is that of the emperor, who, as such, has an annual income of about 5000 or 6000 sterling, arising from some inconsiderable fiefs in the Black Forest. The Austrian revenues are immense, and are thought to amount to 7,000,000 sterling in Germany and Italy; a sum that goes far in those countries. Frederic-William I. of Prussia, whose revenues were not near so extensive as those of his son, Frederic II. the uncle of the late king of Prussia, though he maintained a large army, was so good an economist, that he left 7,000,000 sterling in his coffers; and Silesia alone yields above half a million sterling annually. To behold the magnificence of many of the German courts, a stranger is apt to conceive very high ideas of the incomes of their princes; which is owing to the high price of money in that country, and, consequently, the low price of provisions and manufactures.

[MILITARY STRENGTH.] During the two last wars, very little regard

was paid, in carrying them on, to the ancient German constitutions; the whole management being engrossed by the head of the house of Austria. The elector of Mentz keeps what is called a matriculation book, or register, which, among other matters, contains the assessment of men and money, which every prince and state, who are members of the empire, is to advance when the army of the empire takes the field. The contributions in money are called Roman months, on account of the monthly assessments, paid to the emperors when they visited Rome. Those assessments, however, are subject to great mutability. It is sufficient here to say, that, upon a moderate computation, the secular princes of the empire can bring to the field 379,000 men, and the ecclesiastical 74,500, in all 453,500; of those, the emperor, as head of the house of Austria, is supposed to furnish 90,000.

The elector of Mentz may maintain	6,000
The elector of Triers	6,000
The elector of Cologne	6,000
The bishop of Munster	8,000
The bishop of Liege	8,000
The archbishop of Saltzburg	8,000
The bishop of Wurtzburg	2,000
The bishop of Bamberg	5,000
The bishop of Paderborn	3,000
The bishop of Osnaburg	2,500
The abbot of Fulda	6,000
The other bishoprics of the empire	6,000
The abbeys and provostships of the empire	8,000
Total of the ecclesiastical princes	74,500
The emperor, for Hungary	30,000
for Bohemia, Silesia, and Moravia.	30,000
for Austria, and other dominions	30,000
The king of Prussia	40,000
The elector of Saxony	25,000
The elector Palatine	15,000
The duke of Wurtemberg	15,000
The landgrave of Hesse-Cassel	15,000
The prince of Baden	10,000
The elector of Hanover	30,000
The duke of Holstein	12,000
The duke of Mecklenburg	15,000
The prince of Anhalt	6,000
The prince of Lawenburg	6,000
The elector of Bavaria	30,000
The dukes of Saxony	10,000
The prince of Nassau	10,000
The other princes and imperial towns	50,000
The secular princes	379,000
The ecclesiastical princes	74,500
	453,500

By this computation, which is far from being exaggerated, it appears that the emperor and empire form the most powerful government in Europe; and if the whole force was united, and properly directed, Ge-

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many would have nothing to fear from any of its ambitious neighbours. But the different interests pursued by the several princes of Germany render the power of the emperor of little consequence, except with regard to his own forces, which are indeed very formidable. The imperial army was computed, in 1775, to amount to two hundred thousand; and, in the present war, the emperor has brought about the same number into the field.

IMPERIAL, ROYAL, AND OTHER } The emperor of Germany pre-
TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS. } tends to be successor to the emperors of Rome, and has long, on that account, been admitted to a tacit precedence on all public occasions among the powers of Europe. Austria is but an archdukedom; nor has he, as the head of that house, a vote in the election of emperor, which is limited to Bohemia. Innumerable are the titles of principalities, dukedoms, baronies, and the like, with which he is vested as archduke. The arms of the empire are a black eagle with two heads, hovering with expanded wings, in a field of gold; and over the heads of the eagle is seen the imperial crown. On the breast of the eagle is an escutcheon quarterly of eight, for Hungary, Naples, Jerusalem, Arragon, Anjou, Gelders, Brabant, and Burgundy. It would be as useless as difficult to enumerate all the different quarterings and armorial bearings of the archducal family. Every elector, and indeed every independent prince of any importance in Germany, claims a right of instituting orders; but the emperors pretend that they are not admissible unless confirmed by them. The emperors of Germany, as well as the kings of Spain, confer the order of the Golden Fleece, as descended from the house of Burgundy. The empress dowager Eleonora, in 1662 and 1666, created two orders of ladies, or female knights; and the late empress-queen instituted the order of St. Teresa.

The order of the *Golden Fleece* was instituted at Bruges, in Flanders, on the 10th of January, 1429, by Philip duke of Burgundy, on the day of his marriage with his third wife. It is supposed that he chose the badge, it being the chief of the staple manufactures of his country. It at first consisted of thirty knights, including the sovereign, who were of the first families in the Low Countries, and it still continues to be classed with the most illustrious orders of knighthood in Europe. At present there are two branches of it; of the one, the emperor is sovereign, and the king of Spain of the other; all must prove their noble descent from the twelfth century. The motto of the order is "*Pretium non vile laborum.*" The *Teutonic order* owed its origin to some religious Germans in Jerusalem during the crusades, who assumed the title of "Teutonic knights, or brethren of the hospital of our Lady of the Germans at Jerusalem." Conrade, duke of Swabia, invited them into Prussia, about the year 1230; soon after, they conquered Prussia for themselves, and became one of the most powerful orders in Europe. By their internal quarrels, they afterwards lost their power and possessions; and Albert, marquis of Brandenburg, grand-master of the order, on his abjuring popery, abdicated the grand-mastership, subdued Prussia, and expelled all the papists who would not follow his example. The order is now divided into two branches: the protestant branch, which has a house at Utrecht, has been noticed in our account of orders in the Netherlands:— that for papists has a house at Mergentheim, in Germany, and the members must take the oath of celibacy. The ensign worn by this branch is worn round the neck, pendent to a gold chain.

The time of the institution of the "*Order of the Red Eagle*" is uncertain. The margrave of Bareith is sovereign of it, and it is generally be-

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stowed on military officers. In the year 1690, John-George, elector of Saxony, and Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, on terminating their disputes, established the "*Order of Sincerity*," as a confirmation and security hereafter of their amity; The knights of this order wear a bracelet of gold; on one side are the names of the two princes, with this device: *Amitié sincere*; on the other side are two armed hands, joined together, and placed on two swords, with two palm-branches crossed; with this motto, *Unis pour jamais*.

John-George, duke of Saxe Weissenfels, instituted the "*Order of the Noble Passion*," in the year 1704, of which the duke is the sovereign. Each knight of the order is to contribute to the maintenance of the named or decayed soldiers in the service of the sovereign: In the year 1709, Louisa-Elizabeth, widow of Philip, duke of Saxe-Mersburgh, revived the "*Order of the Death's Head*," first instituted in 1652, by her father, the duke of Wurtemberg. A princess of that house alone can be sovereign of it, and none but women of virtue and merit (birth and fortune not regarded) be received into it. They are to avoid gaming, theatrical amusements, and luxuries of all kinds. The badge of the order is a death's head enamelled white, surmounted with a cross pattée, black; above the cross pattée, another cross composed of five jewels, by which it hangs to a black riband edged with white, and on the riband these words, *Memento mori*, worn at the breast.

The great order of Wurtemberg is that "*of the Chase*," instituted in the year 1702, by the then duke, and improved in the year 1719. On the left side of the coat is a silver star embroidered, of the same figure as the badge, in the middle of a green circle, with the motto *Amicitia Virtutisque Fœdus*. The festival of this order is on St. Hubert's day, he being the patron of sportsmen.

In the year 1709, the elector Palatine revived the "*Order of St. Hubert*," first instituted by a duke of Juliers and Cleves, in memory of a victory gained by him on St. Hubert's day, in 1447. All the knights have either military employments or pensions. The archbishop of Saltzburgh, in 1701, instituted the "*Order of St. Rupert*," in honour of the founder and patron of the see he held, and as the apostle of his country. As the archbishop is the richest and most powerful prince of Bavaria, next to the elector, his order is in good esteem. In the year 1729, Albert, elector of Bavaria, instituted the "*Order of St. George, the Defender of the Immaculate Conception*," the knights of which are obliged to prove their nobility by father and mother for five generations.

The "*Order of the Golden Lion*," instituted by the present landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, is equally a military and civil order, but mostly conferred on general officers. The present landgrave has also instituted the military "*Order of Merit*," the badge of which is a gold cross, of eight points, enamelled white, and in the centre this motto: "*Pro Virtute et Fidelitate*," it is worn at the coat button-hole, pendent to a blue riband edged with silver.

HISTORY.] The manners of the ancient Germans are well described by the elegant and manly pencil of Tacitus, the Roman historian. They were a brave and independent race of men, and peculiarly distinguished by their love of liberty and arms. They opposed the force of the Roman empire, not in its origin or in its decline, but after it had arrived at maturity, and still continued in its full vigour. The country was divided into a number of principalities, independent of each other, though occasionally connected by a military union for defending themselves against such enemies as threatened the liberties of them all.

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At length, the Roman power, supported by art and policy, prevailed over a great part of Germany, and it was reduced to the condition of a province. When the Roman empire was shattered by the northern barbarians, Germany was over-run by the Franks, about the year 480, and a considerable part of it long remained in subjection to earls and marquisses of that nation. In this situation Germany continued, notwithstanding the efforts of particular chieftains or princes to reduce the rest into subjection, until the beginning of the ninth century; then it was that Charlemagne, one of those eccentric and superior geniuses who sometimes start up in a barbarous age, first extended his military power, and afterwards his civil authority, over the whole of this empire. The posterity of Charlemagne inherited the empire of Germany until the death of Lewis III. in the year 911, at which time the different princes, assuming their original independence, rejected the Carolingian line, and placed Conrade, duke of Franconia, on the throne. Since this time, Germany has ever been considered as an elective monarchy. Princes of different families, according to the prevalence of their interest and arms, have mounted the throne. Of these, the most considerable, until the Austrian line acquired the imperial power, were the houses of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia. The reigns of these emperors contain nothing more remarkable than the contests between them and the popes. From these, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, arose the factions of the Guelphs and Gibbelines, of which the former was attached to the pope, and the latter to the emperor; and both, by their violence and inveteracy, tended to disquiet the empire for several ages. The emperors too were often at war with the Turks, and sometimes the German princes, as happens in all elective kingdoms, with one another about the succession. But what more deserves the attention of a judicious observer than all those noisy but uninteresting disputes, is the progress of government in Germany, which was in some measure opposite to that of the other kingdoms of Europe. When the empire raised by Charlemagne fell asunder, all the different independent princes assumed the right of election; and those now distinguished by the name of electors, had no peculiar or legal influence in appointing a successor to the imperial throne; they were only the officers of the king's household, his secretary, his steward, chaplain, marshal, or master of his horse, &c. By degrees, as they lived near the king's person, and, like all other princes, had independent territories belonging to them, they increased their influence and authority; and in the reign of Otho III. of the house of Saxony, in the year 984, acquired the sole right of electing the emperor*. Thus, while, in other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial or independent barons, was diminished by the power of the king, as in France, and by the influence of the people, as in Great Britain; in Germany, on the other hand, the power of the electors was raised upon the ruins of the emperor's supremacy, and of the people's jurisdiction. Otho I. having, in the year 962, united Italy to the empire of Germany, procured a decree from the clergy, that he and his successors should have the power of nominating the pope, and of granting investitures to bishops. Henry V. a weak and wicked prince, in the year 1122, surrendered up the right of investiture and other powers, to the disgrace of the imperial dignity;

* Wiquefort says, that nothing was settled as to the number of electors, or the electoral dignity, till Charles IV. who was chosen emperor in 1347, and made that famous constitution for the election of emperors, called the *Golden Bull*, from the emperor's golden seal (*bullæ*) affixed to it.

but pope Benedict XII. refusing absolution to Louis V. of Bavaria, in 1338, it was declared, in the diet of the empire, that the majority of suffrages of the electoral college should confer the empire without the consent of the pope, and that he had no superiority over the emperor, nor any right to reject or to approve of elections. In 1438, Albert II. archduke of Austria, was elected emperor, and the imperial dignity continued in the male line of that family for three hundred years. One of his successors, Maximilian, married the heiress of Charles, duke of Burgundy, whereby Burgundy, and the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the house of Austria. Charles V. grandson of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain in right of his mother, was elected emperor in the year 1519. Under him, Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards, and in his reign happened the reformation of religion in several parts of Germany, which, however, was not confirmed by public authority till the year 1648, by the treaty of Westphalia, and in the reign of Ferdinand III. The reign of Charles V. was continually disturbed by his wars with the German princes and the French king, Francis I. Though successful in the beginning of his reign, his good fortune toward the conclusion of it began to forsake him; which, with other reasons, occasioned his abdication of the crown.

His brother, Ferdinand I. who, in 1558, succeeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. He had the address to procure his son Maximilian to be declared king of the Romans, in his own life-time, and died in 1564. By his last will he ordered, that if either his own male issue, or that of his brother Charles, should fail, his Austrian estates should revert to his second daughter Anne, wife to the elector of Bavaria, and her issue.

This destination is noticed as it gave rise to the late opposition made by the house of Bavaria to the pragmatic sanction in favour of the late empress queen of Hungary, on the death of her father Charles VI. The reign of Maximilian II. was disturbed with internal commotions, and an invasion from the Turks; but he died in peace, in 1576. He was succeeded by his son Rodolph, who was involved in wars with the Hungarians, and in differences with his brother Matthias, to whom he ceded Hungary and Austria in his life-time. To him succeeded in the empire Matthias, under whom the reformers, who went under the names of Lutherans and Calvinists, were so much divided among themselves, as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The ambition of Matthias at last reconciled them; but the Bohemians revolted, and threw the imperial commissaries out of a window, at Prague. This gave rise to a ruinous war, which lasted thirty years. Matthias thought to have exterminated both parties; but they formed a confederacy, called the *Evangelic League*, which was counterbalanced by a *Catholic League*.

Matthias dying in 1618, was succeeded by his cousin, Ferdinand II. but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederic, the elector palatine, the most powerful protestant prince in Germany, and son-in-law to his Britannic majesty, James I. That prince was incautious enough to accept of the crown; but he lost it, being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria and the imperial generals, at the battle of Prague: and he was also deprived of his own electorate, the best part of which was given to the duke of Bavaria. The protestant princes of Germany, however, had among them at this time many able commanders, who were at the head of armies, and continued the war with great firmness

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and intrepidity; among them were the margrave of Baden Dourlach; Christian duke of Brunswic, and count Mansfield; the last was one of the best generals of the age. Christian IV. king of Denmark, declared for them; and Richelieu, the French minister, did not wish to see the house of Austria aggrandised. The emperor, on the other hand, had excellent generals; and Christian having put himself at the head of the evangelic league, was defeated by Tilly, an imperialist of great reputation in war. Ferdinand so grossly abused the advantages obtained over the protestants, that they formed a fresh confederacy at Leipsic, of which the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was at the head. His amazing victories and progress, till he was killed at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632, have already been related. But the protestant cause did not die with him. He had brought up a set of heroes, such as the duke of Saxe Wiemar, Torstenson, Banier, and others, who shook the Austrian power, till, under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace was concluded among all the powers at war, at Munster, in the year 1648; which forms the basis of the present political system of Europe.

Ferdinand II. died in 1627, and was succeeded by his son, Ferdinand III. who died in 1657, and was succeeded by the emperor Leopold, a severe, unamiable, and not very fortunate prince. He had two great powers to contend with; France on the one side, and the Turks on the other; and was a loser in his war with both. France took from him Alsace, and many other frontier places of the empire; and the Turks would have taken Vienna, had not the siege been raised by John Sobieski, king of Poland. Prince Eugene, of Savoy, was a young adventurer in arms, about the year 1697; and being one of the imperial generals, gave the Turks the first checks they received in Hungary; and by the peace of Carlowitz, in 1699, Transylvania was ceded to the emperor. The empire, however, could not have withstood the power of France, had not the prince of Orange, afterwards king William III. of England, laid the foundation of the grand confederacy against the French power, the consequences of which have been already described. The Hungarians, secretly encouraged by the French, and exasperated by the unfeeling tyranny of Leopold, were still in arms, under the protection of the porte, when that prince died, in 1705.

He was succeeded by his son, Joseph, who put the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire; but being very ill served by prince Lewis of Baden, the general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithstanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough, though he obtained very splendid victories, had not all the success he expected or deserved. Joseph himself was suspected of a design to subvert the Germanic liberties; and it was evident, by his conduct, that he expected England should take the principal part in the war, which was chiefly carried on for his benefit. The English were disgusted at his slowness and selfishness; but he died in 1711, before he had reduced the Hungarians; and leaving no male issue, was succeeded in the empire by his brother, Charles VI. whom the allies were endeavouring to place on the throne of Spain, in opposition to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson to Lewis XIV.

When the peace of Utrecht took place, in 1713, Charles at first made a show as if he would continue the war; but found himself unable, now that he was forsaken by the English. He therefore was obliged to conclude a peace with France, at Baden, in 1714, that he might oppose the progress of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a total de-

feat from prince Eugene, at the battle of Peterwaradin. They received another, of equal importance, from the same general, in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the imperialists; and the following year the peace of Passarowitz, between them and the Turks, was concluded. Charles was continually employed in making arrangements for increasing and preserving his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Happily for him, the crown of Britain devolved to the house of Hanover; an event which gave him a very decisive weight in Europe, by the connections between George I. and II. in the empire. Charles was sensible of this, and carried matters with so high a hand, that, about the years 1724 and 1725, a breach ensued between him and George I. and so unsteady was the system of affairs all over Europe at that time, that the capital powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones, contrary to their interest. Without entering into particulars, it is sufficient to observe, that the safety of Hanover, and its aggrandisement, was the main object of the British court; as that of the emperor was the establishment of the pragmatic sanction, in favour of his daughter, the late empress-queen, he having no male issue. Mutual concessions upon those great points restored a good understanding between George II. and the emperor Charles; and the elector of Saxony being prevailed upon by the prospect of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquished the claims he had upon the Austrian succession.

The emperor, after this, had very ill success in a war he entered into with the Turks, which he had undertaken chiefly to indemnify himself for the great sacrifices he had made in Italy to the princes of the house of Bourbon. Prince Eugene was then dead, and he had no general to supply his place. The system of France, under cardinal Fleury, happened at that time to be pacific, and she obtained for him, from the Turks, a better peace than he had reason to expect. Charles, to pacify the German and other European powers, had, before his death, given his eldest daughter, the late empress-queen, in marriage to the duke of Lorraine, a prince who could bring no accession of power to the Austrian family. Charles died in 1740.

He was no sooner in the grave, than all he had so long laboured for must have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmness of George II. The pragmatic sanction was attacked on all sides. The young king of Prussia, with a powerful army, entered and conquered Silesia, which he said had been wrongfully dismembered from his family. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria set up claims directly incompatible with the pragmatic sanction, and in this they were joined by France; though all those powers had solemnly guaranteed it. The imperial throne, after a considerable vacancy, was filled up by the elector of Bavaria, who took the title of Charles VII. in January 1742. The French poured their armies into Bohemia, where they took Prague: and the queen of Hungary, to take off the weight of Prussia, was forced to cede to that prince the most valuable part of the duchy of Silesia, by a formal treaty.

Her youth, her beauty, and sufferings, and the noble fortitude with which she bore them, touched the hearts of the Hungarians, under whose protection she threw herself and her infant son; and though they had been always remarkable for their disaffection to the house of Austria, they declared unanimously in her favour. Her generals drove the French out of Bohemia; and George II. at the head of an English and Hanoverian army, gained the battle of Dettingen, in 1743. Charles VII. was at this time distressed on the imperial throne, and driven out

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of his electoral dominions, as had been his ancestor, in queen Anne's reign, for siding with France, and would have given the queen of Hungary almost her own terms; but she haughtily and impolitically rejected all accommodation, though advised to it by his Britannic majesty, her best, and indeed only friend. This obstinacy gave a colour for the king of Prussia to invade Bohemia, under pretence of supporting the imperial dignity; but though he took Prague, and subdued the greatest part of the kingdom, he was not supported by the French; upon which he abandoned all his conquests, and retired to Silesia. This event confirmed the obstinacy of the queen of Hungary, who came to an accommodation with the emperor, that she might recover Silesia. Soon after, his imperial majesty, in the beginning of the year 1745, died; and the duke of Lorraine, then grand-duke of Tuscany, consort to her Hungarian majesty, after surmounting some difficulties, was chosen emperor, by the title of Francis I.

The bad success of the allies against the French and Bavarians in the Low Countries, and the loss of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded the operations of the empress-queen against his Prussian majesty. The latter beat the emperor's brother, prince Charles of Lorraine, who had before driven the Prussians out of Bohemia; and the conduct of the empress-queen was such, that his Britannic majesty thought proper to guarantee to him the possession of Silesia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, his Prussian majesty pretended that he had discovered a secret convention which had been entered into between the empress-queen, the empress of Russia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, to strip him of his dominions, and to divide them among themselves. Upon this he suddenly attacked the king of Poland, drove him out of Saxony, defeated his troops, and took possession of Dresden, which he held till a treaty was made under the mediation of his Britannic majesty, by which the king of Prussia acknowledged the duke of Lorraine, now become great-duke of Tuscany, for emperor. The war continued in the Low Countries, not only to the disadvantage, but to the discredit of the Austrians and Dutch, till it was finished by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in April, 1748. By that treaty, Silesia was once more guaranteed to the king of Prussia. It was not long before that monarch's jealousies were renewed and verified; and the empress of Russia's views falling in with those of the empress-queen and the king of Poland, who were unnaturally supported by France in their new schemes, a fresh war was kindled in the empire, in the year 1756. The king of Prussia declared against the admission of the Russians into Germany, and his Britannic majesty against that of the French. Upon those two principles, all former differences between these monarchs were forgotten, and the British parliament agreed to pay an annual subsidy of 670,000*l.* to his Prussian majesty during the continuance of the war, the flames of which were now rekindled with more fury than ever.

His Prussian majesty once more broke into Saxony, defeated the imperial general Brown, at the battle of Lowositz, forced the Saxons to lay down their arms, though almost impregnably fortified at Pirna; and the elector of Saxony again fled to his regal dominions in Poland. After this, his Prussian majesty was put to the ban of the empire; and the French poured, by one quarter, their armies, as the Russians did by another, into Germany. The conduct of his Prussian majesty on this occasion is the most amazing that is to be met with in history. He broke once more into Bohemia with inconceivable rapidity, and defeated an

army of 100,000 Austrians, under general Brown, who was killed, as the brave marshal Schwerin was on the side of the Prussians. He then besieged Prague; and plied it with a most tremendous artillery; but, just as he was beginning to imagine that his troops were invincible, they were defeated at Colin, by the Austrian general Daun, obliged to raise the siege, and to fall back upon Eifenach. The operations of the war now multiplied every day. The imperialists, under count Daun, were formed into excellent troops; but they were beaten at the battle of Lissa, and the Prussians took Breslau, and obtained many other great advantages. The Russians, after entering Germany, gave a new turn to the aspect of the war; and the cautious yet ~~unconquering~~ genius of count Daun laid his Prussian majesty under infinite difficulties, notwithstanding all his amazing victories. At first he defeated the Russians at Zorndorf; but an attack made upon his army, in the night-time, by count Daun at Hockkirchen, had also proved fatal to his affairs, though he retrieved them with admirable presence of mind. He was obliged, however, to sacrifice Saxony, for the safety of Silesia; and it has been observed, that six periods of history afford such room for reflection as this campaign did; six sieges were raised almost at the same time; that of Colberg, by the Russians; that of Leipsic, by the duke of Deux Ponts, who commanded the army of the empire; that of Dresden, by count Daun; and those of Neifs, Cosel, and Torgau, also by the Austrians.

Many important events which passed at the same time in Germany, between the French, who were driven out of Hanover, and the English, or their allies, must be omitted on account of the brevity necessary to be observed in this compendium. The operations on both sides are of little importance to history, because nothing was done that was decisive, though the war was extremely burthensome and bloody to Great Britain. Great was the ingratitude of the empress-queen to his Britannic majesty and his allies, who were now daily threatened with the ban of the empire. The Russians had taken possession of the kingdom of Prussia, and laid siege to Colberg, the only port of his Prussian majesty in the Baltic. Till then, he had entertained too mean an opinion of the Russians; but he soon found them by far the most formidable enemies he had, advancing under count Soltikoff, in a body of 100,000 men, to Silesia. In this distress he acted with a courage and resolution that bordered upon despair; but was, at last, totally defeated by the Russians, with the loss of 20,000 of his best men, in a battle near Frankfort. He became now the tennis-ball of fortune. Succeeding defeats seemed to announce his ruin, and all avenues towards peace were shut up. He had lost, since the first of October, 1756, the great marshal Keith, and forty brave generals, besides those who were wounded and made prisoners. At Landschut, the imperial general Laudohn defeated his army under Fouquet, on which he had great dependence, and thereby opened to the Austrians a ready gate into Silesia. None but his Prussian majesty would have thought of continuing the war under such repeated losses; but every defeat he received seemed to give him fresh spirits. It is not perhaps very easy to account for the inactivity of his enemies after his defeat near Frankfort, but by the jealousy which the imperial generals entertained of their Russian allies. They had taken Berlin, and laid the inhabitants under pecuniary contributions; but towards the end of the campaign, he defeated the imperialists in the battle of Torgau, in which count Daun was wounded. This was the best fought action the king

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of Prussia had ever been engaged in; but it cost him 10,000 of his best troops, and was attended with no great consequences in his favour. New re-inforcements which arrived every day from Russia, the taking of Colberg by the Russians, and of Schweidnitz by the Austrians, seemed almost to have completed his ruin, when his most formidable enemy, the empress of Russia, died, January 5, 1762. George II. had died on the 25th of October, 1760.

The deaths of those illustrious personages were followed by great consequences. The British ministry of George III. were solicitous to put an end to the war, and the new emperor of Russia recalled his armies. His Prussian majesty was, notwithstanding, so very much reduced by his losses, that the empress-queen, probably, would have completed his destruction, had it not been for the wise backwardness of the other German princes, not to annihilate the house of Brandenburg. At first the empress-queen rejected all terms proposed to her, and ordered 30,000 men to be added to her armies. The visible unwillingness of her generals to execute her orders, and the successes obtained by his Prussian majesty, at last prevailed upon her to agree to an armistice, which was soon followed by the treaty of Hubertsburg, February 15, 1763, which again secured to his Prussian majesty the possession of Silesia.

Upon the death of the emperor, her husband, in 1765, her son Joseph, who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded him in the empire. Soon after his accession, he discovered great activity and ambition. He joined in the dismemberment of Poland, with Russia and Prussia. He paid a visit incognito, and with moderate attendants, to Rome, and the principal courts of Italy; and had a personal interview with his Prussian majesty, though this did not prevent hostilities from being commenced between Austria and Prussia, on account of the succession to the electorate of Bavaria. The Austrian claims on this occasion were very unjust; but, in the support of them, while the contest continued, the emperor displayed great military skill. Though vast armies were brought into the field on both sides, no action happened of much importance, and an accommodation at length took place. The emperor afterwards demanded of the Dutch the free navigation of the Scheldt, but in this he likewise failed. He endeavoured, however, to promote the happiness of his subjects, granted a most liberal religious toleration, and suppressed most of the religious orders of both sexes, as being utterly useless, and even pernicious to society; and in 1783, by an edict, abolished the remains of servitude and villanage, and fixed also the fees of the lawyers at a moderate amount, granting them a pension in lieu. He also abolished the use of torture in his hereditary dominions, and removed many of the grievances under which the peasants and common people laboured. He was a prince of a philosophical turn of mind, and mixed with his subjects with an ease and affability that are very uncommon in persons of his rank. He loved the conversation of ingenious men, and appeared solicitous to cultivate that extensive knowledge, which ennobles those who possess the elevated station to which he had been raised.

Peter-Leopold, grand duke of Tuscany, succeeded his brother Joseph II. and engaged the public praise by repeated instances of moderation and solid principles. His former management of his Italian sovereignty, which was prudent and beneficent, showed that he aspired to truer re-

putation, than can be acquired by the mere splendours of royalty. One of the bishops of Hungary having refused his licence to a catholic subject to marry a protestant woman, the emperor dismissed him from his see; but pardoned him afterwards upon concession, and desired the bishop to exhort his brethren to comply with the imperial ordinances, else no favour should be shown.

The French revolution now attracted the attention of the powers of Europe. A conference was held at Pillnitz between the emperor, the king of Prussia, and the elector of Saxony, at which the plan of attacking France was proposed and discussed. Leopold for some time was very irresolute, but at last seemed to be resolved on war, when he died of a pleuritic fever, on the first of March, 1792, after an illness of four days.

His son Francis was raised to the imperial throne in the middle of July following. He embraced the politics of his predecessor, and embarked with zeal in the political crusade against France. The disastrous consequences of this war to the house of Austria, and the disgraceful treaty by which it was terminated, as more properly belonging to the affairs of France, are related in our account of that nation, under which they will appear more clear and connected.

Joseph-Benedict-Augustus, emperor of Germany, was born in 1741, crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded his father as emperor in 1765, married the same year the princess Josephina-Maria, of Bavaria, who died in 1767. He had by his first wife (the princess of Parma) a daughter, Theresa Elizabeth, born in 1762; but she is dead, and the emperor had no issue by his last consort.

Peter-Leopold, the late emperor, succeeded his brother, as king of Hungary and Bohemia, on Feb. 10, 1790, and was crowned king of the Romans on the 30th of Sept. following. He was born May 5, 1747; married, Feb. 16, 1765, Maria-Louisa of Spain, and died March 1, 1792, not without suspicion of poison. His empress died the 15th of May following.

Francis-Joseph-Charles, emperor of Germany, and grand-duke of Tuscany. He was born Feb. 3, 1768; married, Jan. 6, 1788, Elizabeth, princess of Wirtemberg, who died 1790. He married 2dly, Sept. 17, 1790, Maria-Theresa, of Naples, his cousin.

On the death of his father Peter-Leopold, late emperor, March 1st, 1792, he succeeded to the crown of Hungary and Bohemia; and July 14, 1792, was elected emperor of Germany.

He had no issue by his first marriage. By the latter he has a daughter, Maria-Theresa, born Dec. 12, 1791.

The late emperor Peter-Leopold had 15 children, the eldest of whom is the present emperor; the others are,

Ferdinand-Joseph, born May 5, 1769; married, Sep. 17, 1790, Maria-Amelia of Naples.

Charles-Lewis, born Sept. 3, 1771.

Alexander-Leopold-Joseph, born Aug. 1, 1772.

Maximilian, born Dec. 23, 1774; died May 9, 1778.

Joseph-Antony, born May 9, 1776.

Antony-Victor, born Aug. 31, 1779.

A son, born Jan. 20, 1782.

Regnier-Jerom, born Sept. 30, 1783.

Theresa-Josepha-Charlotta-Jane, born Jan. 14, 1767.

Maria, born Jan. 14, 1767; married, Oct. 18, 1787, Antony, brother to the elector of Saxony.

Mary-Ann-Ferdinanda-Josepha, born April 21, 1770.

Mary-Clementina-Josepha, born April 24, 1777; married, Sept. 1790, Francis-Januarius, prince royal of Naples.

Maria-Josepha-Theresa, born Oct. 15, 1780.

A princess, born Oct. 22, 1784.

Maria-Antoinetta, born and died in 1786.

The late emperor has, living, two sisters, and one brother *unmarried*.

Those *married* are,

Maria-Christiana-Josepha, born May 13, 1742; married, April 8, 1766, to prince Albert of Saxony.

Maria-Amelia-Josepha, born Feb. 26, 1746; married to the reigning duke of Parma, June 27, 1769.

Ferdinand-Charles-Antoine, born June 1, 1754; married to the princess Maria-Beatrice of Modena, and has issue.

Mary-Caroline-Louisa, born Aug. 13, 1752; married, April 7, 1768, to the king of the Two Sicilies.

Maria-Antoinetta, born Nov. 2, 1755; married to Lewis XVI. the late unfortunate king of the French.

ELECTORS.] Three ecclesiastical electors, called Electoral Highnesses; and five secular ones, Most Serene Electoral Highnesses.

ECCLESIASTICAL ELECTORS.] 1. Frederic-Charles-Joseph, baron of Erthal, archbishop and elector of Mentz, born July 18, 1774.

2. Prince Clement of Saxony (son of Augustus III. king of Poland) born Sept. 28, 1739, archbishop and elector of Treves, Feb. 10, 1768; also bishop of Treisingen and Augsburg, by dispensation from the pope.

3. Maximilian-Francis, brother to the late emperor, grand master of the Teutonic order, archbishop and elector of Cologne, and bishop of Munster, born Dec. 8, 1756.

SECULAR ELECTORS.] 1. Francis-Joseph-Charles, emperor of Germany, king of Hungary, Bohemia, &c. born Feb. 3, 1768.

2. Frederic-Augustus IV. elector and duke of Saxony, born Dec. 23, 1750; married, Jan. 17, 1769, to the princess Amelia-Augusta, of Deux Ponts.

3. Charles-Frederic, elector and marquis of Brandenburg.

4. The prince of Deux Ponts, elector Palatine, &c.

5. George III. king of Great Britain, elector of Hanover, &c.

SAXE-GOTHA.] Ernest-Lewis, duke of, nephew to the late princess dowager of Wales, born Jan. 30, 1745; married, May, 21, 1769, to Maria-Charlotte of Saxe-Meningen, by whom he has,

1. Ernest, born Feb. 27, 1770.

2. Emilius-Leopold, born Nov. 24, 1772.

His brother Augustus, born Aug. 14, 1747.

MECKLENBURG.] The house of Mecklenburg is divided into two branches, viz.

1. Mecklenburg Schwerin.—Frederic, reigning duke, born Nov. 9, 1717; married, in 1746, Louisa-Frederica, daughter of Frederic-Louis, hereditary prince of Wurtemberg Stuttgart, born Feb. 3, 1722; they have no issue.—Issue of the late prince Louis, by the princess Charlotte-Philippa, of Saxe-Coburg-Staelfeld.

Frederic-Francis, born Dec. 10, 1756.

2. Mecklenburg Strelitz.—Frederic-Francis, sister to the reigning duke, born July 1, 1733, governess of the convent of Rubne.

II. Mecklenburg Strelitz. — Adolphus-Frederic, reigning duke (knight of the garter), born May 5, 1738.—His brothers and sisters are,

1. Charles-Louis-Frederic, a lieut. general in the Hanoverian service, born Oct. 10, 1741; married, Sept. 18, 1768, to Frederica-Charlotte-Louisa, of Hesse Darmstadt, by whom he had issue,
 1. Carolina-Georgina-Louisa-Frederica, born Nov. 17, 1769.
 2. Theresia-Matilda-Amelia, born April 5, 1778.
3. Ernest-Gotlob-Albert, major-general in the Hanoverian service, and governor of Zell, born Aug. 7, 1742.
4. Christiana-Sophia-Albertina, born Dec. 6, 1735.
5. Charlotte, queen consort of Great-Britain, born May 19, 1744; married Sept. 8, 1761; crowned Sept. 22, 1761.

THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA, FORMERLY DUCAL PRUSSIA.

Lat. $52^{\circ}-40'$ —to $55^{\circ}-50'$ N.

Long. $10^{\circ}-00'$ —to $23^{\circ}-23'$ E.

Containing 2,144 square miles, with 67 inhabitants in each.—The whole dominions 60,000 square miles, with 104 inhabitants to each.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.

} THIS country is bounded to the North by part of Samogitia; to the South, by Poland Proper and Masovia; to the East, by part of Lithuania; and to the West, by Polish Prussia and the Baltic. Its greatest length is about 160 miles, and breadth about 112.

NAME, AIR, SOIL, PRODUCE, AND RIVERS.

} The name of Prussia is probably deriv'd from the Borussi, the ancient inhabitants of the country. The air, upon the whole, is wholesome, and the soil fruitful in corn and other commodities, and affords plenty of pit-coal and fuel. Its animal productions are horses, sheep, deer and game, wild bears, and foxes. Its rivers and lakes are well stored with fishes; and amber, which is thought to be formed of an oil coagulated with vitriol, is found on its coasts towards the Baltic. The woods furnish the inhabitants with wax, honey, and pitch, besides quantities of pot-ashes. The rivers here sometimes do damage by inundations; and the principal are, the Vistula, the Pregel, the Memel or Mammel, the Passarge, and the Elbe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.

} As Prussia, since the beginning of the present century, has become a most respectable power upon the continent of Europe, it may be proper to deviate from the usual plan, and bring before the reader's eye the whole of his Prussian majesty's territories which lie scattered in other divisions of Germany, Poland, Switzerland, and the northern kingdoms, with their names; all which will be found in the following table:

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Protestants. Countries' Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	
Poland	Ducal Prussia	9950	160	112	KONINGSBERG } 54-43 N. Lat. Elbing } 24-35 E. Lon
	Royal Prussia	6400	188	104	
Up. Saxony	Brandenburg	10,910	215	170	Berlin
	Pomerania	4820	150	63	Camitz
	Swed. Pomerania	2991	90	48	Stetin
Lo. Saxony	Magdeburg	1537	63	50	Magdeburg
	Halberstadt	459	41	17	Halberstadt
Bohemia	Gatz	550	38	23	Glatz
	Silesia	10,000	196	97	Breslaw
	Minder	575	41	26	Minden
	Ravensburg	525	38	34	Ravensburg
Westphalia	Lingen	120	15	11	Lingen
	Cleves	630	43	21	Cleves
	Meurs	35	10	6	Meurs
	Mark	980	52	43	Ham
	East Friesland	690	46	32	Embsden
	Lippe	25	8	4	Lipstadt
Netherlands	Gulich	528	44	24	Gulich
	Tecklenburg	36	12	6	Tecklenburg
Switzerland	Gelder	360	34	21	Gelders
	Neufchatel	320	32	20	Neufchatel
Total—		51,281			

Besides a great part of Silesia, which Frederic II. under various pretences, wrested from Austria; availing himself also of the internal troubles in Poland, he, by virtue of no other right than that which a powerful army confers on every tyrant, seized upon Thorn, with the countries on the Vistula, and the Neiter, and other territories contiguous to his own dominions, close to the walls of Dantzic. These acquisitions may be traced in the map.

I shall here confine myself to Prussia as a kingdom, because his Prussian majesty's other dominions fall under the description of the countries where they lie.

The inhabitants of this kingdom alone were, by Dr. Busching, computed to amount to 635,998 persons capable of bearing arms. Since the year 1719, it is computed that about 34,000 colonists have removed thither from France, Switzerland, and Germany; of which number 17,000 were Saltzburghers. These emigrants have built 400 small villages, 11 towns, 86 seats, and 50 new churches; and have founded 1000 village schools, chiefly in that part of the country named Little Lithuania.

The manners of the inhabitants differ but little from those of the other inhabitants of Germany. The same may be said of their customs and diversions.

RELIGION, SCHOOLS; } The religion of Prussia is very tolerant.
AND ACADEMIES. } The established religions are those of the Lutherans and Calvinists, but chiefly the former; but papists, antipædo-baptists, and almost all other sects, are here tolerated. The country, as well as the towns, abounds in schools. An university was founded at Koningsberg in 1544; but we know of no very remarkable learned men that it has produced.

CITIES.] The kingdom of Prussia is divided into the German and Lithuanian departments; the former of which contains 280 parishes, and the latter: 105.

Koningsberg, the capital of the whole kingdom, seated on the river

Pregel, over which it has seven bridges, is about 84 miles from Dantzic. According to Dr. Büsching, this city is seven miles in circumference, and contains 3800 houses, and about 60,000 inhabitants. This computation is perhaps a little exaggerated, because it supposes, at an average, near sixteen persons in every house. Königsberg has ever made a considerable figure in commerce and shipping, its river being navigable for ships; of which 493 foreign ones arrived here in the year 1752, besides 298 coasters; and 373 floats of timber were, in the course of that year, brought down the Pregel. This city, besides its college or university, which contains 38 professors, has magnificent palaces, a town-house, and exchange; not to mention gardens and other embellishments. It has a good harbour and a citadel, which is called Fredericburg, and is a regular square.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES,
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.

} See Germany.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Prussian manufactures, are not inconsiderable; they consist of glass, iron work, paper, gunpowder, copper, and brass mills; manufactures of cloth, camlet, linen, silk, stockings, and other articles. The inhabitants export variety of naval stores, amber, linseed, and hempseed, oatmeal, fish, mead, tallow, and caviar; and it is said that 500 ships are loaded every year with those commodities chiefly from Königsberg.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] His Prussian majesty is absolute through all his dominions, and he avails himself to the full of his power. The government of this kingdom is by a regency of four chancellors of state, viz. 1. The great master; 2. The great burgrave; 3. The great chancellor; and, 4. The great marshal. There are also some other councils, and 37 bailiwicks. The states consist, 1. Of counsellors of state; 2. Of deputies from the nobility; and, 3. From the commons. Besides these institutions, Frederic II. erected a board for commerce and navigation.

REVENUES.] His Prussian majesty, by means of the happy situation of his country, its inland navigation, and judicious political regulations, derives an amazing revenue from this country, which, about a century and a half ago, was the seat of boors and barbarism. It is said that amber alone brings him in 26,000 dollars annually. His other revenues arise from his demesnes, his duties of customs and tolls, and the subsidies yearly granted by the several states; but the exact sum is not known; though we may conclude it is very considerable, from the immense charges of the seven years' war. The revenue which the king draws from Silesia, amounts annually to 5,854,632 rix-dollars; and after deducting the expenses of the military establishment, and all others, there is a net revenue of 1,554,632 rix-dollars. His revenues now, since the accession of Polish or Royal Prussia, must be greatly increased: exclusive of its fertility, commerce, and population, its local situation was of vast importance, as it lay between his German dominions and his kingdom of Prussia. By this acquisition, his dominions are compact, and his troops may march from Berlin to Königsberg without interruption.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The Prussian army, even in time of peace, consists of about 180,000 of the best disciplined troops in the world; and, during the seven years' war, that force was augmented to 300,000 men. But this great military force, however it may aggrandise the power and importance of the king, is utterly inconsistent with the interests of the people. The army is chiefly composed of provincial regiments; the

whole Prussian dominions being divided into circles or cantons; in each of which, one or more regiments, in proportion to the size and populousness of the divisions, have been originally raised, and from it the recruits continue to be taken: and each particular regiment is always quartered, in the time of peace, near the canton from which its recruits are drawn. Whatever number of sons a peasant may have, they are all liable to be taken into the service except one, who is left to assist in the management of the farm. The rest wear badges from their childhood, to mark that they are destined to be soldiers, and obliged to enter into the service whenever they are called upon. But the maintaining so large an army, in a country naturally so little equal to it, has occasioned such a drain from population, and such a withdrawing of strength from the labours of the earth, that the late king endeavoured in some degree to save his own peasantry, by drawing as many recruits as he could from other countries. These foreign recruits remain continually with the regiments in which they are placed; but the native Prussians have every year some months of furlough, during which they return to the houses of their fathers or brothers, and work at the business of the farm, or in any other way they please.

ARMS AND ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The royal arms of Prussia are, argent, an eagle displayed fable, crowned, or, for Prussia. Azure, the imperial sceptre, or, for Courland. Argent, an eagle displayed, gules, with semicircular wreaths, for the marquisate of Brandenburg. To these are added the respective arms of the several provinces subject to the Prussian crown.

There are four orders of knighthood, the "Order of Concord," instituted by Christian Ernest, margrave of Brandenburg, in the year 1660, to distinguish the part he had acted in restoring peace to many of the princes of Europe. Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, and afterwards king of Prussia, instituted, in 1685, the "Order of Generosity." The knights wear a cross of eight points, enamelled blue, having in the centre this motto, "*La Generositas*," pendent to a blue riband. The same prince instituted the "Order of the Black Eagle," on the day of his coronation at Koningsberg, in the year 1700: the sovereign is always grand-master, and the number of knights, exclusive of the royal family, is limited to thirty, who must also be admitted into the "Order of Generosity," previous to their receiving this, unless they be sovereign princes. The "Order of Merit," was instituted by the late king in the year 1740, to reward the merit of persons either in arms or arts, without distinction of birth, religion, or country; the king is sovereign, and the number of knights unlimited.

HISTORY.] The ancient history of Prussia, like that of other kingdoms, is lost in the clouds of fiction and romance. The early inhabitants, a brave and warlike people, descended from the Sclavonians; refused to submit to the neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them to Christianity, endeavoured to subject them to slavery. They made a noble stand against the kings of Poland; one of whom, Boleslaus IV. was by them defeated and killed in 1163. They continued independent, and pagans, till the time of the crusades, when the German knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1227, undertook their conversion by the edge of the sword, but upon condition of having, as a reward, the property of the country when conquered. A long series of wars followed, in which the inhabitants of Prussia were almost exterminated by the religious knights, who, in the thirteenth century, after committing the most incredible barbarities, peopled the country with

Germans. After a vast waste of blood, in 1466, a peace was concluded between the knights of the Teutonic order, and Casimir IV. king of Poland, who had undertaken the cause of the oppressed people; by which it was agreed; that the part now called Polish Prussia should continue a free province, under the king's protection; and that the knights and the grand-master should possess the other part, acknowledging themselves vassals of Poland. This gave rise to fresh wars, in which the knights endeavoured; but unsuccessfully, to throw off their vassalage to Poland. In 1525, Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, and the last grand-master of the Teutonic order, laid aside the habit of his order, embraced Lutheranism, and concluded a peace at Craeow, by which the margrave was acknowledged duke of the east part of Prussia (formerly called, for that reason, Ducal Prussia), but to be held as a fief of Poland; and to descend to his male heirs; and upon failure of his male issue, to his brother, and his male heirs. Thus ended the sovereignty of the Teutonic order in Prussia, after it had subsisted near 300 years. In 1657, the elector Frederic William of Brandenburg, deservedly called the Great, had Ducal Prussia confirmed to him; and by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg, it was freed by John Casimir, king of Poland, from vassalage; and he and his descendants were declared independent and sovereign lords of this part of Prussia.

As the protestant religion had been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors of Brandenburg were now of that persuasion, the protestant interest favoured them so much, that Frederic, the son of Frederic-William the Great, was raised to the dignity of king of Prussia, in a solemn assembly of the states, proclaimed January 18, 1701, and soon after acknowledged as such by all the powers of Christendom. His grandson, Frederic II. in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high idea of this first king's talents for government, but expatiates on those of his own father, Frederic-William, who succeeded in 1713. He certainly was a prince of strong natural abilities, and considerably increased the revenues of his country; but too often at the expense of humanity. At his death, which happened in 1740, he is said to have left seven millions sterling in his treasury, which enabled his son, by his wonderful victories, and the more wonderful resources by which he repaired his defeats, to become the admiration of the age. He improved the arts of peace as well as of war, and distinguished himself as a poet, philosopher, and legislator. Some of the principal transactions of his reign have already been related in our account of the history of Germany. In the year 1783, he published a rescript, signifying his pleasure that no kneeling in future should be practised in honour of his person, assigning for his reason, that this act of humiliation was not due but to the Divinity; and near 2,000,000 of crowns were expended by him 1782, in draining marshes, establishing factories, settling colonies, relieving distress, and in other purposes of philanthropy and policy.

The late king of Prussia, who succeeded his uncle, August 17, 1786, made many salutary regulations for his subjects, and has established a court of honour to prevent the diabolical practice of duelling in his dominions.

The exertions of Prussia against France, till the treaty of peace concluded between those two powers, on the 5th of April, 1795, have been already related in our account of France.

The conduct of Prussia with regard to Poland is difficult to explain; and it would apparently have been more for the interest of the former to have erected the latter as a formidable independent barrier against

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Russia and Austria, than to have exposed itself to the enormous and increased power of Russia.

Frederic-William II. died at Berlin, of a dropsy, November 16, 1797, and was succeeded by his son, Frederic-William III.

Frederic-William II. king of Prussia, and elector of Brandenburg, born September 25, 1744; married, July 14, 1765, to the princess Elizabeth-Christiana-Ulrica, of Brunwick Wolfenbuttle. 2dly, On July 14, 1769, to Frederica-Louisa, of Hesse Darmstadt.

Issue by the first marriage.

Frederica-Charlotta-Ulrica-Catharine, born May 7, 1767; married, September 29, 1791, to the duke of York, the second son of his Britannic majesty.

Issue by the latter marriage.

1. Frederic-William, the present king, born August 3, 1770.
 2. Frederic-Louis-Charles, born August 3, 1773.
 3. Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, born November 18, 1774; married, October 1, 1791, to the hereditary prince of Orange.
 4. Frederic-Christian-Augustus, born May 1, 1780.
 5. Another prince, born December 20, 1781.
 6. Another prince, born July, 1783.
- Queen dowager, Elizabeth-Christina, of Brunwick Wolfenbuttle, born November 8, 1715.

Brother and sister to the late king.

1. Frederic-Charles-Henry, born December 30, 1747.
2. Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, born in 1751; and married in 1767, to the present prince of Orange.

THE KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 478 } between {	48 and 52 North latitude.
Breadth 322 }	12 and 19 East longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Saxony and Brandenburg, on the north; by Poland and Hungary, on the east; by Austria and Bavaria, on the south; and by the palatinate of Bavaria, on the west: formerly comprehending, 1. Bohemia proper; 2. Silesia; and 3. Moravia.

Divisions.	Chief Towns.	Miles.	Sq. M.
1. Bohemia proper, W. mostly subject to the house of Austria.	Prague, E. long. 14-20, N. lat. 50. Koningsgratz, E. Glatz, E. subject to the king of Prussia. Egra, W.	Length 162 } Breadth 142 }	12,060

* In enumerating the kings of Prussia, we have thought it most proper to follow the method used in Prussia, and throughout Germany, where the *Frederics* are distinguished from the *Frederic-Williams*; thus the uncle of the late king, and the late king, frequently here styled Frederic III. and Frederic IV. are always called, on the continent, Frederic II. and Frederic-William II. the father of the former not being styled Frederic II. but Frederic-William I.

Divisions.	Chief Towns.	Miles.	Sq. M.
	Breslaw, E. lon. 17. N. lat. 51-15.		
2. Silesia, East, mostly subject to the king of Prussia	Glogaw, N.	Length 196 } Breadth 92 }	10,259
	Crossen, N.		
	Jagendorf, S.		
	Tropaw; S. subject to the house of Austria.		
	Teschén; S. subject to the house of Austria.		
3. Moravia, S. entirely subject to the house of Austria	Olmütz, E. long. 16-45. N. lat. 49-40.	Length 120 } Breadth 88 }	5,424
	Brin, middle.		
	Eglá, S. W.		

SOIL AND AIR.] The air of Bohemia proper is not thought so wholesome as that of the rest of Germany, though its soil and produce are pretty much the same.

MOUNTAINS AND RIVERS.] Bohemia, though almost surrounded with mountains, contains none of note or distinction: its woods are many; and the chief rivers are the Elbe, Muldaw, and Eger.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This kingdom contains rich mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, sulphur, and saltpetre. Its chief manufactures are linen, copper, iron, and glass.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] About 150 years ago, Bohemia was computed

to contain near 3,000,000 of inhabitants; but at present they are thought not to exceed 2,100,000. The Bohemians, in their persons, habits, and manners, resemble the Germans. There is among them no middle state of people; for every lord is a sovereign, and every tenant a slave. But the emperor, Joseph II. generously discharged the Bohemian peasants, on the imperial demerces, from the state of villanage in which they have been so long and so unjustly retained; and it will be happy if his example should be followed by the Bohemian nobility, and they be thereby induced no longer to deprive their vassals of the rights of human nature. Although the Bohemians, at present, are not remarkable either for arts or arms, yet they formerly distinguished themselves as the most intrepid assertors of civil and religious liberty in Europe; witness the early introduction of the reformed religion into their country, when it was scarcely known in any other; the many glorious defeats they gave to the Austrian power, and their generous struggles for independency. Their virtues may be considered as the causes of their decay, as no means were left unemployed by their despotic masters for breaking their spirit: though it is certain their internal jealousies and dissensions greatly contributed to their subjection. Their customs and diversions are the same as Germany.

RELIGION.] Though popery is the established religion of Bohemia, yet there are many protestants among the inhabitants, who are now tolerated in the free exercise of their religion: and some of the Moravians have embraced a visionary unintelligible protestantism, if it deserves that name, which they have propagated, by their zealous missionaries, in several parts of the globe. They have a meeting house in London, and obtained an act of parliament for a settlement in the plantations.

ARCHBISHOPS AND BISHOPS.] Prague is the only Bohemian archbishopric. The bishoprics are Koninsgratz, Breslaw, and Olmutz.

LANGUAGE.] The proper language of the Bohemians is a dialect of the Slavonian, but they generally speak German and High Dutch.

UNIVERSITY.] The only university in Bohemia is that of Prague.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is one of the finest and most magnificent cities in Europe, and famous for its noble bridge. Its circumference is so large, that the grand Prussian army, in its last siege, never could completely invest it. For this reason it is able to make a vigorous defence in case of a regular siege. The inhabitants are thought not to be proportioned to its capaciousness, being computed not to exceed 70,000 Christians, and about 13,000 Jews. It contains ninety-two churches and chapels, and forty cloisters. It is a place of little or no trade, and therefore the middling inhabitants are not wealthy; but the Jews are said to carry on a large commerce in jewels. Bohemia contains many other towns, some of which are fortified; but they are neither remarkable for strength or manufactures. Olmutz is the capital of Moravia; it is well fortified, and has manufactures of woollen, iron, glass, paper, and gunpowder. Breslaw, the capital of Silesia, has been already described.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] See Germany.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The forms, and only the forms, of the old Bohemian constitution still subsist; but the government under the emperor is despotic. Their states are composed of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and representatives of towns. Their sovereigns of late have not been fond of provoking them by ill usage, as they have a general aversion towards the Austrians. This kingdom is frequently described as part of Germany, but with little reason, for it is not in any of the nine circles, nor does it contribute any thing towards the forces or revenues of the empire, nor is it subject to any of its laws. What gives some colour to this mistake, is, that the king of Bohemia is the first secular elector of the empire, and their kings have been elected emperors of Germany for many years.

REVENUES.] The revenues of Bohemia are whatever the sovereign is pleased to exact from the states of the kingdom, when they are annually assembled at Prague. They may perhaps amount to 500,000 a year.

ARMS.] The arms of Bohemia are, argent, a lion gules, the tail moved, and passed in saltier, crowned, langued, and armed, or.

HISTORY.] The Bohemian nobility used to elect their own princes, though the emperors of Germany sometimes imposed a king upon them, and at length usurped that throne themselves. In the year 1438, Albert II. of Austria, received three crowns, Hungary, the empire, and Bohemia.

In 1414, John Huss, and Jerome of Prague, two of the first reformers, and Bohemians, were burnt at the council of Constance, though the emperor of Germany had given them his protection. This occasioned an insurrection in Bohemia: the people of Prague threw the emperor's officers out of the windows of the council-chamber; and the famous Zisca, assembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the emperor's forces in several engagements, and drove the imperialists out of the kingdom. The divisions of the Hussites among themselves enabled the emperor to regain and keep possession of Bohemia, though an attempt was made to throw off the imperial yoke, by electing, in the year 1618, a protestant king in the person of the prince Palatine, son-in-law to James I. of England. The misfortunes of this prince are well known. He was driven from Bohemia by the emperor's generals, and being

stripped of his other dominions, was forced to depend on the court of England for a subsistence. Since the war of thirty years, which desolated the whole empire, the Bohemians have remained subject to the house of Austria.

HUNGARY.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. M.
Length 300 } between { 16-35 and 26 East long. }		36,064
Breadth 200 } { 44-50 and 49-35 North lat. }		
Containing 87,575 square miles, with 57 inhabitants to each.		

BOUNDARIES.] THAT part of Hungary which belongs to the house of Austria (for it formerly included Transylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, and other countries) is bounded by Poland, on the north; by Transylvania and Walachia, east; by Sclavonia, south; and by Austria and Moravia, west.

The kingdom of Hungary is usually divided into the Upper and Lower Hungary.

UPPER HUNGARY, NORTH OF THE DANUBE. | **LOWER HUNGARY, SOUTH OF THE DANUBE.**

Chief Towns.

Presburg, situated on the Danube, E. long. 17-30. N. lat. 48-20.
 Newhausel, N. W.
 Leopoldstadt, N. W.
 Chremnitz, N. W.
 Schemnitz, in the middle.
 Esperies, N.
 Calchaw, N.
 Tokay, N. E.
 Unguar, N. E.
 Mongats, N. E.
 Waradin, Great, E.
 Segedin, S. E.
 Agria, in the middle.
 Pest, on the Danube, opposite to Buda.

Chief Towns.

Buda, on the Danube, E. lon. 19-20, N. lat. 47-40.
 Gran, on the Danube, above Buda.
 Comorra, on the Danube, in the island of Schut.
 Raab, on the Danube, opposite to the island of Schut.
 Altenburg, W. opposite to the island of Schut.
 Weissenburg, or Alba Regalis, situated E. of the lake called the Platten sea.
 Kanisba, S. W. of the Platten sea.
 Five Churches, N. of the river Drave.

To which may be added Temeswar, which has been considered as distinct from Hungary, because it was formerly governed by an independent king; and it has several times been in possession of the Turks; but the Austrians gaining possession of it, it was incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary in 1778. The province of Temeswar is ninety-four miles long, and sixty-seven broad, containing about 3850 miles; it has been divided into four districts, Cladat, Temeswar, Wersches,

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and Lugos. **Termeswar**, the principal town, is situated E. lon. 22-15. N. lat. 45-54.

AIR, SOIL; AND PRODUCE.] The air, and consequently the climate, of the southern parts of Hungary, is found to be unhealthful, owing to its numerous lakes, stagnated waters, and marshes; but the northern part being mountainous and barren, the air is sweet and wholesome. No country in the world can boast a richer soil than that plain which extends 300 miles from Presburg, to Belgrade, and produces corn, grass, esculent plants, tobacco, saffron, asparagus, melons, hops, pulse, millet, buck-wheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, chestnuts, and wood: corn is in such plenty, that it sells for one sixth part of its price in England.

RIVERS.] These are the Danube, Drave, Save, Teyse, Merish, and the Temes.

WATER.] Hungary contains several lakes, particularly four among the Carpathian mountains, of considerable extent, and abounding with fish. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are esteemed the most sovereign of any in Europe; but their magnificent buildings, raised by the Turks when in possession of the country, particularly those of Buda, are suffered to go to decay.

MOUNTAINS.] The Carpathian mountains, which divide Hungary from Poland on the north, are the chief in Hungary; though many detached mountains are found in the country. Their tops are generally covered with wood, and on their sides grow the richest grapes in the world.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Hungary is remarkably well stocked with both. It abounds not only with gold and silver mines, but with plenty of excellent copper, vitriol, iron, orpiment, quicksilver, chrysolocola, and terra sigillata. Before Hungary became the seat of destructive wars between Turks and Christians, or fell under the power of the house of Austria those mines were furnished with proper works and workmen, and produced vast revenues to the native princes. The Hungarian gold and silver employed mint-houses, not only in Hungary, but in Germany, and the continent of Europe; but all those mines are now greatly diminished in their value, their works being destroyed or demolished: some of them, however, still subsist, to the great emolument of the natives.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Hungary is remarkable for a fine breed of horses, generally mouse-coloured, and highly esteemed by military officers, so that great numbers of them are exported. There is a remarkable breed of large rams in the neighbourhood of Presburg. Its other vegetable and animal productions are in general the same with those of Germany, and the neighbouring countries. The Hungarian wines, however, particularly Tokay, are preferable to those of any other country, at least in Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] It was late, before the north-ern barbarians drove the Romans out of Hungary; and some of the descendants of their legionary forces are still to be distinguished in the inland parts, by their speaking Latin. Before the Turks obtained possession of Constantinople, Hungary was one of the most populous and flourishing kingdoms in Europe: and if the house of Austria should give the proper encouragement to the inhabitants to repair their works, and clear their fens, it might become so again. The population of Hungary, exclusive of Transylvania, Sclavonia, and Dalmatia, was estimated, in 1776, by the

celebrated Busching, to be 3,170,000; and M. Windisch, an Hungarian, in his Geography of Hungary, published in 1780, says "the population, according to a new accurate examination, is 3,170,000, excluding Transylvania, Sclavonia, and Dalmatia." But the committee appointed by the diet of 1791, to inquire into things of this nature, "some of whose notes," says Mr. Townson, a late intelligent traveller in this country, "I have had in my hands, estimate the population of Hungary, in its greatest extent, but always excluding Transylvania, at about 3,000,000, which, they add, is 1777 souls per square mile. In No. 61 of Mr. Slotzer's *Staats Anzeigen*, there is a detailed account, which makes the total population 7,417,415."

The Hungarians are a brave, generous, and hardy race of men; their manners are peculiar to themselves, and they pique themselves on being descended from those heroes who formed the bulwark of Christendom against the infidels. In their persons they are well made. Their fur-caps, their close-bodied coats, girded by a sash, and their cloak or mantle, which is so contrived as to buckle under the arm, so that the right hand may be always at liberty, gives them an air of military dignity. The men shave their beards, but preserve their whiskers on their upper lips. Their usual arms are the broad-sword, and a kind of pole-axe, besides their fire-arms. The ladies are reckoned handsomer than those of Austria; and their sable dress, with sleeves strait to their arms, and their stays fastened before with gold, pearl, or diamond little buttons, are well known to the French and English ladies. Both men and women, in what they call the mine towns, wear fur and even sheep-skin dresses. The inns upon the roads are most miserable hovels, and even those seldom to be met with. The hogs, which yield the chief animal food for the peasants, and their poultry, live in the same apartment with their owners. The gout and the fever, owing to the unwholesomeness of the air, are the predominant diseases in Hungary. The natives in general are indolent, and leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other strangers settled in their country, the flatness of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The diversions of the inhabitants are of the warlike and athletic kind. They are in general a brave and magnanimous people. Their ancestors, even since the beginning of the present century, were so jealous of their liberties, that, rather than be tyrannised over by the house of Austria, they often put themselves under the protection of the Ottoman court; but their fidelity to the late empress-queen, notwithstanding the provocations they received from her house, will be always remembered to their honour.

The inhabitants of Temeswar, a province lately incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary, are computed at 450,000. There are in this country many faraons, or gypsies, supposed to be real descendants of the ancient Egyptians. They are said to resemble the ancient Egyptians in their features, in their propensity to melancholy, and in many of their manners and customs; and it is asserted, that the lascivious dances of Isis, the worship of onions, many famous Egyptian superstitions and specifics, and the Egyptian method of hatching eggs by means of dung, are still in use among the female gypsies in Temeswar.

[RELIGION.] The established religion of the Hungarians is the Roman catholic, though the major part of the inhabitants are protestants or Greeks; and they now enjoy the full exercise of their religious liberties.

[ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbishoprics are Pre

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Burg, Gran; and Colocza. The bishoprics are Great Waradin, Agria, Vefprin, Raab, and Five Churches.

LANGUAGE.] As the Hungarians are mixed with Germans, Slavonians, and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects, and one of them is said to approach near the Hebrew. The better and the middlemost ranks speak German; and almost all, even of the common people, speak Latin, either pure or barbarous, so that the Latin may be said to be here still a living language.

UNIVERSITIES.] In the universities (if they can be properly so called) of Firnan, Buda, Raab, and Caschaw, are professors of the several arts and sciences, who used generally to be Jesuits; so that the Lutherans and Calvinists, who are more numerous than the Roman catholics in Hungary, go to the German and other universities.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The artificial curiosities of this
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } country consist of its bridges, baths, and mines. The bridge of Esseck, built over the Danube and Drave, is, properly speaking, a continuation of bridges, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain distances. It was an important pass during the wars between the Turks and Hungarians. A bridge of boats runs over the Danube, half a mile long, between Buda and Pest; and about twenty Hungarian miles distant from Belgrade, are the remains of a bridge erected by the Romans, judged to be the most magnificent of any in the world. The baths and mines here have nothing to distinguish them from the like works in other countries.

One of the most remarkable natural curiosities of Hungary is a cavern, in a mountain near Szelitze; the aperture of this cavern, which fronts the south, is eighteen fathoms high, and eight broad: its subterraneous passages consist entirely of solid rock, stretching away farther south than has yet been discovered; as far as it is practicable to go, the height is found to be fifty fathoms, and the breadth twenty-six. Many wonderful particulars are related of this cavern. Astonishing rocks are common in Hungary, and some of its churches are of admirable architecture.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER } These are generally decay-
EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } ed from their ancient magnificence; but many of the fortifications are still very strong, and kept in good order. Presburg is fortified. In it the Hungarian regalia are kept. The crown, in the year 1784, was removed to Vienna by order of the emperor Joseph II. But this measure gave so great offence, and excited such violent discontents, that it was sent back to Buda in 1790, where it was received with the most extravagant testimonies of joy, the whole city and suburbs being illuminated. This crown was sent, in the year 1000, by pope Sylvester II. to Stephen, king of Hungary, and was made after that of the Greek emperors; it is of solid gold, weighing nine marks and three ounces, ornamented with fifty-three sapphires, fifty rubies, one large emerald, and three hundred and thirty-eight pearls. Besides these stones, are the images of the apostles and the patriarchs. The pope added to this crown a silver patriarchal cross, which was afterwards inserted in the arms of Hungary. At the ceremony of the coronation, a bishop carries it before the king. From the cross is derived the title of apostolic king; the use of which was renewed under the reign of the empress-queen Maria Theresa. The sceptre and the globe of the kingdom are of Arabian gold; the mantle, which is of fine linen, is said to be the work of Gisele, spouse of St. Stephen, who, they say, embroidered in gold the image of Jesus Christ crucified, and many other images of the patriarchs and apostles, with a number of

inscriptions. The sword is two-edged, and rounded at the point. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its ancient magnificence, but its strength and fortifications; and the same may be said of Pest, which lies on the opposite side of the Danube. Raab is likewise a strong city, as are Gran and Comorra. Tokay has been already mentioned for the excellency of its wines.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] After having mentioned the natural produce of the country, it is sufficient to say, that the chief manufactures and exports of the natives consist of metals, drugs, and salt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Hungarians dislike the term of queen, and even called their late sovereign, king Theresa. Their government preserves the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament, which assembly consists of tables or houses, the first composed of magnates, or the great officers of the crown, princes, counts, barons, and archbishops; and the second of the abbots, prelates, and deputies from the chapters and each of the two and fifty counties into which the kingdom is divided. These houses, however, form but one body, as their votes are taken together. The diet, besides being convened on all great national events, should meet at stated times. Under Matthias Corvinus and Ferdinand I. it was decreed they should be annual; and, under Leopold I. that they should be triennial; which was confirmed by Charles VI. and is still considered as the constitutional period. But sovereigns and their ministers often wish to get rid of these incumbrances; and lately, from 1764 to 1790, no diet was held; though many important affairs had happened within this period. It ought not to sit more than two months. There is likewise a Hungary-office, which resembles our chancery, and which resides at Vienna; as the stadtholder's council, which comes pretty near the British privy-council, but has a municipal jurisdiction; does at Presburg. Every royal town has its senate; and the Gespannschafts resemble our justices of the peace. Besides this, they have an exchequer and nine chambers, and other subordinate courts.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The emperor can bring into the field, at any time, 50,000 Hungarians in their own country, but seldom draws out of it above 10,000; these are generally light-horse, and well known in modern times by the name of Hussars. They are not near so large as the German horse; and therefore the hussars stand up on their short stirrups when they strike. Their expedition and alertness have been found so serviceable in war, that the greatest powers in Europe have troops that go by the same name. Their foot are called Heydukes, and wear feathers in their caps, according to the number of enemies they pretend to have killed: both horse and foot are an excellent militia, very good at a pursuit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but not equal to regular troops in a pitched battle. The sovereign may summon the Hungarian nobility to take the field and defend their country. This service is called an *insurrectio*, and from it the high clergy are not exempt. In the frequent wars in which Hungary was formerly engaged, principally against the Turks, this service was a rather severe obligation. The number of combatants each brought into the field, was in proportion to his estate. The archbishop of Gran, and the bishop of Erlau, brought each two stands of colours, and under each stand a thousand men; the archbishop of Collotza, and several bishops, a thousand each. In the fatal battle of Mohatch, seven bishops were left on the field. A general *insurrection* of this kind has been summoned by the emperor in the

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present war; but the treaty of Campo Formio having been concluded before the troops so raised began to act, they have returned home.

COINS.] Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage; and there are still extant, in the cabinets of the curious, a complete series of coins of their former kings. More Greek and Roman medals have been discovered in this country, than perhaps in any other in Europe.

ARMS.] The emperor, as king of Hungary, for armorial ensigns, bears quarterly, barwise, argent and gules, of eight pieces.

HISTORY.] The Huns, after subduing this country in the middle of the third century, communicated their name to it, being then part of the ancient Pannonia. They were succeeded by the furious Goths; the Goths were expelled by the Lombards: they by the Avari; who were followed by the Sclavi in the beginning of the 9th century. At the close of it, the Anigours emigrated from the banks of the Volga, and took possession of the country. Hungary was formerly an assemblage of different states; and the first who assumed the title of king was Stephen, in the year 997, when he embraced christianity. In his reign, the form of government was established, and the crown rendered elective. About the year 1310, king Charles Robert ascended the throne, and subdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces; but many of those conquests were afterwards reduced by the Venetians, Turks, and other powers. In the 15th century, Huniades, who was guardian to the infant king Ladislaus, bravely repulsed the Turks when they invaded Hungary; and upon the death of Ladislaus, the Hungarians, in 1438, raised Matthias Corvinus, son of Huniades, to their throne. Lewis, king of Hungary, in 1526, was killed in a battle, fighting against Solyman, emperor of the Turks. This battle almost proved fatal to Hungary: but the archduke Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V. having married the sister of Lewis, he claimed the title of Hungary, in which he succeeded, with some difficulty; and that kingdom has ever since belonged to the house of Austria, though by its constitution its crown ought to be elective. For the rest of the Hungarian history, see Germany.

TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, AND HUNGARIAN DALMATIA.

THESE countries appear under one division, for several reasons, and particularly because we have no account sufficiently exact of their extent and boundaries. The most authentic is as follows: **TRANSYLVANIA** belongs to the house of Austria, and is bounded on the north by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the east by Moldavia and Walachia; on the south by Walachia; and on the west by Upper and Lower Hungary. It lies between twenty-two and twenty-six degrees of east longitude, and forty-five and forty-eight of north latitude. Its length is about 180, and its breadth 120 miles; and contains nearly 14,400 square miles, surrounded on all sides by high mountains. Its produce, vegetables, and animals, are almost the same with those of Hungary. The air is wholesome and temperate; but the wine of this country, though good, is not equal to the Hungarian. Its chief city is Hermanstadt, and its interior government still partakes greatly of the ancient feudal system, being composed of many indepen-

dent states and princes, who are little more than nominally subject to the Austrians. Papists, Lutherans, Calvinists, Socinians, Arians, Greeks, Mahometans, and other sectaries, here enjoy their several religions. Transylvania is thought to add but little to the Austrian revenue, though it exports some metals and salt to Hungary. The other large places are Sagetwar, Millenback, and Newmark. All sorts of provisions are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. Hermanstadt is a large, strong, and well built city, as are Clausenburg and Weissenburg. The seat of government is at Hermanstadt, and the governor is assisted by a council made up of Roman catholics, Calvinists, and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meets by summons, and receives the commands of the sovereign, to whom of late they have been more devoted than formerly. They have a liberty of making remonstrances and representations in case of grievances.

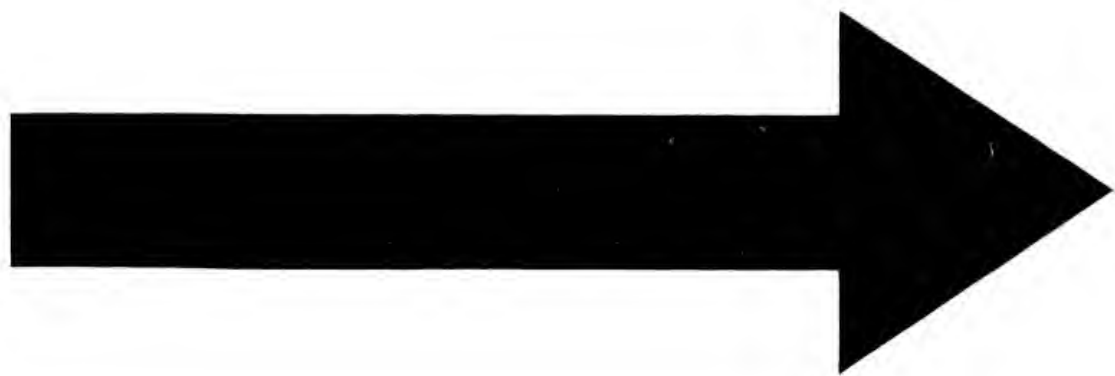
Transylvania is part of ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms before they could be subdued. It was overrun by the Goths on the decline of the Roman empire, and then by the Huns. Their descendents retain the same military character. The population of the country is not ascertained; but if the Transylvanians can bring into the field, as has been asserted, 30,000 troops, the whole number of inhabitants must be considerable. At present, their military force is reduced to six regiments of 1500 each; but it is well known, that, during the last two wars in which the house of Austria was engaged, the Transylvanians did great services. Hermanstadt is its only bishopric; and the Transylvanians at present seem to trouble themselves little either about learning or religion, though the Roman catholic is the established church. Stephen I. king of Hungary, introduced Christianity there about the year 1000; and it was afterwards governed by an Hungarian vaivod, or viceroy. The various revolutions in their government prove their impatience under slavery; and though the treaty of Carlowitz, in 1699, gave the sovereignty of Transylvania, as also of Sclavonia, to the house of Austria, yet the natives enjoy what we may call a loyal aristocracy, which their sovereigns do not think proper to invade. In October, 1784, on account of the real or feigned oppressions of the nobility, near 16,000 assembled, and committed great depredations on those whose conduct had been obnoxious to them. Several had their palaces burnt, and were glad to escape with their lives. The revolters were disappointed in their attempt on Clausenburg; and afterwards offered to separate, and go home in peace, on the terms of a general pardon, better treatment from the nobility, and a freedom from vassalage. Lenient terms were granted to them; and, with the punishment of a few, the insurrection was suppressed.

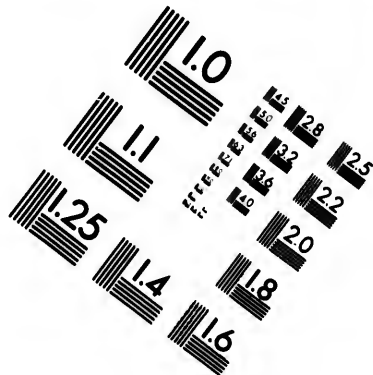
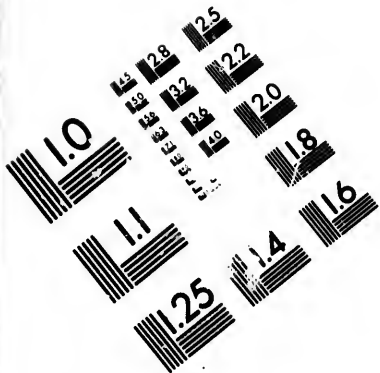
SCLAVONIA lies between the 17th and 21st degrees of east longitude, and the 55th and 46th of north latitude. It is thought to be about 200 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, and contains about 10,000 square miles. It is bounded by the Drave on the north, by the Danube on the east, by the Save on the south, and by Stiria in Austria on the west. The reason why Hungary, Transylvania, Sclavonia, and the other nations, subject to the house of Austria in those parts, contain a surprising variety of people, differing in name, language, and manners, is because liberty here made its last stand against the Roman arms, which by degrees forced the remains of the different nations they had conquered into those quarters. The thickness of the woods, the rapidity of the rivers, and the strength of the country, favoured their resistance; and their descendents, notwithstanding the power of the Turks, the

Americans, the Hungarians, and the Poles, still retain the same spirit of independency. Without regarding the arrangements made by the sovereigns of Europe, they are quiet under the government that leaves them most at liberty. That they are generous as well as brave, appears from their attachment to the house of Austria, which, till the last wars, never was sensible of their value and valour; insomuch that it is well known that they preserved the pragmatic sanction, and kept the imperial crown in that family. The Sclavonians formerly so much employed the Roman arms, that it is thought the word *Sclav* took its original from them, on account of the great numbers of them who were carried into bondage, so late as the reign of Charlemagne. Though Sclavonia yields neither in beauty nor fertility to Hungary and Transylvania, yet the ravages of war are still visible in the face of the country, which lies in a great measure unimproved. The Sclavonians are zealous Roman catholics, though Greeks and Jews are tolerated. Here we meet with two bishoprics; that of Pofega, which is the capital of the country, and Zagrab, which lies on the Drave; but we know of no universities. Essek is a large and strong town, remarkable, as before noticed, for a wooden bridge over the Drave, and adjoining marshes, five miles long and fifteen paces broad, built by the Turks. Waradin and Peterwaradin are places noted in the wars between the Austrians and Turks. The inhabitants are composed of Servians, Radzians, Croats, Wallachians, Germans, Hungarians, and a vast number of other people, whose names were never known even to the Austrians themselves; but from the military muster-rolls, when they poured their troops into the field during the last two wars. In 1746, Sclavonia was united to Hungary, and the states send representatives to the diet of Hungary.

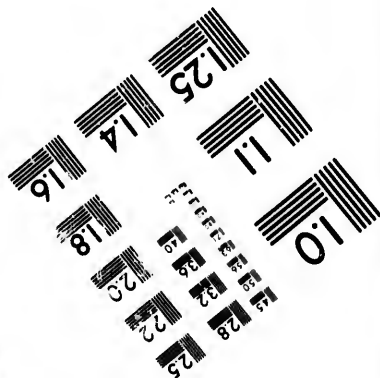
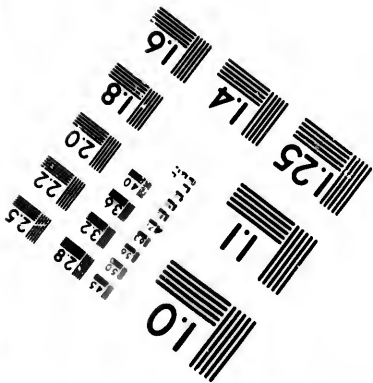
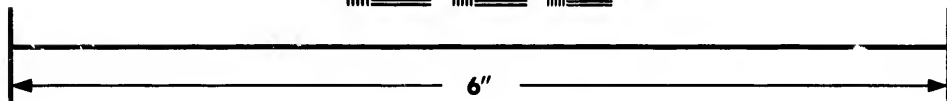
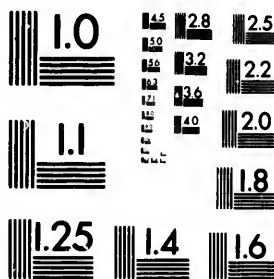
CROATIA lies between the 15th and 17th degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is eighty miles in length, and seventy in breadth, and about 2,500 square miles. The manners, government, religion, language, and customs of the Croats, are similar to those of the Sclavonians and Transylvanians, who are their neighbours. They are excellent irregular troops, and, as such, are famed in modern history, under the name of Pandours, and various other designations. The truth is, the house of Austria finds its interest in suffering them and the neighbouring nations to live in their own manner. The towns are blended with each other, there scarcely being any distinction of boundaries. Carlostadt is a place of some note, but Zagrab (already mentioned) is the capital of Croatia. All the sovereignty exercised over them by the Austrians seems to consist in the military arrangements for bringing them occasionally into the field. A viceroy presides over Croatia, jointly with Sclavonia, and

HUNGARIAN DALMATIA. This lies in the upper part of the Adriatic and consists of five districts, in which the most remarkable places are the two following: Segna, which is a royal free town, fortified by nature and art, and situated near the sea, in a bleak, mountainous and barren soil. The bishop of this place is a suffragan to the bishop of Spalatro. Here are twelve churches, and two convents. The governor resides in the old palace, called the Royal Castle. 2. Orbatz, a frontier fortification on the river Gatzka. That part of the fortress where the governor and the greatest part of the garrison reside, is surrounded with a wall and some towers; but the rest of the buildings, which are mean, are erected on piles in the water; so that one neighbour cannot visit another without a boat.



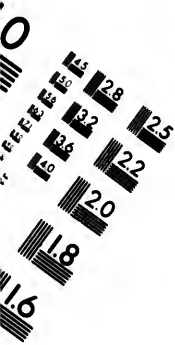


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Near Segna dwell the Uscocs, a people, who, being galled by oppression, escaped out of Dalmatia, from whence they obtained the name of Uscocs, from the word Scoco, which signifies a *deserter*. They are also called springers, or leapers, from the agility with which they leap, rather than walk, along this rugged and mountainous country. Some of them live in scattered houses, and others in large villages. They are a rough, savage people, large-bodied, courageous, and given to rapine; but their visible employment is grazing. They use the Walachian language, and in their religious sentiments and mode of worship approach nearest to the Greek church; but some of them are Roman catholics.

A part of Walachia belongs also to the emperor as well as to the Turks. It lies to the east of Transylvania, and its principal towns are Tregohitz, Bucharest, and Severin.

POLAND, INCLUDING LITHUANIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Degrees.
 Length 700 } between { 16 and 34 east longitude.
 Breadth 680 } between { 46 and 57 north latitude.
 Containing 160,800 square miles, with 55 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] BEFORE the late extraordinary partition of the country, the kingdom of Poland, with the grand duchy of Lithuania annexed (anciently called Sarmatia), was bounded on the North by Livonia, Muscovy, and the Baltic sea; on the East by Muscovy; on the South by Hungary, Turkey, and Little Tartary; on the West by Germany; and had the form of its government been perfect as its situation was compact, it might have been one of the most powerful kingdoms in the universe. Its grand divisions were,

		Miles.	Miles.	CHIEF CITIES.
POLAND.				
Protestants.	Courland, subject to Russia.	174	80	Mittaw
	Lithuania.	333	380	Wilna
	Podolia.	360	120	Karlinleck
	Volhinia, & Moldavia.	305	140	Lucko
	Great Poland.	208	280	Gnesna
	Red Russia.	232	185	Lemburg
	Little Poland.	230	140	Cracow
Papists.	Polesia.	186	97	Breslici
	Maloya.	194	90	WARSAW { E. long. 41. 5. N. lat. 51. 45.
	Samogitia.	135	98	Rafiem
	Prussia Royal, or Prussia.	218	104	Elbing
	Polish Prussia.	131	42	Bielsk
	Danzic, Thorn, and Elbing, in Prussia Royal, are styled free cities, and were under the protection of Poland; but were seized by the late king of Prussia.			

NAME.] It is generally thought that Poland takes its name from Polu, or Pole, a Slavonian word signifying a country fit for hunting, for which none was formerly more proper, on account of its plains, woods, wild beasts, and game of every kind.

CLIMATE.] The air of Poland is such as may be expected from so extensive but level a climate. In the northern parts, it is cold, but healthy. The Carpathian mountains, which separate Poland from Hungary, are covered with everlasting snow, which has been known to fall in the midst of summer. Upon the whole, however, the climate of Poland is temperate, and far from being so unsettled, either in winter or summer, as might be supposed from so northerly a situation; but the air is rather insalubrious on account of the numerous woods and morasses.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND WATERS.] Poland is in general a level country, and the soil is fertile in corn, as appears from the vast quantities that are sent from thence down the Vistula to Dantzic, and which are bought up by the Dutch, and other nations. The pastures of Poland, especially in Podolia, are extremely rich. Here are mines of silver, copper, iron, salt, and coals; Lithuania abounds in iron, ochre, black agate, several species of copper and iron pyrites, and red and grey granite; false precious stones, and marine petrefactions. The interior parts of Poland contain forests, which furnish timber in such great quantities, that it is employed in house-building, instead of bricks, stones, and tiles. Various kinds of fruits and herbs, and some grapes, are produced in Poland, and are excellent when they meet with culture; but their wine seldom or never comes to perfection. Poland produces various kinds of clay fit for pipes and earthen ware. The water of many springs is distilled into salt. The virtues of a spring in the palatinate of Cracow, which increases and decreases with the moon, are said to be wonderful for the preservation of life; and it is reported, that the neighbouring inhabitants commonly live to 100, and some of them to 150 years of age. This spring is inflammable, and by applying a torch to it, it flames like the subtlest spirit of wine. The flame, however, dances on the surface, without heating the water; and if neglected to be extinguished, which it may easily be, it communicates itself, by subterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees in a neighbouring wood, which it consumes; and about thirty-five years ago the flames are said to have lasted for three years before they could be entirely extinguished.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers of Poland are, the Vistula or Weyfel, the Neiper, Neiper or Boristhenes, the Bog, and the Dwina.

LAKES.] The chief of the few lakes contained in Poland is Gopto, in the palatinate of Byzesty; and Birals, or the White Lake, which is said to dye those who wash in it of a swarthy complexion.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] The vegetable productions of Poland have been already mentioned under the article of SOIL, though some are peculiar to itself, particularly a kind of manna (if it can be called a vegetable) which in May and June the inhabitants sweep into sieves with the dew, and it serves for food, dressed in various ways. A great quantity of yellow amber is frequently dug up in Lithuania, in pieces as large as a man's fist, supposed to be the production of a resinous pine.

The forests of Warsovia or Masovia contain great numbers of uribuffaloes, whose flesh the Poles powder, and esteem it an excellent food. Horses, wolves, boars, the glutton, lynx, elks, and deer, all of which wild, are common in the Polish forests; and there is a species of wild horses and asses, and wild oxen, that the nobility of the Ukraine,

as well as natives, are fond of. A kind of wolf, resembling a hart, with spots on his belly and legs, is found here; and affords the best furs in the country; but the elk, which is common in Poland; as well as in some other northern countries, is a very extraordinary animal. The flesh of the Polish elk forms the most delicious part of their greatest feasts. His body is of the deer make, but much thicker and longer; the legs high; the feet broad; like a wild goat's. Naturalists have observed, that upon dissecting an elk, there was found in his head some large flies, with his brain almost eaten away; and it is an observation sufficiently attested, that in the large woods and wildernesses of the North, this poor animal is attacked; towards the winter chiefly, by a larger sort of flies, that, through its ears, attempt to take up their winter quarters in its head. This persecution is thought to affect the elk with the falling sickness, by which means it is frequently taken, more easily than it would be otherwise.

Poland produces a creature called bohac; it resembles a guinea-pig, but seems to be of the beaver kind. They are noted for digging holes in the ground, which they enter in October, and do not come out, except occasionally for food, till April: they have separate apartments for their provisions, lodgings, and their dead; they live together by ten or twelve in a herd. We do not perceive that Poland contains any species of birds peculiar to itself; only we are told that the quails there have green legs, and their flesh is reckoned to be unwholesome. Lithuania abounds in birds; among those of prey are the eagle and vulture. The *semis*, or little species of mink, is frequently found in these parts: it is remarkable for the wondrous structure of its pendent nest, formed in the shape of a long purse, with amazing art.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } Some authors have supposed Poland and Lithuania to contain 14,000,000 of inhabitants; and when we consider that the Poles have no colonies, and sometimes have enjoyed peace for many years together, and that no fewer than 2,000,000 of Jews are said to inhabit there, perhaps this calculation has not been exaggerated. But since the partition and dismemberment of the kingdom, the number is only 9,000,000, of which 600,000 are Jews. The provinces taken by Russia are the largest; by Austria the most populous; and by Prussia the most commercial. The Russian contain 7,500,000; the Austrian 2,500,000; and the Prussian about 800,000; amounting to about 5,000,000 of souls separated from their ancient kingdom.

The Poles, in their persons, make a noble appearance; their complexion is fair, and their shapes are well proportioned. They are brave, honest, and hospitable; and their women sprightly, yet modest, and submissive to their husbands. Their mode of salute is to incline the heads, and to strike their breasts with one of their hands; while they stretch the other towards the ground; but when a common person meets a superior, he bows his head near to the earth, and with his head touches the leg near to the heel of the person to whom he pays obedience. Their diversions are warlike and manly: vaulting, dancing, and riding the great horse, hunting, baiting, bull and bear-baiting. They usually travel on horseback; a Polish gentleman will not travel a horse without his horse; and they are so hardy, that they will sleep upon the ground, without any bed or covering, in frost and snow. The Poles never live above stairs, and their apartments are not united: the kitchen is on one side, the stable on another, the dwelling-house on the third; and the gate in the front. They content themselves with a

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And beds, and if any lodge at their houses, they must carry their bedding with them. When they set down to dinner or supper, they have their trumpets and other music playing, and a number of gentlemen to wait on them at table, all serving with the most profound respect; for the nobles who are poor, frequently find themselves under the necessity of serving those that are rich; but their patron usually treats them with civility, and permits the eldest to eat with him at his table, with his cap on; and every one of them has his peasant boy to wait on him, maintained by the master of the family. At an entertainment, the Poles lay neither knives, forks, nor spoons, but every guest brings them with him; and they no sooner sit down to table, than all the doors are shut, and not opened till the company return home. It is usual for a nobleman to give his servant part of his meat, which he eats as he stands behind him, and to let him drink out of the same cup with himself; but this is the less extraordinary, if it be considered that these servants are esteemed his equals. Bumpers are much in fashion, both here and in Russia; nor will they easily excuse any person from pledging them. It would exceed the bounds of this work to describe the grandeur and equipages of the Polish nobility; and the reader may figure to himself an idea of all that is fastidious, ceremonious, expensive, and showy in life, to have any conception of their way of living. They carry the pomp of their attendance, when they appear abroad, even to ridicule; for it is not unusual to see the lady of a Polish grandee, besides a coach and six, with a great number of servants, attended by an old gentleman usher, an old gentlewoman for her gouvernante, and a dwarf of each sex to hold up her train; and if it be night, her coach is surrounded by a great number of flambeaux.

The Poles are divided into nobles, clergy, citizens or burghers, and peasants; the peasants are divided into two sorts; those of the crown, and those belonging to individuals. Though Poland has its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility are naturally on a level, except the difference that arises from the public posts they enjoy. Hence all who are of noble birth call one another *brothers*. They do not value titles of honour, but think a *gentleman of Poland* is the highest appellation they can enjoy. They have many considerable privileges; and, indeed, the boasted Polish liberty is properly limited to them alone, partly by the indulgence of former kings, but more generally from ancient custom and prescription. Under their ancient constitution, before the last partition of the country, they had a power of life and death over their tenants and vassals, paid no taxes, were subject to none but the king; might choose whom they would for their king; and none but they, and the burghers of some particular towns, could purchase lands. In short, they were almost entirely independent, enjoying many other privileges entirely incompatible with a well-regulated state; but if they engage in trade, they forfeit their nobility. These great privileges make the Polish gentry powerful; many of them have large territories, with a despotic power over their tenants, whom they call their subjects, and transfer or assign over with the lands, cattle, and furniture. Until Casimir the Great, the lord could put his peasant to death with impunity, and when the latter had no children, considered himself as the heir, and seized all his effects. In 1347, Casimir prescribed a fine for the murder of a peasant; and enacted, that, in case of his decease without issue, his next heir should inherit. But these and other regulations have proved ineffectual against the power and tyranny of their nobles, and have been either abrogated or eluded. Some of

them have estates from five to thirty leagues in extent, and are also hereditary sovereigns of cities, with which the king has no concern. One of their nobles possesses above 4000 towns and villages. Some of them can raise 8 or 10,000 men. The house of a nobleman is a secure asylum for persons who have committed any crime; for none must presume to take them from thence by force. They have their horse and foot guards, which are upon duty day and night before their palaces and in their ante-chambers, and march before them when they go abroad. They make an extraordinary figure when they come to the diet, some of them having 5000 guards and attendants; and their debates in the senate are often determined by the sword. When great men have suits at law, the diet or other tribunals decide them; yet the execution of the sentence must be left to the longest sword; for the justice of the kingdom is commonly too weak for the grandees. Sometimes they raise 6000 men of a side, plunder and burn one another's cities, and besiege castles and forts; for they think it below them to submit to the sentence of judges, without a field-battle. As to the peasants, they are born slaves, and have no idea of liberty. If one lord kills the peasant of another, he is not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation, by another peasant equal in value. A nobleman who is desirous of cultivating a piece of land, builds a little wooden house, in which he settles a peasant and his family, giving him a cow, two horses, a certain number of geese, hens, &c. and as much corn as is sufficient to maintain him the first year, and to improve for his own future subsistence and the advantage of his lord.

The clergy have many immunities; they are all free men, and, in some instances, have their own courts of justice, in which the canon law is practised. A bishop is entitled to all the privileges of a senator; was usually appointed by the king, and confirmed by the pope; but afterwards nominated by the king out of three candidates chosen by the permanent council. The archbishop of Gnesna is primate, the first senator in rank, and viceroy during an interregnum. The burghers still enjoy some freedom and privileges; they chuse their own burgomaster and council, regulate their interior police, and have their own criminal courts of justice, and when defendant against a noble, he must be cited before the magistrate of his own town, from whence an appeal lies only to the king in his assessorial tribunal. Without this exemption from the jurisdiction of the nobles, they would long since have been reduced to a state of vassalage.

The peasants of the crown, if oppressed, may lodge a complaint in the royal court of justice, which is some check to injustice; but peasants belonging to individuals are at the absolute disposal of their master, and all their acquisitions serve only to enrich him. They are indispensably obliged to cultivate the earth; they are incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might procure them freedom, without the permission of their lords; and they are exposed to the dismal, and frequently fatal effects of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity of their tyrannical masters, who oppress them with impunity; and having the power of life and property in their hands, too often abuse it in the most gross and wanton manner, their wives and daughters being exposed to the most brutal treatment. One blessing, however, attends the wretched situation of the Polish peasants, which is their insensibility. Born slaves, and accustomed from their infancy to hardships and severe labour, the generality of them scarcely entertain an idea of better circumstances and more liberty. They regard their masters as a superior order of beings,

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and hardly ever repine at their severe lot. Cheerful and contented with their condition, they are ready upon every occasion to sacrifice themselves and their families for their master, especially if the latter takes care to feed them well. Most of them seem to think that a man can never be very wretched while he has any thing to eat. There are some, styled German peasants, whose ancestors were indulged, on settling in Poland, in the use of the German laws, who enjoy several privileges not possessed by the generality of the Polish peasants; their villages are better built, they possess more cattle, pay their quit rents better, and are cleaner and neater in their persons. We have been the more circumstantial in describing the manners and present state of the Poles, as they bear a near resemblance, in many particulars, to those of Europe in general during the feudal ages; but their tyranny over their tenants and vassals seems to be carried to a much greater height. Lately, indeed, a few nobles of enlightened understandings have ventured to give liberty to their vassals. The first who granted this freedom was Zamoiski, formerly great chancellor, who, in 1760, enfranchised six villages in the palatinate of Masovia, and afterwards on all his estates. The event has shown the project to be no less judicious than humane; friendly to the nobles' own interests as well as the happiness of the peasants; for it appears, that, in the districts in which the new arrangement has been introduced, the population of the villages is considerably increased, and the revenues of their estates augmented in a triple proportion. Prince Stanislaus, nephew of the king of Poland, likewise enfranchised four villages near Warsaw, and not only emancipated his peasants from slavery, but condescended to direct their affairs. So that better times in that distressed country may be expected.

Torture was abolished in Poland in 1770, by an edict of the diet, under the influence of the king. Atrocious crimes, such as murder, &c. are punished by beheading or hanging; lesser delinquencies by whipping, imprisonment, and hard labour; the nobles never suffer any corporal punishment, but are liable only to imprisonment and death.

The huts in this country are long stables built with boards, and covered with straw, without furniture or windows; there are chambers at one end; but none can lodge there, because of flies and other vermin; so that strangers generally choose rather to lodge among the horses. Travellers are obliged to carry provision with them; and when foreigners want a supply, they apply to the lord of the village, who forthwith provides them with necessaries.

[DRESS.] The dress of the Poles is rather singular. They shave their heads, leaving only a circle of hair upon the crown, and men of all ranks generally wear large whiskers. They wear a vest which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it lined with fur, and bordered with a sash, but the sleeves fit as close to their arms as a waistcoat. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their stockings. They wear a fur cap or bonnet; their shirts are without collar or wristbands, and they wear neither stock nor neckcloth. Instead of shoes, they wear Turkey leather boots, with thin soles, and deep iron heels bent like a half moon. They carry a pole-ax, and a scabbard, or cutlafs, by their sides. When they appear on horseback, they wear over all a short cloak, which is commonly covered with furs both within and without. The people of the best quality wear sables, and others the skins of the tigers, leopards, &c. Some of them have very costly clothes, all as rich as possible, and which descend from father to son. Were it not for our own partiality to short dresses, we

must acknowledge that of the Poles to be picturesque and majestic. Charles II. of England, thought of introducing the Polish dress into his court, and after his restoration wore it for two years, chiefly for the encouragement of the English broad cloth; but discontinued it through his connections with the French.

The habit of the women very much resembles that of the men; a simple Polonaise, or long robe edged with fur; but some people of fashion, of both sexes, affect the French or English modes. As to the peasants, in winter they wear a sheep-skin with the wool inwards, and in summer a thick coarse cloth; but as to linen, they wear none. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the thicker parts to guard the sole of their feet. The women have a watchful eye over their daughters, and in the district of Samogitia particularly, make them wear little bells before and behind, to give notice where they are, and what they are doing.

[RELI-GION.] The number of protestants, consisting of Lutherans and Calvinists, in the republic of Poland, is very considerable; and when these are joined to the Greek church, the whole are called DISSENTERS. At the same time, the Polish nobility and the bulk of the nation are tenacious of the Roman catholic religion. The treaty of Oliva, concluded in 1660, tolerated the dissenters, and was guaranteed by the principal powers in Europe; but was so disregarded by the Poles, that in the year 1722, they made a public massacre of the protestants at Thorn. Numerous provisions were made for the protection of the protestants, who were persecuted, when Jews, Turks, and infidels of every kind, have been tolerated and encouraged. The monasteries in Poland are by some writers said to be 576, and the nunneries 117, besides 346 seminaries or colleges, and 31 abbeys. The clergy are possessed of a very large proportion of the lands and revenues of the kingdom; but in general, are illiterate bigots, and the monks are some of the most profligate of mankind, without apprehending any disgrace to their order, or dreading the censure of their superiors, who require only indulgence. The popish clergy have had great influence in Poland; at different periods, notwithstanding the treaties and capitulations which have been made in favour of the protestants and the members of the Greek church. Indeed, it has been chiefly owing to the influence and conduct of the popish clergy, that the peasants in Poland have been reduced to such a state of wretched slavery.

The principles of Socinianism made a very early and considerable progress in Poland. A translation of the Bible into the Polish language was published in 1572; and two years after, under the direction of the same persons, the catechism, or confession, of the Unitarians, was published at Cracow. The abilities and writings of Socinus greatly contributed to the extensive propagation of his opinions; but though the Socinians in Poland have been very numerous, they have at different times been greatly persecuted. However, it was lately resolved between the republic and partitioning powers, that all dissenters should henceforth enjoy the free exercise of their religion, though to continue excluded from the diet, the senate, and the permanent council. They are to have churches, but without bells; also schools and seminaries of their own; they are capable of sitting in the inferior courts of justice, and their commissions are admitted as assessors in the tribunal to receive appeals in religion.

ARCHBISHOPS AND BISHOPS. Poland contains two archbishoprics; Gnesna and Lubera. The archbishop of Gnesna, is

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being primate, and during an inter-reign prince regent of the kingdom, is always a cardinal. The other bishops, particularly Cracow, enjoy great privileges and immunities.

(LANGUAGE.) The Polish language is a dialect of Sclavonic, and is both harsh and unharmonious, on account of the vast number of consonants it employs. The Lithuanians and Livonians have a language full of corrupted Latin words; but the Russian and German tongues are understood in the provinces bordering on those countries.

(LEARNING AND CRANED MAN.) Though Copernicus, the great restorer of the true astronomical system, Voronius, and some other learned men, were natives of Poland, yet many circumstances in this country are far from being favourable to learning. Latin is spoken, though incorrectly, by the common people in some provinces. But the contempt which the nobility, who place their chief importance in the privileges of their rank, have ever shown for learning; the servitude of the lower people, and the universal superstition among all ranks of them, have wonderfully retarded, and, notwithstanding the liberal efforts of his late majesty, still continue to retard the progress of letters in this kingdom. However, of late, a taste for science has spread itself among the nobles, and begins to be regarded as an accomplishment.

(UNIVERSITIES.) The universities of Poland are those of Cracow, Wina, and Posna or Posen. The first consists of eleven colleges, and has the superintendency of fourteen grammar-schools dispersed through the city. The number of students, in 1778, amounted to 600. Wina was under the superintendency of the Jesuits; but since their suppression, the king has established a committee of education, who appoint professors, and direct their salaries and studies: that of Posna was rather a Jesuit's college than an university.

(ANTHROPIQUES AND CURIOSITIES.) The frequent incursions of the Tartars, and other barbarous nations, into Poland; probably forced the women sometimes to leave their children exposed in the woods, where we must suppose they were nursed by bears and other wild beasts; otherwise it is difficult to account for their subsistence. It is certain that such beings have been found in the woods both of Poland and Germany, divested of almost all the properties of humanity but the form. When taken, they generally went on all fours; but it is said that some of them have, by proper management, attained to the use of speech.

The salt mines of Poland consist of wonderful caverns, several hundred yards deep, at the bottom of which are many intricate windings and labyrinthical. Out of these are dug four different kinds of salts; one extremely hard, like crystal; another softer, but clearer; a third white, but brittle; these are all brackish, but the fourth is somewhat fresher. These four kinds are dug in different mines, near the city of Cracow; on one side of them is a stream of salt water, and on the other, one of fresh. The revenue arising from these, and other salt mines, is very considerable, and formed part of the royal revenue, before seized by Austria: the annual average profit of those of Wiolitzka, eight miles from Cracow, was about 98,000l. sterling. Out of some mines at Itza, about 70 miles north-east of Cracow, are dug several kinds of earth, which are excellently adapted to the potter's use, and supply all Poland with earthen ware. Under the mountains adjoining to Kiow, in the forests of Podolia, are several grottos, where a great number of human bodies are preserved, though buried a vast number of years since, being neither so hard nor so black as the Egyptian mummies. Among them are two princes, in the habits they used to wear. It is thought

that this preserving quality is owing to the nature of the soil, which is dry and sandy. Poland can boast of few antiquities, as old Sarmatia was never perfectly known to the Romans themselves. Its artificial rarities are but few, the chief being the gold, silver, and enamelled vessels presented by the kings and prelates of Poland, and preserved in the cathedral of Gnesna.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Warsaw lies on the Vistula, and almost in the centre of Poland. It was the royal residence, and contains many magnificent palaces and other buildings, besides churches and convents. It is said to contain near 70,000 inhabitants; but a great number are foreigners. The streets are spacious but unweaved, and the greatest part of the houses, particularly in the suburbs, are mean wooden hovels. The city exhibits a strong contrast of wealth and poverty, as doth every part of this unhappy country has little or no commerce. The same may be said of Cracow, which is the capital (though that honour is disputed by Warsaw); for it is told, that notwithstanding it lies in the neighbourhood of the rich salt-mines, and is said to contain fifty churches and convents, its commerce is inconsiderable. The city stands in an extensive plain watered by the Vistula, and with the suburbs occupies a vast space of ground; but both together scarcely contain 16,000 souls. It is surrounded with high brick walls, strengthened with round and square towers in the ancient style of fortification, and is garrisoned with 600 Russians. Gracno, though not the capital, is the principal town in Lithuania, but a large and straggling place, containing ruined palaces, falling houses, and wretched hovels, with about 7000 inhabitants; 1000 of whom are Jews, and 2000 employed in new manufactures of cloths, camlets, linen, cotton, silk, stuffs, &c. established there by the king in 1776. He likewise established in this place an academy of physic for Lithuania, in which ten students are instructed for physic, and twenty for surgery, who were all taught and maintained at his own expense.

Dantzic is the capital of Polish Prussia, and is famous in history on many accounts, particularly for being formerly at the head of the Hanseatic association, commonly called the Hanse-towns. It is situated on the Vistula, near five miles from the Baltic, and is a large, beautiful, populous city: its houses generally are five stories high; and many of its streets are planted with chestnut-trees. It has a fine harbour, and is still a most eminent commercial city, although it seems to be somewhat past its meridian glory, which was probably about the time that the president De Thou wrote his much esteemed *Historia sui Temporis*, in which, under the year 1607, he so highly celebrates its commerce and grandeur. It is a republic, claiming a small adjacent territory about forty miles round it, which were under the protection of the king and the republic of Poland. Its magistracy, and the majority of its inhabitants, are Lutherans; although the Romanists and Calvinists be equally tolerated in it. It is rich, and has 26 parishes, with many convents and hospitals. The inhabitants have been computed to amount to 200,000; but Dr. Busching tells us, that, in the year 1752, there died but 1846 persons. Its own shipping is numerous; but the foreign ships constantly resorting to it are more so, of which 1014 arrived there in the year 1752; in which year also 1288 Polish vessels came down the Vistula, chiefly laden with corn, for its matchless granaries; whence that grain is distributed to many foreign nations; besides which, Dantzic exports great quantities of naval stores, and vast variety of other articles. Dr. Busching affirms, that it appears from ancient re-

ords, as early as the year 997; that Dantzic was a large commercial city, and not a village or inconsiderable town, as some pretend.

The inhabitants of Dantzic have often changed their masters, and have sometimes been under the protection of the English and Dutch, but generally have shown a great predilection for the kingdom and republic of Poland, as being less likely to rival them in their trade, or abridge them of their immunities, which extend even to the privilege of coining money. Though strongly fortified, and possessed of 150 large brass cannon, it could not, through its situation, stand a regular siege, being surrounded with eminences. In 1734, the inhabitants discovered a remarkable attachment and fidelity towards Stanislaus, king of Poland, not only when his enemies, the Russians, were at their gates, but even in possession of the city. The reason why Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, have enjoyed privileges, both civil and religious, very different from those of the rest of Poland, is because, not being able to endure the tyranny of the Teutonic knights, they put themselves under the protection of Poland, reserving to themselves large and ample privileges. This city, as well as that of Thorn, were exempted by the king of Prussia (Frederic II.) from those claims which he made on the neighbouring countries; notwithstanding which, he soon after thought proper to seize on the territories belonging to Dantzic, under pretence of their having been formerly part of Polish Prussia. He then proceeded to possess himself of the port-duties belonging to that city, and erected a custom-house in the harbour, where he laid arbitrary and insupportable duties upon goods exported or imported. To complete the system of oppression, custom-houses were erected at the very gates of Dantzic, so that no person could go in or out of the town without being searched in the strictest manner. Such is the treatment which the city of Dantzic received from the king of Prussia, though few cities have ever existed, which have been comprehended in so many general and particular treaties, and whose rights and liberties have been so frequently secured, and guaranteed by so many great powers, and by such a long and regular succession of public acts, as that of Dantzic has been. In the year 1784, it was blockaded by his troops, on various pretences: by the interposition of the empress of Russia, and of the king of Poland, they were withdrawn, and a negotiation carried on by deputies at Warsaw; which was concluded on the 7th of September; by which, as now acceded to by the citizens, the trade of the city was to be restored to its former stability. Notwithstanding this, however, in the year 1793, the Prussian troops took possession of Dantzic; the burgo-master and council of the city, having, on the 2d of April, assembled at the town-house, at the request of the late king of Prussia, by public declaration, ordered every person to follow his trade and business as usual, and remain peaceably in his house, when the Prussians should enter that city. The city of Thorn was also treated by the king of Prussia in the same unjust and oppressive manner with that of Dantzic, and is now added to his dominions.

[COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief exports of Poland are all species of grain, hemp, flax, cattle, masts, planks, pitch and tar, honey, wax, pot-ash and tallow: its imports are foreign wines, cloths, stuffs, manufactured silks and cotton, fine linen, hardware, tin, copper, silver, and gold, glass ware, furs, &c. Some linen and woollen cloths, silks, stuffs, camlets, lace, and hardwares, are manufactured in the interior parts of Poland and Lithuania; but commerce is chiefly confined to the city of Dantzic, and the other towns on the Vistula and the Baltic.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Whole volumes have been

differs upon the old constitution of Poland. It differed little from democracy; hence Poland has been called a kingdom and commonwealth. The king was the head of the republic, and was elected by the nobility and the clergy in the plains of Warsaw. They elected him on horseback; and in case there should be a refractory minority, the majority had no control over them, but to cut them in pieces with their sabres; but if the minority were sufficiently strong, a civil war ensued. Immediately after his election, he signed the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engaged that the crown should be elective—that his successor should be appointed during his life—that the diets should be assembled every two years—that every noble or gentleman in the realm should have a vote in the diet of election, and that in case the king should infringe the laws and privileges of the nation, his subjects should be absolved from their allegiance:—In fact, the king was no more than president of the senate, which used to be composed of the primare, the archbishop of Leniburg, fifteen bishops, and 130 laymen, consisting of the great officers of state, the palatines, and castellans. The palatines are the governors of the provinces, who hold their offices for life.—The castellans' office in time of peace is almost nominal; but when the military or feudal services are required, they are the lieutenants of the palatines, and command the troops of their several districts.

The diets of Poland were ordinary and extraordinary; the former met once in two, and sometimes three years; the latter was summoned by the king, upon critical emergencies, and continued no longer than a fortnight; but one dissenting voice rendered all their deliberations ineffectual. Previous to a general diet, either ordinary or extraordinary, which could sit but six weeks, there were dietines, or provincial diets, held in different districts. The king, with the advice of the permanent council, sent them letters, containing the heads of the business that was to be treated of in the general diet. The gentry of each palatinate might sit in the dietine, and choose nuncios or deputies, to carry their resolutions to the grand diet. The great diet consisted of the king, senators, and deputies from provinces and towns, viz. 178 for Poland and Lithuania, and 70 for Prussia: it met twice at Warsaw, and once at Grodno, by turns, for the conveniency of the Lithuanians, who made it one of the articles of their union with Poland; but since the present reign, they have been always summoned to Warsaw.

Such are the outlines of this motley constitution, which was never modelled with almost every new king, according to the *pacta conventa* he was obliged to sign. However, in this imperfect sketch, we can discern the great outlines of a noble and free government. The precautions taken to limit the king's power, and yet invest him with an ample prerogative, were worthy a wise people. The institution of the diet and dietines are favourable to public liberty, as are many other provisions in the republic; but it laboured, even in its best state, under incurable disorders. The exercise of the *veto*, or the tribunitian negative, that is vested in every deputy or nuncio, exclusive of the king and senate, at a diet, must always be destructive of order and government. It is founded upon Gothic principles, and that unlimited jurisdiction which the great lords in former ages used to enjoy all over Europe. According to Mr. Coxe, the privilege in question is not to be found in any period of the Polish history antecedent to the reign of John Casimir. It was under his administration that, in the year 1652, when the diet of Warsaw was debating upon transactions of the utmost importance, which required a speedy determination, that Siciński, nuncio of Uptie

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Lithuania, cried out, "I stop the proceedings." Having uttered these words, he quitted the assembly, and repairing immediately to the chancellor, protested, that as many acts had been proposed and carried contrary to the constitution of the republic, if the diet continued to sit, he should consider it as an infringement of the laws. The members were thunderstruck at a protest of this nature; hitherto unknown. Warm debates took place about the propriety of continuing or dissolving the diet; at length, the venal and discontented faction, who supported the protest, obtained the majority; and the assembly broke up in great confusion. The want of subordination in the executive part of the constitution, and the rendering noblemen independent and unaccountable for their conduct, is a blemish impracticable to remove. After all, when we examine the best accounts of the constitution of Poland, and compare them with the ancient history of Great Britain and other European kingdoms, we may perceive a wonderful similarity between what these were formerly, and what Poland is at present. This naturally leads us to infer, that the government of Poland cannot be otherwise improved than by the introduction of arts, manufactures, and commerce, which would render the common people independent of the nobility, and prevent the latter from having it in their power to annoy their sovereign, and to maintain those unequal privileges which are so hurtful to the community.

Indeed the partitioning powers, beside dismembering the best provinces of Poland, proceeded to change and fix the constitution and government, under pretence of amending it; confirming all its defects, and endeavouring to perpetuate the principles of anarchy and confusion. The executive power, which was entrusted to the king and senate, was vested in the permanent council, composed of the king, senate, and the equestrian order. The king as president, the primate and three bishops, nine lay senators, four from the ministry of the republic, the marshal with 17 counsellors of the equestrian order, in all 36. Of the 18 senators, six from each province of Great Poland, Little Poland, and Lithuania. They insisted upon four cardinal laws to be ratified, which was at last obtained. By the *first*, "that the crown of Poland shall be for ever elective, and all order of succession proscribed;" thus the exclusion of a king's son and grandson removed the prospect of an hereditary sovereignty, and entailed upon the kingdom all the evils inseparable from an elective monarchy. By the *second*, "that foreign candidates to the throne shall be excluded, and no person can be chosen king of Poland, excepting a native-Pole of noble origin, and possessing land in the kingdom;" the house of Saxony, and all foreign princes who might be likely to give weight to Poland by their hereditary dominions, and restore its provinces and liberties, were set aside. By the *third*, "the government of Poland shall be for ever free, independent, and of a republican form;" the *liberum veto*, and all the exorbitant privileges of the equestrian order, were confirmed in their utmost latitude. And by the *fourth*, "a permanent council shall be established, in which the executive power shall be vested; and in this council the equestrian order, hitherto excluded from the administration of affairs in the interval of diets, shall be admitted;" so that the prerogatives of the crown were still farther diminished; but this change of the constitution was intended by the partitioning powers, to serve their own purposes, and give a large scope to influence and faction over that part of the kingdom, they had not seized.

REVENUES. J. The income of the kings of Poland generally amounted to 140,000l. sterling. The public revenues arose chiefly from the crown.

lands, the salt mines in the palatinate of Cracow, now in Austrian Poland, which alone amounted to nearly 100,000*l.* sterling; ancient tolls and customs, particularly those of Elbing and Dantzic, the rents of Marienburg, Dirschau, and Rogenhus, and of the government of Cracow and district of Niepollomiez.

Western Prussia was the greatest loss to Poland, as, by the dismemberment of that province, the navigation of the Vistula depends entirely upon the king of Prussia. This was a fatal blow to the trade of Poland; for Prussia laid such heavy duties on the merchandise passing to Dantzic, as greatly to diminish the trade of that town, and to transfer a considerable part of it to Memel and Koningberg.

£. sterl.

By the dismemberment in 1772, Poland lost near half her annual income. To supply this deficiency, it became necessary to new-model and increase the taxes.	
In 1775, all the imposts amounted to	323,012 0 0
The net revenue of the king was	194,500 0 0
Out of which he only paid his household expenses and menial servants	
and his royal demesnes, starosties, and 74,074 <i>l.</i> out of the treasury.	
Whole revenue	443,938 0 0
Deduct the king's revenue for privy purse	194,500 0 0
	<hr/>
For army, state officers, and all other charges	249,438 0 0

[MILITARY STRENGTH.] The innate pride of the Polish nobility is such, that they always appear in the field on horseback; and it is said that Poland can raise with ease 100,000, and Lithuania 70,000 cavalry; but it must be understood that servants are included. As to their infantry, they are generally hired from Germany, but are soon dismissed, because they must be maintained by extraordinary taxes, of which the Polish grandees are by no means fond. As to the ordinary army of the Poles, it consisted, in 1778, of 12,310 men in Poland, and 7,405 in Lithuania, cantoned into crown-lands. The *pospolite* consists of all the nobility of the kingdom and their followers, excepting the chancellor and the starosts of frontier places; and they might be called by the king into the field upon extraordinary occasions; but he could not keep them above six weeks in arms, neither were they obliged to march above three leagues out of the kingdom.

The Polish hussars are the finest and most showy body of cavalry in Europe; next to them are the pancers; and both those bodies wear defensive armour of coats of mail and iron caps. The rest of their cavalry are armed with muskets and heavy scymetars. After all that has been said, the Polish cavalry are extremely inefficient in the field; for though the men are brave, and their horses excellent, they are strangers to all discipline. It is certain, notwithstanding, that the Poles may be rendered excellent troops by discipline, and that, on various occasions, particularly under John Sobieski, they made as great a figure in arms as any people in Europe, and proved the bulwark of Christendom against the infidels. It did not suit the Saxon princes who succeeded that hero, to encourage a martial spirit in the Poles, whom they perpetually overawed with their electoral troops; nor indeed to introduce any reformation among them, either civil or military; the effects of which conduct have been since severely felt in that country.

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ORDERS.] The "order of the *White Eagle*" was first instituted by *Mladislaus*, in the year 1325; but revived by *Augustus I.* in the year 1705, to attach to him some of the Polish nobles who, he feared, were inclined to *Stanislaus*, his competitor: it was conferred also on the czar *Peter the Great*, of *Russia*. The present king instituted the "the order of *St. Stanislaus*," soon after his election to the crown in 1765. The badge is a gold cross enamelled red, and on the centre of it is a medallion with the image of *St. Stanislaus*, enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pendent to a red riband edged with white. The star of the order is silver, and in the centre is a cypher of *S. A. R.* (*Stanislaus Augustus Rex*) encircled with the motto "*Premiando incitat.*"

HISTORY.] Poland, of old, was possessed by the *Vandals*, who were afterwards partly expelled by the *Russ* and *Tartars*. It was divided into many small states or principalities, each almost independent of another, though they generally had some prince who was paramount over the rest. In the year 700, the people, through the oppression of their petty chiefs, gave the supreme command, under the title of duke, to *Cracus*, the founder of the city of *Cracow*. His posterity failing, in the year 830, a peasant, one *Piaslus*, was elected to the ducal dignity. He lived to the age of 120 years, and his reign was so long and auspicious, that every native Pole who has since been elected king, is called a *Piasl*. From this period till the accession of *Micislaus II.* 964, we have no very certain records of the history of Poland. The title of duke was retained till the year 999, when *Boleslaus* assumed the title of king, and conquered *Moravia*, *Prussia*, and *Bohemia*, making them tributary to Poland. *Boleslaus II.* added *Red Russia* to Poland, by marrying the heirs of that duchy, anno 1019. *Jagello*, who, in 1384, mounted the throne, was grand duke of *Lithuania*, and a pagan; but on his being elected king of Poland, he not only became a Christian, but was at pains to bring over his subjects to that religion. He united his hereditary dominions to those of Poland; which gave such influence to his posterity over the hearts of the Poles, that the crown was preserved in his family until the male line became extinct in *Sigismund Augustus*, in 1572; who admitted the reformed, with the *Greeks* and all other sects, to a seat in the diet, and to all the honours and privileges before confined to the catholics. He gave such evident marks of favour to the protestant confession, that he was suspected of being inclined to change his religion. At this time two powerful competitors appeared for the crown of Poland. These were, *Henry* duke of *Anjou*, brother to *Charles IX.* king of *France*, and *Maximilian* of *Austria*. The French interest prevailed, by private bribes to the nobles, and a stipulation to pay an annual pension to the republic from the revenues of *France*; but *Henry* had not been four months on the throne of Poland, when his brother died, and he returned privately to *France*, which kingdom he governed by the name of *Henry III.* The party who had espoused *Maximilian's* interest, endeavoured once more to revive his pretensions; but the majority of the Poles being desirous to choose a prince who might reside among them, made choce of *Stephen Batori*, prince of *Transylvania*, who, in the beginning of his reign, meeting with some opposition from the Austrian faction, took the wisest method to establish himself on the throne, by marrying *Anne*, the sister of *Sigismund Augustus*, and of the royal house of the *Jagellous*. *Stephen* produced a great change in the military affairs of the Poles, by establishing a new militia composed of *Cossacs*, a rough and barbarous race of men, on whom he bestowed

the Ukraine, a frontier of his kingdom. Upon his death, in 1566, the Poles chose Sigismund, son of John, king of Sweden, by Catharine, sister of Sigismund II. for their king.

Sigismund was crowned king of Sweden after his father's death; but being expelled, as we have seen in the history of Sweden, by the Swedes, a long war ensued between them and the Poles, but terminated in favour of the latter. Sigismund being secured in the throne of Poland, aspired to that of Russia as well as Sweden; but after long wars, he was defeated in both views. He was afterwards engaged in a variety of unsuccessful wars with the Turks and Swedes. At last a truce was concluded under the mediation of France and England; but the Poles were forced to agree that the Swedes should keep Elbing, Memel, Braniburg, and Pillau, together with all they had taken in Livonia. In 1607 Sigismund died, and Uladislav, his son, succeeded. This prince was successful both against the Turks and the Russians, and obliged the Swedes to restore all the Polish dominions they had taken in Prussia. His reign, however, was unfortunate, by his being instigated, through the avarice of his great men, to encroach upon the privileges of the Cossacs in the Ukraine. As the war which followed was carried on against the Cossacs upon ambitious and perfidious principles, the Cossacs, naturally a brave people, became desperate; and on the succession of John II. brother to Uladislav, the Cossac general Schmelinski defeated the Poles in two great battles, and forced them to a dishonourable peace. It appears that, during the course of this war, the Polish nobility behaved as the worst of russians, and their conduct was highly condemned by John; while his nobility disapproved of the peace he had concluded with them. As the jealousy hereby occasioned continued, the Russians came to a rupture with the Poles; and being joined by many of the Cossacs, they, in 1654, took Smolensko. This was followed by the taking of Wilna, and other places; and they committed most horrid ravages in Lithuania. Next year Charles X. of Sweden, after over-running Great and Little Poland, entered into Polish Prussia, all the towns of which received him, except Dantzic. The resistance made by that city gave the Poles time to re-assemble; and their king, John Casimir, who had fled into Silesia, was joined by the Tartars as well as the Poles; so that the Swedes, who were dispersed through the country, were every where cut in pieces. The Lithuanians, at the same time, disowned the allegiance they had been forced to pay to Charles, who returned to Sweden with no more than a handful of his army. It was during this expedition, that the Dutch and English protected Dantzic, and the elector of Brandenburg, acquired the sovereignty of Ducal Prussia, which had submitted to Charles. Thus the latter lost Poland, of which he had made an almost complete conquest. The treaty of Oliva was begun after the Swedes had been driven out of Cracow and Thorn, by which Royal Prussia was restored to the Poles. They were, however, forced to quit all pretensions to Livonia, and to cede Smolensko, Kiow, and the duchy of Siveria, to the Russians.

During these transactions, the Polish nobility grew dissatisfied with the concessions their king had made to the Cossacs, many of whom had thrown off the Polish yoke; others taxed him with want of capacity; and some, with an intention to rule by a mercenary army of German. Casimir, who very possibly had no such intentions, and was fond of retirement and study, finding that cabals and factions increased every day, and that he himself might fall a sacrifice to the public discontent,

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abdicated his throne, and fled to the court of St. German in France, employing the remainder of his days in Latin poetical compositions, which are far from being despicable.

The most remote descendants of the ancient king ending in John III. found many foreign candidates presented themselves for the crown of Poland; but the Poles chose for their king a private gentleman, of little interest, and less capacity, viz. Michael Wiesznowski, because he was descended from a Polish king. His reign was disgraceful to Poland. Large bodies of the Cossaks had put themselves under the protection of the Turks, who conquered all the provinces of Podolia, and took Kamienock; all then thought impregnable. The greatest part of Poland was then ravaged, and the Poles were obliged to pay an annual tribute to the sultan. Notwithstanding those disgraceful events, the credit of the Polish arms was in some measure maintained by John Sobieski, the crown-general, a brave and active commander, who had given the Turks several defeats. Michael dying in 1673, Sobieski was chosen king; and in 1676, he was so successful against the infidels, that he forced them to remit the tribute they had imposed upon Poland; but they kept possession of Kamienock. In 1683, Sobieski, though he had not been well treated by the house of Austria, was so public-spirited as to enter into the league that was formed for the defence of Christendom against the infidels, and acquired immortal honour, by obliging the Turks to raise the siege of Vienna, and making a terrible slaughter of the enemy; for all which glorious services, and driving the Turks out of Hungary, he was ungratefully requited by the emperor Leopold.

Sobieski returning to Poland, continued the war against the Turks, but unfortunately quarrelled with the senate, who suspected that he wanted to make the crown hereditary in his family. He died, after a glorious reign, in 1696.

Poland fell into great distractions upon Sobieski's death. Many contentions were formed, but all parties seemed inclined to exclude the Sobieski family. In the mean while, Poland was insulted by the Tartars, and the crown in a manner put up to sale. The prince of Conti, of the blood royal of France, was the most liberal bidder; but while he thought the election almost sure, he was disappointed by the intrigues of the queen-dowager, in favour of her younger son, prince Alexander Sobieski, for which she was driven from Warsaw to Dantzic. Suddenly Augustus, elector of Saxony, started up as a candidate, and after a short election, being proclaimed by the bishop of Cujavia, he took possession of Cracow with a Saxon army, and actually was crowned in that city, 1697. The prince of Conti made several unsuccessful efforts to re-establish his interest, and pretended that he had been actually chosen; but he was afterwards obliged to return to France, and the other powers of Europe seemed to acquiesce in the election of Augustus. The nation in which he was driven from the throne, by Charles XII. of Sweden, procured the advancement of Stanislaus, and afterwards restored the czar, Peter the Great, has been already related in the history of Sweden. It was not till the year 1712 that Augustus was fully established on the throne, which he held upon precarious and disagreeable terms. The Poles were naturally attached to Stanislaus, and were continually forming conspiracies and plots against Augustus, who was obliged to maintain his authority by means of his Saxon guard and regiments. In 1725, his natural son, prince Maurice, afterwards the famous duke of Saxe, was chosen duke of Courland; but Augustus was not able to maintain him in that dignity, against the power of Russia and the

jealousy of the Poles. Augustus died, after an unquiet reign, in 1733, having done all he could to insure the succession of Poland to his son Augustus II. (or, as he is called by some, III.) This occasioned a war, in which the French king maintained the interest of his father-in-law, Stanislaus, who was actually re-elected to the throne by a considerable party, of which the prince primate was the head. But Augustus, entering Poland with a powerful army of Saxons and Russians, compelled his rival to retreat to Danzig, whence he escaped with great difficulty into France. In the history of Germany, the war between Augustus II. as elector of Saxony, or rather as the ally of Russia and Austria, and Frederic II. king of Prussia, has been already noticed. It is sufficient to say, that though Augustus was a mild and moderate prince, and did every thing to satisfy the Poles, he never could gain their hearts; and all he obtained from them was merely shelter, when the king of Prussia drove him from his capital and electorate. Augustus died at Dresden, in 1763, upon which count Stanislaus Poniatowski was chosen king, by the name of Stanislaus Augustus; though it is said that the election was conducted irregularly, and that he obtained the crown chiefly through the influence of the empress of Russia. He is a man of abilities and address; but, from various concurring causes, he has had the unhappiness to see Poland, during his reign, a scene of desolation and calamity. In 1766, two Polish gentlemen presented a petition to the king, in the name of all the protestant nobility, and in behalf also of the members of the Greek church, wherein they demanded to be re-instated in their ancient rights and privileges, and to be placed upon the same footing in every respect as the Roman catholic subjects of the kingdom. "The difference of sentiments upon some points of religion among Christians," said they, in their petition, "ought not to enter into any consideration with regard to the employments of the state. The different sects of Christians, although they differ in opinion among themselves with respect to some points of doctrine, agree all in one point; that of being faithful to their sovereign, and obedient to his orders: all the Christian courts are convinced of this truth; and therefore, having always this principle in view, and without having any regard to the religion they profess, Christian princes ought only to seek after those whose merit and talents make them capable of serving their country properly." The king gave no answer to the petition of the dissidents; but the matter was referred to the diet, which was held the following year, when the ministers of the courts of Russia, London, Berlin, and Copenhagen, supported their pretensions. The diet appeared to receive the complaint of the dissidents with great moderation, as to the free exercise of their worship, which gave some flattering expectations that the affair would be happily terminated. But the intrigues of the king of Prussia appeared to have prevented this: for, though he openly professed to be a zealous defender of the cause of the dissidents, it was manifest from the event that his great aim was to promote the views of his own ambition. The intervention of the Russians in the affairs of Poland also gave great disgust to all parties in the kingdom. The whole nation ran into confederacies formed in distinct provinces; the popish clergy were active in opposing the cause of the dissidents; and this unfortunate country became the theatre of the most cruel and complicated of all wars, partly civil, partly religious, and partly foreign. The confusion, devastation and civil war, continued in Poland during the years 1769, 1770, 1771, whereby the whole face of the country was almost destroyed, and many of the principal popish families retired into foreign states

these effects; added as guard a scene of plunder, in the year spread from the dola; Volhin swept off 250,000 interceded with sors; and a war of Poland. T parts, towards very reverse of hours.

On September 1st among the king's of Poland two wounds on notwithstanding Kozinski's relentless sides in the paper Pulaski, another in 1779.

The following superior and empire alliance to divide Prussia was former king of Prussia was in the beginning Poland for the present. These territorial pretensions

in 1764, the empress declaration, signed with which she declares, "That I will be successful; or to be such as are actually in possession of the said kingdom, territories, and dominions, or did now actually in the full and free enjoyment, at any time of the same year did the king declare, "That he had renounced that he renounced of Brandenburg, on in the most solemn manner whatever. The empress wrote a letter with the strongest assurances, "That she entertained a thought of any other power to be used, we may infer, that means to annihilate them to their own use."

these effects; and had it not been for a body of Russian troops which acted as guards to the king at Warsaw, that city had likewise exhibited a scene of plunder and massacre. To these complicated evils were added, in the year 1770, that most dreadful scourge, the pestilence, which spread from the frontiers of Turkey to the adjoining provinces of Poland, Volhonia, and the Ukraine; and in these provinces, it is said, swept off 250,000 people. Meanwhile some of the popish confederates interested with the Turks to assist them against their powerful oppressors; and a war ensued between the Russians and the Turks on account of Poland. The conduct of the grand signor, and of the Ottoman poets, towards the distressed Poles, was just and honourable, and the very reverse of that of their Christian, catholic; and apostolic neighbours.

On September 3d, 1771, an attempt was made by Kozinski, an officer among the Polish confederates, and several others, to assassinate the king of Poland, in the streets of Warsaw. His majesty received two wounds on the head, one from a ball, and the other from a sabre; notwithstanding which, he had the good fortune to escape with life, by Kozinski's relenting; for which his own life was saved, and he now resides in the papal territories, with an annual pension from the king. Pulaski, another of the conspirators, distinguished himself in the American service; and was killed in attacking the British lines at Savannah, in 1779.

The following year, 1772, it appeared, that the king of Prussia, the emperor and empress-queen, and empress of Russia, had entered into an alliance to divide, and dismember the kingdom of Poland; though Prussia was formerly in a state of vassalage to Poland; and the title of king of Prussia was never acknowledged by the Poles till 1764. Russia also, in the beginning of the 17th century, saw its capital and throne possessed by the Poles; while Austria, in 1683, was indebted to a king of Poland for the preservation of its metropolis, and almost for its very existence. These three allied powers, acting in concert; set up their mutual pretensions to the respective districts which they had allotted for

In 1764, the empress of Russia transmitted to the court of Warsaw an act of renunciation, signed with her own hand, and sealed with the seal of the empire; in which she declared, "That she did by no means arrogate either to herself, her heirs, successors, or to her empire, any right or claim to the districts or territories which are actually in possession, or subject to the authority, of the kingdom of Poland, the great duchy of Lithuania; but that, on the contrary, her said majesty would guarantee to the said kingdom of Poland and duchy of Lithuania, all the immunities, territories, and districts, which the said kingdom and duchy ought by right to possess, or did now actually possess, and would at all times, and for ever, maintain them in the full and free enjoyment thereof, against the attempts of all and every one, should, at any time or on any pretext, endeavour to dispossess them of the same." The same year did the king of Prussia sign, with his own hand, an act, wherein he declared, "That he had no claims, formed no pretensions on Poland, or any part thereof; that he renounced all claims on that kingdom, either as king of Prussia, duke of Brandenburg, or duke of Pomerania." In the same instrument he guaranteed in the most solemn manner, the territories and rights of Poland against every one whatever. The empress-queen of Hungary, so late as the month of January, 1765, wrote a letter with her own hand to the king of Poland, in which she gave him the strongest assurances, "That her friendship for him and the republic was firm and inviolable; that the motions of her troops ought not to alarm him; that she had entertained no thought of seizing any part of his dominions, nor would ever permit any other power to do it." From which, according to the political creed of those times, we may infer, that to guarantee the rights, liberties, and revenues of a state, means to annihilate those liberties, seize upon those rights, and appropriate those revenues to their own use. Such is the faith of princes!

and guaranteed to each other: Polish or Western Prussia, and some districts bordering upon Brandenburg, for the king of Prussia; almost all the south-east parts of the kingdom bordering upon Hungary, together with the rich salt-works of the crown, for the empress-queen of Hungary and Bohemia; and a large district of country about Mohilow, upon the banks of the Dnieper, for the empress of Russia. But though each of these powers pretended to have a legal title to the territories which were allotted them respectively, and published manifestos in justification of the measures which they had taken, yet as they were conscious that the fallacies by which they supported their pretensions were too gross to impose upon mankind, they forced the Poles to call a new diet, and threatened them, that if they did not consent unanimously to sign a treaty for the ceding of those provinces to them respectively, the whole kingdom would be laid under a military execution, and treated as a conquered state. In this extremity of distress, several of the Polish nobility protested against this violent act of tyranny, and retired into foreign states, choosing rather to live in exile, and to have all their landed property confiscated, than to be instruments of bringing their country to utter ruin; but the king, under the threatening of deposition and imprisonment, was prevailed upon to sign this act, and his example was followed by many of his subjects.

The king of Prussia's conduct in Poland was the most tyrannical that can be conceived. In the year 1771, his troops entered into Great Poland, and carried off from that province and its neighbourhood, at a moderate computation, 12,000 families. On the 20th of October, in the same year, he published an edict, commanding every person, under the severest penalties, and even corporeal punishment, to take in payment for forage, provisions, corn, horses, &c. the money offered by his troops and commissaries. This money was either silver, bearing the impression of Poland, and exactly worth one third of its nominal value, or ducats struck in imitation of Dutch ducats, seventeen per cent. inferior to the real ducats of Holland. With this base money he bought up corn and forage enough, not only to supply his army for two whole years, but to stock magazines in the country itself, where the inhabitants were forced to come and re-purchase corn for their daily subsistence, at an advanced price, and with good money, his commissaries refusing to take the same coin they had paid. At the lowest calculation he gained, by this *honest* manœuvre, seven millions of dollars. Having stripped the country of money and provisions, his next attempt was to thin it still more of its inhabitants. To people his own dominions at the expense of Poland, had been his great aim: for this purpose, he devised a new contribution; every town and village was obliged to furnish a certain number of marriageable girls; the parents to give, as a portion

* The district claimed by Austria was all that tract of land lying on the right side of the Vistula, from Silesia above Sandomir, to the mouth of the San, and thence by Francopol, Zamoise, and Rubieslow, to the Bog; from the Bog along the frontiers of Red Russia to Zabras, on the borders of Volhinia and Podolia, and from Zabras in a straight line to the Niaper, where it receives the Sbrzyt, taking in a part of Podolia, and then along the boundaries separating Podolia and Moldavia. This country is now incorporated with Austria, under the appellation of the kingdom of Galicia and Lodomeria.

† The Russian claims comprise Polish Livonia, that part of the palatinate of Poland to the east of the Duna—the palatinates of Vitepsk, Miecislaw, and the portions of the palatinate of Minsk. This tract of land (Polish Livonia excepted) is situated in the north-west of Russia, and includes full one third of Lithuania. It is now divided into the governments of Polotsk and Mohilef.

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a feather-bed, four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats in gold. Some were bound hand and foot, and carried off as criminals. His exactions from the abbeyes, convents, cathedrals, and nobles, were so heavy, and exceeded at last their abilities, so much, that the priests abandoned their churches, and the nobles their lands. These exactions continued with unabated rigour, from the year 1771, to the time the treaty of partition was declared, and possession taken of the provinces usurped. From these proceedings, it would appear that his Prussian majesty knew of no rights but his own; no pretensions but those of the house of Brandenburg; no other rule of justice but his own pride and ambition.

The violent dismemberment and partition of Poland has justly been considered as the first great breach in the modern political system of Europe. The surprize of a town, the invasion of an insignificant province, or the election of a prince who had neither abilities to be feared nor virtues to be loved; would some years ago have armed one half of Europe, and called forth all the attention of the other. But the destruction of a great kingdom, with the consequent disarrangement of power, dominion, and commerce, has been beheld by the other nations of Europe, with the most astonishing indifference and unconcern. The courts of London, Paris, Stockholm, and Copenhagen, remonstrated against the usurpations; but that was all. Poland was forced to submit, and the partition was ratified by their diet, held under the bribes and threats of the three powers. In the senate there was a majority of six, but in the lower house, or assembly of nuncios, there was but one in favour of the measure, fifty-four against fifty-three. This is a very alarming circumstance, and shows that a most important though not happy change has taken place in that general system of policy, and arrangement of power and dominion, which had been for some ages an object of unremitting attention with most of the states of Europe. Our ancestors might, perhaps, on some occasions, discover rather more anxiety about preserving the balance of power in Europe than was necessary; but it has been well remarked, that the idea of considering Europe as a vast commonwealth, of the several parts being distinct and separate, though politically and commercially united, of keeping them independent, though unequal in power, and of preventing any one, by any means, from becoming too powerful for the rest, was great and liberal, and, though the result of barbarism, was founded upon the most enlarged principles of the wisest policy. It appears to be owing to this system, that this small part of the western world has acquired so astonishing a superiority over the rest of the globe. The fortune and glory of Greece proceeded from a similar system of policy, though formed upon a smaller scale. Both her fortune and glory expired with that system.

The revolution which happened in this country on the third of May, 1791, deservedly engaged much of the public attention. The evils of elective monarchy were indeed the chief cause that Poland had almost ceased to be considered as a nation. The dynasty of future kings of Poland was to commence in Frederic Augustus, elector of Saxony, with the right of inheritance to his male descendents: in case the present elector should have no male issue, a husband chosen by him for his daughter, with the consent of the Polish representatives, shall begin the dynasty. But after this boasted change, Poland would only have advanced to that degree of civilisation which other European countries enjoyed in the thirteenth century. Her hundreds of citizens would have been free, her millions of peasants would have still continued slaves; at

the utmost, not above five hundred thousand out of fifteen millions would have been free.

After a short and unequal struggle with Russia, this unhappy country was forced to abandon the new constitution, and may, with respect to the greater part of it, be regarded as a Russian province. The Polish king seems, in the consciousness of his own rectitude and patriotism, too much to have neglected the serpentine paths of prudence upon this occasion. The previous assent of Saxony should have been procured; and the sacrifice of Dantzic and Thorn to Prussia, though doubtless great, was yet to be preferred to the present national annihilation. The manifesto of the Russian empress, replete with sentiments disgraceful to humanity, and which only show that she, and some other despots, have resolved to insult an enlightened age, by appearing in the dangerous character of professed foes to mankind, was followed by some skirmishes; but it is said that a letter, written with her own hand to the Polish king, in which she declared her resolution to double or triple her troops, rather than abandon her pretensions, induced that benignant monarch to prevent the farther effusion of blood.

On the 6th of January, 1793, the king of Prussia issued a declaration respecting the march of his troops into Poland, in which he mentions the friendly interference of her imperial majesty, the empress of Russia, in the affairs of Poland. In the same strain his majesty adds, that he had entertained hopes that the troubles in that country would have subsided without his own interference, especially as he was so deeply occupied in another quarter. He laments that he has been disappointed, and that the propagation of French democracy, by means of clubs and jacobin emissaries, especially in Great Poland, had already risen to such a height as to require his most serious attention; his majesty, however, observes, that he has determined to anticipate their designs, by sending a sufficient body of troops into the territories of the republic, after having concerted proper measures with the friendly courts of Peteriburg and Vienna, who were equally interested with himself in the welfare of the republic.

The protest published at Grodno, in the sitting of the general confederation, the 3d of February, against this violent invasion, sufficiently evinces the detestation which the Poles themselves entertain of the measures of their pretended friend. They assure his majesty that a continued correspondence between the military commanders and the civil magistrates had enabled the confederation to declare, that perfect tranquillity prevailed from one end of the kingdom to the other; that they were "astonished at the assertions of his majesty" in his last declaration, and conclude by entreating that his majesty would revoke the orders which he had given for troops to enter the republic. Notwithstanding, however, these solemn assurances — notwithstanding the evidence and the facts which were alleged in support of them, the Prussian army advanced, and one of its detachments appeared under the walls of Thorn. The inhabitants refusing entrance to the troops, the gates were forced, the municipal guard dislodged from their post, and the Prussian regiments entered the defenceless city, as if it had been a place taken by assault. At the same time different Polish detachments, dispersed throughout Great Poland, were attacked and driven from their posts by superior force.

In March, the manifesto of her imperial majesty appeared, relative to the partition. Religion was, as usual, called in to sanction this atrocious act of rapine and injustice, and the empress humanely lamented the

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ferings of the people of Poland, among whom it had been, for thirty years, her incessant endeavour to maintain *tranquillity*; and her grief was increased by considering them as descended from the same race and professing the holy Christian religion, which would be violated by the introduction of such dreadful doctrines as were propagated by some unworthy Poles, who adopted the detestable and destructive plans of the rebels of France. As an indemnification, therefore, for her losses, to provide for the future safety of her empire, and the Polish dominions, and to prevent all future changes of government, she graciously made known her intention to take for ever under the sceptre of Russia those tracts of land, with their inhabitants, which lie between Druy on the river Dwina, to Neroch and Dubrova, and, following the border of the vauodship of Vilna, to Stolptsa, to Nesvig, and then to Pinsk: thence passing Krenish, between Viskero and Novogreble, near the frontier of Galicia, to the river Dniester, and terminating in the old border of Russia and Poland, at Jegertie. In this partition, the increase of the happiness of the inhabitants was avowed to be the *sole object* of her imperial majesty.

The declaration of the Prussian monarch, which was dated March 25, echoed many of the sentiments contained in the Russian manifesto, and avowed, that, in order to preserve the republic of Poland from the dreadful effects of its internal divisions, and to rescue it from utter ruin, no means remained but to incorporate her frontier provinces into the states of Prussia, which, therefore, had determined to take immediate possession of the cities of Dantzic and Thorn, and the vauodships of Posen, Gnesen, Kalish, and Siradia, the city and monastery, of Czentochowa, the province of Wielun, the vauodship of Lentchitz, the province of Cujavia, and of Dobrzyn, the vauodships of Rawa and Plotzk, &c.

On the 2d of April the Prussian troops took possession of Dantzic; and about the same time, the empress of Russia commanded the king of Poland to remove to Grodno, under the escort of Russian troops, for the express purpose of sanctioning the alienation and partition of his kingdom.

The means employed to effect the mock ratification of the partition of this unfortunate country were entirely characteristic of the baseness of the cause. The diet, in the month of September, was assailed for three successive days with official notes from the Russian ambassador and the Prussian minister, full of threats, pressing the signature of the treaty. The states, however, persisted in their refusal. At last M. de Sievers, the Russian ambassador, sent his ultimatum in a note, which ended with the following remarkable expressions; "The underwritten must besides inform the states of the republic assembled in the confederate diet, that he thought it of absolute necessity, in order to prevent every disorder, to order *two battalions of grenadiers*, with four pieces of cannon, to surround the castle, to secure the tranquillity of their deliberations. The underwritten expects that the sitting will not terminate, until the demanded signature of the treaty is decided." Conformably to this threat, the Russian soldiers so closely surrounded the castle, that no person was suffered to go out: some of the officers took their station in the senate, pretending to guard his majesty's person against conspirators. The king, on the contrary, sent a delegation to the Russian ambassador, declaring that he would not open the session in the presence of the Russian officers. In consequence, they were ordered to retire, except the general, who declared publicly, that no member should be permitted to quit the senate before the consent to the treaty was given. The debates were long and violent; and it was not until three o'clock the next morning, after

three successive divisions, that the diet came to a resolution, in which they declare, before all Europe, to whom they had frequently appealed, that, "Contrary to the faith of treaties most sacredly observed on their part, as well as to that of the treaty recently entered into with his majesty, the king of Prussia, and at his own desire, in the year 1790, whereby the independence and the integrity of Poland were guaranteed in the most solemn manner; that, being deprived of free-will, surrounded at the moment of the present act by an armed foreign force, and threatened with a further invasion of the Prussian troops, they are forced to commission and authorise a deputation appointed to treat with the said king, to sign the treaty, such as it was planned and amended under the mediation of the Russian ambassador."

Depressed and despairing, the Polish nation, supposing its political existence to depend on a reasonable alliance with a powerful neighbour, put itself under the protection of Russia, which, in the treaty of alliance with Poland, had expressly stipulated that no change or infringement should take place in the form of government to be established, without the consent of the empress or her successors: so that Russia, without engaging for the perpetuity of the new form, became completely mistress of whatever government should be established in Poland.

On the 7th of February, 1794, the baron d'Ingelstrolm, who had succeeded the count de Sievers as ambassador at Warsaw, demanded a public annulling of the acts of the diets of 1788 and 1791 together with the form of the constitution then established, and the surrender of every paper, whether in public records or private cabinets, respecting that transaction. The court of Russia soon afterwards issued its mandate for the reduction of the military force to 16,000 men. This was opposed by several regiments, particularly in south Prussia, where the insurgents, headed by the gallant Madalinski, a Polish nobleman, and brigadier of the national troops, peremptorily refused to disband. The spirit of resistance was widely diffused, and the capital assumed a military aspect. In this situation fifteen thousand Russian troops were sent into Poland, the ambassador was instructed to deliver to the permanent council an official document representing the danger that threatened the king, and requesting the commissioners of war to dispatch an army to oppose Madalinski; and the permanent council was desired to take into custody every suspected person. Both these requisitions were, however, refused; and it was pointedly replied to the latter, that, according to the laws of the republic, no Polish nobleman could be arrested, without being legally convicted.

The imperious conduct of the Russians, during their struggle for power, continued to harass the oppressed Poles, and to drive them to desperation. The peasants were compelled to lodge and board the Russian soldiers, and transport them from place to place, without receiving the least remuneration, or any other reward than brutality and insolence: It could not be expected that a gallant and high-spirited people would long tamely submit to such insult and injury. Their patriotic spirit, though latent, was not extinguished. It was roused into action by incessant sufferings, and by the continued efforts of the intrepid Kosciusko, who, early in February, appeared at the head of a considerable body of Polish insurgents, attacked the Prussians who had taken possession of their country, forced them to retreat, and pursued them to a considerable distance. The Russian troops having evacuated Cracow on the 23d of March, Kosciusko entered that town on the night of the 24th, and next morning ordered the gates to be shut, and

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clared himself commander in chief of all the Polish forces. He then imposed an oath of fidelity on all the military in the city, took possession of the public treasure, and proceeded to measures of military sequestration. On the day on which he entered Cracow, he issued a proclamation, couched in the most energetic terms, inviting the nation to shake off their disgraceful fetters, and to unite in forming a new confederation. The proclamation was received with unanimous applause; and "long live Kosciusko," resounded from every quarter. He was conducted to the town-house and presented to the principal nobility, who had assembled there to receive him; and by them he was formally invested with the title of general. Every article for the support of his army was abundantly supplied. On the 26th a revolutionary tribunal was established, and every five houses were required to furnish one man armed and equipped for the defence of the constitution against the *usurping powers*. The different corporations then assembled under their respective banners before the town-house, whence the magistrates led them in procession to the church of the Holy Virgin, where the constitution of the 3d of May, 1791, was publicly read with great solemnity, and an oath taken to defend it.

In the mean time Warsaw was in a state of the highest fermentation. In that city and its vicinity there were not less than fifteen thousand Russian mercenaries, some of whom were quartered, to the amount of a hundred in a body, in several of the palaces. The most vigorous measures were adopted by the permanent council; a decree passed, declaring the insurgents rebels, and subjecting them to the most arbitrary punishments; and the police were charged to seize every person *suspected* of being inimical to the existing government, with the promise of military assistance. The unpopularity of his Polish majesty daily increased, and a guard of Russians was appointed for his *preservation*. About this time, the unhappy monarch issued a proclamation, exhorting his subjects to a peaceable acquiescence, and urging the danger and destruction which attended their resistance.

The Polish nobles had no sooner taken the oaths in the presence of Kosciusko, than they departed for their respective estates, in order to arm and assemble their vassals. Baron d'Ingelstrohm, about the same time, surrounded the diet at Warsaw with a military force, and demanded the surrender of the arsenal. This demand was spiritedly resisted; and notice of it having been sent to Kosciusko, he, about the end of March, took the route to Warsaw with his army, and a reinforcement of 4000 peasants armed with pikes, &c.—On the 4th of April he was met by a detachment of 6000 Russians, with a park of heavy artillery, on their march to reduce Cracow. A fierce encounter ensued. The Polish peasants being driven to desperation, made a dreadful slaughter of the Russian plunderers. General Woronzow was taken prisoner, above 1000 Russians killed on the spot; while the Poles lost only sixty men; and took eleven pieces of cannon and all the ammunition. After the battle, Kosciusko fell back with his army towards Cracow, where he was joined by a very considerable body of disaffected Polish troops.

On the 16th of April, baron d'Ingelstrohm demanded the surrender of the arsenal, the disarming of the military, and that twenty persons of the first consequence should be arrested, and, if found guilty, punished with death. This occasioned a general commotion, in which the citizens, having procured arms from the arsenal, after an incessant combat of thirty-six hours, drove the Russians out of the city with great slaughter. A deputation had been sent to inform the king of the attempt of

the Russians to seize the arsenal; when the monarch had replied "Go, and defend your honour." The situation of the king after the contest became very critical, and the people were extremely jealous of every movement he made. They compelled him to promise repeatedly that he would not quit Warsaw; and, not satisfied with his assurances, insisted upon placing two municipal officers as a guard upon him; and he was desired frequently to exhibit himself to the people.

Forty thousand Russians were now put in motion towards Poland from the Ukraine, and sixteen thousand from Livonia. About the end of May, the corps of Kosciusko amounted to nearly 23,000 men; that of general Kochowski to 18,000; that of Jassinski to 6,000; a corps of 12,000 was stationed at Wilna, and another at Warsaw, which consisted of 8,000. The peasantry were not included in this calculation.

About the end of June a manifesto was published by the emperor, on the occasion of his troops entering Poland. On the 12th of July, the head-quarters of the king and prince of Prussia were only three or four leagues from Warsaw, whence they issued a placard, stating that the enemy had fled before them in their progress. In the mean time, however, Kosciusko (who had eluded the Prussian troops) by a brave attack had defeated the forces which opposed him, and had thrown himself into Warsaw. On the 31st of June, the Prussians began to attack the city by a heavy cannonade, and several hundred bombs were in the course of the day thrown into Warsaw; a dreadful fire was kept up on the besiegers by night and by day, and an incredible number of lives were lost. The king and the prince royal are both said to have been in imminent danger at this time. On the 2d of August his Prussian majesty, whose hopes of success had probably been a little damped, attempted to open a negotiation with the king of Poland for the surrender of the capital, which was rejected. About the middle of this month, accounts were transmitted to the Prussian camp of insurrections having arisen in south Prussia (formerly Great Poland); of which his Prussian majesty had taken possession the preceding year; and on the night of the 5th of September, the Prussian and Russian forces abandoned the siege of Warsaw, after a fruitless attack of two months, much weakened by the diseases and desertions which prevailed in their camps, and disabled from the want of provisions and ammunition.

In the course of the same month, the Russian grand army, consisting of 20,000 men, arrived in Poland, and on the 18th a severe engagement took place near Brzesc, in which the Poles lost very considerable numbers, and were compelled to retreat across the Bog. On the 10th of October another battle was fought between the Russians under general Ferfen, and the troops under Kosciusko. The Russians advanced twice to the attack, but were repulsed by the Poles, who, however, unfortunately, not contented with the advantages they had gained, abandoned their favourable position on the heights, and pressed on to the attack in their turn. This movement threw the troops into some confusion; and the Russians forming themselves anew, the rout soon became general. The battle, which began at seven in the morning, did not end till noon. Kosciusko flew from rank to rank, and was continually in the hottest part of the engagement. At length he fell, and a Cossack, who did not know him in the peasant's dress which he constantly wore, wounded him from behind with a lance. He recovered, and advanced a few steps, but was again knocked down by another Cossack, who was preparing to give him a mortal blow, when his arm was stopped by a Russian officer, who is said to have been general Chrnoszow, to whose

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wife Kosciusko had a short time before politely given leave of departure from Warsaw to join her husband. The unfortunate Kosciusko implored the officer, if he wished to render him a service, to allow the soldier to put an end to his existence; but the latter chose rather to make him a prisoner. The Polish infantry defended themselves with a bravery proportioned to that of their general, and fought with a degree of valour almost approaching to fury.

The Russians under general Persen soon afterwards summoned Warsaw to surrender; and, on being refused, after the junction of the different corps under Persen, Dornfeldt, Dornlow, and Suwarrow, proceeded on the 4th of November to attack the suburb of Praga or Prague, separated from Warsaw by the Vistula, which was defended by more than a hundred pieces of cannon disposed upon thirty-three batteries. The Russians succeeded in their assault, and the Polish generals found themselves unable to oppose with 10,000 soldiers, which was the whole of their force, the united attack of 50,000 men. After a severe conflict of eight hours, the resistance on the part of the Poles ceased; but the massacre of the detestable Suwarrow, who from his habitual cruelty was selected for this service, continued for two hours longer; and the pillage lasted till noon on the following day. Five thousand Poles were computed to have been slain in the assault; the remainder were either imprisoned or dispersed. The citizens were compelled to lay down their arms; and their houses were plundered by the merciless Russians, who, after the battle had ceased nearly ten hours, about nine o'clock at night, set fire to the town, and again began to massacre the inhabitants. Nine thousand persons, unarmed men, defenceless women, and harmless infants, perished either in the flames, or by the sword, and nearly the whole of the suburb was reduced to ashes. In the whole of this siege it is computed that not less than 30,000 Poles lost their lives.

The city being thus reduced under the power of the Russians, the king was for a short time restored to a kind of mock authority, by the supreme council remitting into his hands that which it had exercised. On the 9th of November, the Russian general made his triumphal entry into Warsaw, in which the streets were lined with his troops, and the inhabitants, shut up in their houses, observed a melancholy silence. The chief magistrate delivered him the keys of the bridge of the suburb, after which he received the compliments of the king, and on the 10th went with much pomp to the castle, to pay his respects to his majesty. To complete the whole of this execrable scene, the first of December was set apart for a day of solemn thanksgiving, and *Te Deum* was sung for the triumph of barbarous oppression.

In the mean time Kosciusko was under surgical care at Nozcylack, where the utmost attention was paid to his recovery, particularly by madam Chrozozow. He was afterwards sent to Petersburg, under a very powerful military escort, and was confined in the fortress there, till the death of the late empress, when the present emperor, who has on several occasions shown great liberality towards the persecuted Poles, set him at liberty, assigned him a pension, and allowed him his choice, either to return to his own country, or go to America. Kosciusko preferred the latter, and has arrived safely in the asylum which he chose. On his way thither he passed through England, and was received with the warmest welcome and congratulation by all the friends of freedom.

On the 20th of December, 1794, a courier arrived from the empress, demanding the arrestation of count Ignatius Potocki, and several of the other patriots, whom she ordered to be sent to Peterburg. The same

Allyes of the Switzers.	Countries' Names.	Miles in Length.	Miles in Breadth.	Chief Cities.
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Subjects of the	Chiavanna	42	34	Chiavanna
	Grisons, Cal-	27	19	Sondrio
vinists & Pap.	Bormio and Valteline	27	8	Liechtensteg
	Tockenburg	13	11	Geneva
Calvinists	Geneva	34	20	Neufchatel
	Neufchatel	80	30	Sion
Papists	Valais	13	16	Delsperg
	Baffe	26	10	St. Gall
	St. Gall			Mulhausen; in Alface, is also united to them.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND FACE } OF THE COUNTRY. This being a mountainous country, lying upon the Alps

(which form an amphitheatre of more than 100 miles), the frosts are consequently severe in winter, the hills being covered with snow sometimes all the year long. In summer the inequality of the soil renders the same province very unequal in its seasons; on one side of those mountains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are sowing on another. The valleys, however, are warm and fruitful, and well cultivated, and nothing can be more delightful than the summer months in this charming country. It is subject to rains and tempests; for which reason public granaries are every where erected, to supply the failure of their crops. The water of Switzerland is generally excellent, and often descends from the mountains in large or small cataracts, which have a delightful effect.

There is, perhaps, no country in the world where the advantageous effects of unwearied and persevering industry are more remarkably conspicuous than in Switzerland. In passing over the mountainous parts, the traveller is struck with admiration, to observe rocks that were formerly barren, now planted with vines, or abounding with rich pasture; and to mark the traces of the plough along the sides of precipices so steep, that a horse could not even mount them without great difficulty. In short, the inhabitants seem to have surmounted every obstruction which soil, situation, and climate, have thrown in their way, and to have spread fertility over various spots of the country, which nature seemed to have consigned to everlasting barrenness. The feet of the mountains, and sometimes also the very summits, are covered with vineyards, corn-fields, meadows, and pasture grounds. Other parts of this country are more dreary, consisting almost entirely of barren and inaccessible rocks, some of which are continually covered with snow or ice. The valleys between these icy and snowy mountains appear like so many smooth frozen lakes, and from them vast fragments of ice frequently fall down into the more fruitful spots beneath. In some parts there is a regular gradation from extreme wildness to high cultivation; in others the transitions are very abrupt, and very striking. Sometimes a continued chain of cultivated mountains, richly clothed with wood, and studded all over with hamlets, cottages above the clouds, pastures which appear suspended in the air, exhibit the most delightful landscape that can be conceived; and in other places appear rugged rocks, cataracts, and mountains of a prodigious

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height, covered with ice and snow. "Behold our wall and bulwark," exclaimed a Swiss peasant, pointing to the mountains; "Constantinople is not so strongly fortified." In short, Switzerland abounds with the most picturesque scenes; and here are to be found some of the most sublime exhibitions of nature in her most awful and tremendous forms.

GLACIERS.] No subject in natural history is more curious than the origin of these glaciers, which are immense fields of ice, and usually rest on an inclined plane: being pushed forwards by the pressure of their own weight, and but weakly supported by the rugged rocks beneath, they are intersected by large transverse crevices; and present the appearance of walls, pyramids, and other fantastic shapes, observed at all heights and in all situations, wherever the declivity is beyond thirty or forty degrees.

Mr. COXE describes the method of travelling over these glaciers. "We had each of us a long pole spiked with iron; and in order to secure us as much as possible from slipping, the guides fastened to our shoes *crampons*, or small bars of iron, provided with four small spikes of the same metal. At other times, instead of *crampons*, we had large nails in our shoes, which more effectually answered our purpose. The difficulty of crossing these valleys of ice arises from the immense chasms. We rolled down large stones into several of them; and the great length of time before they reached the bottom, gave us some conception of their depth; our guides assured us, that in some places they are not less than five hundred feet deep. I can no otherwise convey to you an image of this body of ice broken into irregular ridges and deep chasms, than by comparing it to a lake instantaneously frozen in the midst of a violent storm." In speaking of an unsuccessful attempt of some gentlemen to reach the summit of Mont Blanc, he presents to his readers a most horrid image of the danger of these chasms. "As they were returning in great haste (owing to the day being far advanced) one of the party slipped in attempting to leap over a chasm of ice. He held in his hand a long pole, spiked with iron, which he struck into the ice; and upon this he hung dreadfully suspended for a few moments, until he was released by his companions."

MOUNTAINS.] In this mountainous country, where nature is all upon a grand scale, Mont Blanc is particularly distinguished from other mountains, by having its summits and sides clothed to a considerable depth with a mantle of snow, almost without the intervention of the least rock to break the glare of the *white* appearance. According to the calculation of Mr. De Luc (by whose improvement of the barometer, elevations are taken with a degree of accuracy before unattainable) the height of this mountain above the level of the sea is 2,391½ French toises, or 15,304 English feet; or, according to sir George Shuckborough, 15,662 feet, which gives a difference of only 358 feet. The Peaks of Teneriffe and Ætna have been frequently supposed to be the highest points of the globe: but from the most accurate observations, it will be found that Mont Blanc is of much more considerable elevation, and that there are no mountains (except those in America, particularly Chimborazo, the highest point of the Cordilleras, the elevation of which, according to Condamine, surpasses 3,000 toises, or 19,200 feet, but according to others, 20,608 feet) which are equal to the altitude of Mont Blanc.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The chief rivers are the Rhine (which rises

in the chain of mountains bordering on St. Gothard), the Aar, the Reufs, the Tefin, the Oglio, and the Rhone. The lakes are those of Geneva, Constance, Thun, Lucerne, Zurich, Bienne, and Brienz.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountains contain mines of iron, crystal, virgin sulphur, and springs of mineral waters.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Switzerland produces sheep and cattle, wine, wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, and hemp; plenty of apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plums, and chestnuts; the parts towards Italy abound in peaches, almonds, figs, citrons, and pomegranates; and most of the cantons abound in timber. Besides game, fish, and fowl, are also found, in some of the higher and more inaccessible parts of the Alps, the bouquetin and the chamois, whose activity in scouring along the steep and craggy rocks, and in leaping over the precipices, is hardly conceivable. The blood of both these animals is of so hot a nature, that the inhabitants of some of these mountains, who are subject to pleurisy, take a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that disorder. The flesh of the chamois is esteemed very delicious. Among the Alps is likewise found a species of hares, which in summer are said perfectly to resemble other hares, but in winter become all over white, so that they are scarcely distinguishable among the snow. But this idea has been lately exploded; nor is it certain whether the two species ever couple together. The white hare seldom quits his rocky residence. Here are also yellow and white foxes, which in winter sometimes come down into the valleys.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } According to the best
CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } accounts, the cantons of**

Switzerland contain about 2,000,000 of inhabitants, who are a brave, hardy, industrious people, remarkable for their fidelity, and their zealous attachment to the liberties of their country. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. A general simplicity of manners, an open and unaffected frankness, together with an invincible spirit of freedom, are the most distinguishing characteristics of the inhabitants of Switzerland. A very striking proof of the simplicity and openness of manners of this people, and of astonishing confidence, is mentioned by Mr. Coxe, who says, upon the authority of general Pfiffer, that, on each side of the road that runs through the valley of Muotta, in the canton of Schweiz, there are several ranges of small shops uninhabited, yet filled with various goods, of which the prices are marked: any passengers who wish to become purchasers, enter the shops, take away the merchandise, and deposit the price, which the owners call for in the evening. They are in general a very enlightened nation; their common people are far more intelligent than the same rank of men in most other countries; a taste for literature is very prevalent among those who are in better circumstances, and even among many of the lowest rank; and a genuine and unartful good breeding is extremely conspicuous in the Swiss gentry. On the first entrance into this country, the traveller cannot but observe the air of content and satisfaction which appears in the countenances of the inhabitants. The cleanliness of the houses, and of the people, is peculiarly striking; and in all their manners, behaviour, and dress, some strong outlines may be traced, which distinguish this happy people from the neighbouring nations, who labour under the oppressions of despotic government. Even the Swiss cottages convey the liveliest image of cleanliness, ease, and simplicity, and cannot but strongly impress upon the observer a most pleasing conviction of the peasant's happiness. In some of the can-

tons, each cottage has its little territory, consisting generally of a field or two of fine pasture ground, and frequently skirted with trees, and well supplied with water. Sumptuary laws are in force in most parts of Switzerland; and no dancing is allowed, except upon particular occasions. Silk, lace, and several other articles of luxury, are totally prohibited in some of the cantons; and even the head-dresses of the ladies are regulated. All games of hazard are also strictly prohibited; and in other games, the party who loses above six florins, which is about nine shillings of our money, incurs a considerable fine. Their diversions, therefore, are chiefly of the active and warlike kind; and as their time is not wasted in games of chance, many of them employ part of their leisure hours in reading, to the great improvement of their understandings. The youth are diligently trained to all the martial exercises, such as running, wrestling, throwing the hammer, and shooting, both with the cross-bow and the musket.

GOITERS AND IDIOTS.] The inhabitants in one part of this country, particularly in the republic of Vallais, are very much subject to *goiters*, or large excrescences of flesh that grow from the throat, and often increase to a most enormous size; but what is more extraordinary, idiotism also remarkably abounds among them. "I saw," says Mr. Coxe, "many instances of both kinds; as I passed through Sion, some idiots were basking in the sun, with their tongues out, and their heads hanging down, exhibiting the most affecting spectacle of intellectual imbecility that can possibly be conceived." The causes which produce a frequency of these phenomena in this country, form a very curious question.

The notion that snow-water occasions these excrescences is totally void of foundation. For, on that supposition, why are the natives of those places that lie most contiguous to the glaciers, and who drink no other water than what descends from these immense reservoirs of ice and snow, free from this malady? And why are the inhabitants of those countries in which there is no snow, afflicted with it? For these gurgular tumours are to be found in the environs of Naples, in the island of Sumatra, and at Patna, and Purnea in the East Indies, where snow is unknown.

The springs that supply drink to the natives, are impregnated with a calcareous matter, called in Switzerland *rusf*, nearly similar to the incrustations of Matlock in Derbyshire, so minutely dissolved as not in the least to affect the transparency of the water. It is not improbable, that the impalpable particles of this substance, thus dissolved, should introduce themselves into the glands of the throat, and produce goiters, for the following reasons: because *rusf*, or this calcareous deposition, abounds in all those districts where goiters are common. There are goitrous persons and much *rusf* in Derbyshire, in various parts of the Vallais, in the Valteline, &c. Lucerne, Fribourg, and Berne, near Aigle and Bex, in several places of the Pays de Vaud, near Dresden, in the valleys of Savoy and Piedmont, near Turin and Milan. But the strongest proof in favour of this opinion, says our author, is derived from the following facts: A surgeon whom I met at the baths of Leuk, informed me, that he had not unfrequently extracted concretions of *rusf* stone from several goiters; and that from one in particular, which suppurated, he had taken several flat pieces, each about half an inch long. He added that the same substance is found in the stomach of cows, and in the goitrous tumours to which even the dogs of the country are subject. He had diminished and cured the goiters of many young persons by emollient

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liquors, and external applications; and prevented them in future, by removing his patients from the place where the springs are impregnated with *inf*; and, if that could not be contrived, by forbidding the use of water which was not purified.

Children are occasionally born with guttural swellings, but this may arise from the aliment of the mother. It is to be presumed that a people accustomed to these excrescences will not be shocked at their deformity; but it does not appear, as some writers assert, that they consider them as beauties. To judge from the accounts of many travellers, it might be supposed that the natives, without exception, were either idiots or goitrous; whereas, in fact, the Vallaisans, in general, are a robust race: and all that with truth can be affirmed, is that goitrous persons and idiots are more abundant in some districts of the Vallais, than perhaps in any other part of the globe. It has been asserted that the people very much respect these idiots, and even consider them as *blessings from heaven*. The common people, it is certain, esteem them so, for they call them "*souls of God without sin*;" and many parents prefer these idiot children to those whose understandings are perfect, because, as they are incapable of intentional criminality, they consider them as certain of happiness in a future state. Nor is this opinion entirely without its good effect, as it disposes the parents to pay greater attention to such helpless beings. These idiots are suffered to marry, as well among themselves as with others*.

[RELIGION.] Though all the Swiss cantons form but one political republic, yet they are not united in religion, as the reader, in the table prefixed, may perceive. Those differences in religion formerly created many public commotions, which seem now to have subsided. Zuinglius was the apostle of protestantism in Switzerland. He was a moderate reformer, and differed from Luther and Calvin only in a few speculative points; so that Calvinism may be said to be the religion of the protestant Swisses. But this must be understood chiefly with respect to the mode of the church government; for in some doctrinal points they are far from being universally Calvinistical. There is, however, too much religious bigotry prevalent among them; and though they are ardently attached to the interests of civil liberty, their sentiments on the subject of religious toleration are in general much less liberal.

[LANGUAGE.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the most common is German. The Swisses who border upon France, speak a bastard French, as those near Italy do a corrupted Latin or Italian.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Calvin, whose name is so well known in all protestant countries, instituted laws for the city of Geneva, which are held in high esteem by the most learned of that country. The ingenious and eloquent Rousseau too, whose works the present age have received with so much approbation, was a citizen of Geneva. Rousseau gave a force to the French language, which it was thought incapable of receiving. In England he is generally known as a professor only, but the French admire him as a poet. His opera of the *serenade de Village* in particular is much esteemed. M. Bonnet, and M. de Saussure and de Lüc, also deserve to be mentioned with applause. Haller, a native of Bern, deserves the highest eulogy, as a physiologist, and a philosopher.

* Coxe's Travels through Switzerland, vol. i. p. 385, &c.

UNIVERSITIES.] The university of Basil, which was founded in 1459, has a very curious physic-garden, which contains the choicest exotics; and adjoining to the library, which possesses some valuable manuscripts, is a museum well furnished with natural and artificial curiosities, and with a great number of medals and paintings. In the cabinets of Erasmus and Amerbach, which also belong to this university, there are no less than twenty original pieces of Holbein; for one of which, representing a dead Christ, a thousand ducats have been offered. The other universities, which indeed are commonly only styled colleges, are those of Bern, Lausanne, and Zurich.

**ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Every district of a canton in
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } this mountainous country pre-
sents the traveller with a natural curiosity: sometimes in the shape of
wild but beautiful prospects, interspersed with lofty buildings, and won-
derful hermitages, especially one, two leagues from Friburg. This was
formed by the hands of a single hermit, who laboured on it for twenty-
five years, and was living in 1707. It is the greatest curiosity of the
kind perhaps in the world, as it contains a chapel, a parlour twenty-
eight paces in length, twelve in breadth, and twenty feet in height, a
cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, with the altar, benches,
flooring, ceiling, all cut out of the rock.**

At Schaffhausen is a very extraordinary bridge over the Rhine, justly admired for the singularity of its architecture. The river is extremely rapid, and had already destroyed several stone bridges of the strongest construction, when a carpenter of Appenzel offered to throw a wooden bridge of a single arch across the river, which is near 400 feet wide. The magistrates, however, required that it should consist of two arches, and that he should for that purpose employ the middle pier of the old bridge. Accordingly the architect was obliged to obey; but he contrived to leave it a matter of doubt, whether the bridge is supported by the middle pier, and whether it would not have been equally as safe if formed solely of one arch. The sides and top are covered, and it is what the Germans call a *hengewerk*, or hanging bridge; the road, which is almost level, is not carried, as usual, over the top of the arch; but the expression may be allowed, is let into the middle of it, and there suspended. A man of the slightest weight feels it almost tremble under him, yet waggons heavily laden pass over without danger. It has been compared to a tight rope, which trembles when struck, but still preserves its firm and equal tension. On considering the greatness of the plan, and the boldness of the construction, it is matter of astonishment that the architect was originally a carpenter, without the least tincture of literature, totally ignorant of mathematics, and not versed in the theory of mechanics. His name was Ulric Grubenman. The bridge was finished in less than three years, and cost about 8000l. sterling.

At the famous pass of *Pierre Pertuis*, the road is carried through a solid rock near fifty feet thick, the height of the arch twenty-six, its breadth twenty-five. The marcasites, false diamonds, and other stones found in those mountains, are justly ranked among the curiosities of the country. The ruins of Cæsar's wall, which extends eighteen miles in length, from Mount Jura to the banks of Lake Lemane, are still discernible. Many monuments of antiquity have been discovered near the baths of Baden, which were known to the Romans in the time of Tacitus. Switzerland boasts of many noble religious buildings, particularly a college of Jesuits; and many cabinets of the most valuable manuscripts, antiques, and curiosities of all kinds. At Lucerne

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(says Mr. Cox) is to be seen a topographical representation of the most mountainous parts of Switzerland, by general Puffer, a native of this town, and an officer in the French service. It is a model in relief, and well deserves the attention of the curious traveller. What was finished in 1776, comprised about sixty square leagues, in the cantons of Lucerne, Zug, Berne, Uri, Schweiz, and Unterwalden. The model was twelve feet long, and nine and a half broad. The composition is principally a mastic of charcoal, lime, clay, a little pitch, with a thin coat of wax; and is so hard as to be trod upon without receiving the least damage. The whole is painted with different colours, representing the objects as they appear in nature. It is worthy of particular observation, that not only the woods of oak, beech, pine, and other trees, are distinguished, but also that the strata of the several rocks are marked, each being shaped upon the spot, and formed with granite, gravel, calcareous stone, or such other natural substances as compose the original mountains. The plan is indeed so minutely exact, that it comprises not only all the mountains, lakes, towns, villages, and forests; but every cottage, every torrent, every road, and even every path, is distinctly and accurately represented. The general takes his elevations from the level of the lake of Lucerne, which, according to M. de Saussure, is about fourteen hundred and eight feet above the Mediterranean. This model, exhibiting the most mountainous parts of Switzerland, conveys a sublime picture of immense Alps piled one upon another; as if the story of the Titans were realised, and they had succeeded (at least in one spot of the globe) in heaping Ossa upon Pelion, and Olympus upon Ossa. From the account of this officer, it appears, that there are continued chains of mountains of the same elevation, rising in progression to the highest range, and from thence gradually descending in the same proportion to Italy. Near Rosniere is a famous spring, which rises in the midst of a natural basin of twelve square feet; the force that acts upon it must be prodigious; after a great shower of rain, it carries up a column of a water as thick as a man's thigh, nearly a foot above its surface. Its temperature never varies, its surface is clear as crystal, and its depth unfathomable; probably the end of some subterraneous lake, that has here found an issue for its waters.

[CITIES.] Of these the most considerable is the city of Bern, standing on the river Aar. This city and canton, it is said, form almost a third of the Helvetic confederacy, and can, upon occasion, fit out 10,000 armed men. All the other cities in Switzerland are excellently well provided with arsenals, bridges, and public edifices. Basil is counted by some the capital of all Switzerland. It is situated in a fertile and delightful country, on the banks of the Rhine, and the confines of Alsace and the empire. It contains two hundred and twenty streets, and six market-places. The town-house, which stands on the river Birsac, is supported by very large pillars, and its great hall is finished by the celebrated Hans Holbein, who was a native of this town. The situation of Basil is pleasing: the Rhine divides it into the upper and lower town, and it is considered as one of the keys of Switzerland. Baden is famous for its antiquity and baths. Zurich is far less considerable than Bern; but in the arsenal is shown the bow of the famous William Tell, and in the library is a manuscript of excellent let-

Count Stolberg, who saw this model in 1791, says of it: "This model, the size of which is vast, contains 220 square leagues."

ters, written by the unfortunate lady Jane Grey, to the judicious reformer Bullinger, in elegant Latin and German.

To prevent a repetition, I shall here mention the city of Geneva, which is an associate of Switzerland, and is under the protection of the Helvetic body, but within itself is an independent state and republic. This city is well built, and well fortified, and contains 24,000 inhabitants, most of whom are Calvinists. It is situated upon the afflux of the Rhone from the large fine lake of Geneva. It is celebrated for the learning of the professors of its university, and the good government of its colleges, the purity of its air, and the politeness of its inhabitants. By its situation it is a thoroughfare from Germany, France, and Italy. It contains a number of fine manufactures and artists; so that the protestants, especially such as are of a liberal turn, esteem it a most delightful place. But the fermentation of their politics, and particularly the usurpation of the senate, has divided the citizens into parties, and the late struggle of patricians and plebeians had nearly ruined all. Many of its citizens have accordingly left the place, and sought refuge and protection in other countries.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The productions of the loom, linen, dimity, lace, stockings, handkerchiefs, ribands, silk, and painted cottons, and gloves, are common in Switzerland; and the inhabitants are now beginning, notwithstanding their sumptuary laws, to fabricate silks, velvets, and woollen manufactures. Their great progress in those manufactures and in agriculture gives them a prospect of being able soon to make considerable exports.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] These are very complicated, from the cantons, though belonging the same body, being partly aristocratical, and partly democratical. Every canton is absolute in its own jurisdiction; but those of Bern, Zurich, and Lucerne, with other dependencies, are aristocratical, with a certain mixture of democracy, Bern excepted. Those of Uri, Schweiz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are democratical. Basil, though it has the appearance of an aristocracy, rather inclines to a democracy. But even these aristocracies and democracies differ in their particular modes of government. However, in all of them the real interests of the people appear to be much attended to, and they enjoy a degree of happiness not to be expected in despotic governments. Each canton has prudently reconciled itself to the errors of its neighbour, and cemented, on the basis of affection, a system of mutual defence.

The confederacy, considered as a republic, comprehends three divisions. The first are the Swisses, properly so called. The second are the Grisons, or the states confederated with the Swisses, for their common protection. The third are those prefectures, which, though subject to the other two, by purchase or otherwise, preserve each its own particular magistrates. Every canton forms within itself a little republic; but when any controversy arises that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which sits at Baden, where each canton having a vote, every question is decided by the majority. The general diet consists of two deputies from each canton, besides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and Bienne. It is observed by Mr. Coxe, to whom the public have been indebted for the best account of Switzerland that has appeared, that there is no country in which happiness and content more universally prevail among the people. For whether the government be aristocratical, democratical,

mixed, a general spirit of liberty pervades and actuates the several constitutions; so that even the oligarchical states (which, of all others, are usually the most tyrannical) are here peculiarly mild; and the property of the subject is securely guarded against every kind of violation. A harmony is maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their sumptuary laws, and equal division of their fortunes among their children, seem to insure its continuance. There is no part of Europe which contains, within the same extent of region, so many independent commonwealths, and such a variety of different governments, as are collected together in this remarkable and delightful country; and yet, with such wisdom was the Helvetic union composed, and so little have the Swiss, of late years, been actuated by the spirit of conquest, that, since the firm and complete establishment of their general confederacy, they have scarcely ever had occasion to employ their arms against a foreign enemy; and have had no hostile commotions among themselves, that were not very soon happily terminated.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The variety of cantons that constitute the Swiss confederacy, renders it difficult to give a precise account of their revenues. Those of the canton of Bern are said to amount annually to 300,000 crowns, and those of Zurich to 150,000; the other cantons in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever is saved after defraying the necessary expenses of government, is laid up as a common stock; and it has been said, that the Swisses are possessed of 500,000l. sterling in the English funds, besides their property in other banks.

The revenues arise, 1. From the profits of the demesne land; 2. The tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country; 3. Customs and duties on merchandize; 4. The revenues arising from the sale of salt, and some casual taxes.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The internal strength of the Swiss cantons, independent of the militia, consists of 13,400 men, raised according to the population and abilities of each. The oeconomy and wisdom with which this force is raised and employed, are truly admirable, as are the arrangements which are made by the general diet, for keeping up that great body of militia, from which foreign states and princes are supplied, so as to benefit the state, without any prejudice to its population. Every burgher, peasant, and subject, is obliged to exercise himself in the use of arms; appear on the stated days for shooting at the mark; furnish himself with proper clothing, accoutrements, powder and ball; and to be always ready for the defence of his country. The Swiss engage in the service of foreign princes and states, either merely as guards, or as marching regiments: in the latter case the government permits the enlisting volunteers, though only for such states as they are in alliance with, or with whom they have entered into a previous agreement on that article. But no subject is to be forced into foreign service, or even to be enlisted without the concurrence of the magistracy.

HISTORY.] The present Swisses and Grisons, as has been already mentioned, are the descendants of the ancient Helvetii, subdued by Julius Cæsar. Their mountainous uninviting situation formed a better security for their liberties than their forts or armies; and the same is the case at present. They continued long under little more than a nominal subjection to the Burgundians and Germans, till about the year 1300, when the emperor, Albert I. treated them with so much rigour, that they petitioned him against the cruelty of his governors. This served only to double the hardships of the people; and one of Albert's

Austrian governors, Gessler, in the wantonness of tyranny, set up a hat upon a pole, to which he ordered the natives to pay as much respect as to himself. The famous William Tell being observed to pass frequently without taking notice of the hat; and being an excellent marksman, the tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unless he cleft an apple upon his son's head, at a certain distance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple; and Gessler asking him the meaning of another arrow he saw stuck in his belt, he bluntly answered, that it was intended for his (Gessler's) heart, if he had killed his son. Tell was condemned to prison upon this; but making his escape, he watched his opportunity, and shot the tyrant, and thereby laid the foundation of the Helvetic liberty.

It appears, however, that, before this event, the revolt of the Swisses from the Austrian tyranny had been planned by some noble patriots among them. Their measures were so just and their course so intrepid, that they soon effected a union of several cantons.

Zurich, driven by oppression, sought first an alliance with Lucerne, Uri, Schwitz, and Unterwald, on the principles of mutual defence; and the frequent successes of their arms against Albert, duke of Austria, insensibly formed the grand Helvetic union. They first conquered Glaris and Zug, and admitted them to an equal participation of their rights, Bern united itself in 1353; Friburg and Soleure 130 years after; Basle and Schaffhausen in 1501; and Appenzel, in 1513, completed the confederacy, which repeatedly defeated the united powers of France and Germany; till, by the treaty of Westphalia, in 1648, their confederacy was declared to be a free and independent state.

Neuchatel, since the year 1707, has been under the dominion of the king of Prussia; but the inhabitants are free to serve any prince whatever, and by no means bound to take an active part in his wars. The king has the power of recruiting among them, and of naming a governor; but the revenue he derives is not above 5000l. yearly, great part of which is laid out on the roads and other public works of the country. With regard to the military character and great actions of the Swisses, we must refer the reader to the histories of Europe.

S P A I N.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.
Length	700	} between { 10 and 3 East longitude. 46 and 44 North latitude.
Breadth	500	

Containing 150,763 square miles, with sixty-nine inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded on the West by Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean; by the Mediterranean on the East by the Bay of Biscay and the Pyrenean mountains, which separate from France, on the North and by the strait of the sea at Gibraltar on the South.

It is now divided into fourteen districts, besides islands in the Mediterranean.

Spain

In the Mediterranean.

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Such is Biscay, a mould, fermentation of the climate to the province; Yet countries of a The same of St. Juan to thirteen and the

Countries' Names.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Spain	Castile, New	27,840	220	180	MADRID. { N. Lat. 49-25; W. Long. 3-10.
	Andalusia	16,500	273	135	Seville
	Castile, Old	14,400	193	140	Burgos
	Aragon	13,318	190	105	Saragossa
	Extremadura	12,600	180	123	Bajados
	Galicia	11,000	165	120	Compostella
	León	11,200	167	96	León
	Catalonia	9,000	171	110	Barcelona
	Grenada	8,100	200	45	Grenada
	Valencia	6,800	180	75	Valencia
	Biscay and Ipuscoa	4,760	140	55	Bilboa
	Asturia	4,000	124	55	Oviedo
	Murcia	3,600	87	65	Murcia
Upper Navarre	3,000	92	45	Pampeluna	
In the Medi- terranean.	Majorca I.	1,400	58	40	Majorca
	Yvica I.	625	37	25	Yvica
	Minorca I.	520	41	20	Citadella
Total		150,763			

The town and fortrefs of Gibraltar, subject to Great Britain.

[ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] Spain formerly included Portugal, and was known to the ancients by the name of Iberia, and Hesperia, as well as Hispania. It was, about the time of the Punic wars, divided into Citerior and Ulterior; the Citerior contained the provinces lying north of the river Ebro; and the Ulterior, which was the largest part, comprehended all that lay beyond that river. Innumerable are the internal changes that it afterwards underwent; but they are less accurately known than those of any other European country.

[CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] Except during the equinoctial rains, the air of Spain is dry and serene, but excessively hot in the southern provinces in June, July, and August. The vast mountains that run through Spain, are, however, very beneficial to the inhabitants, by the refreshing breezes that come from them in the southernmost parts; though those towards the north and north-east are in the winter very cold.

Such is the moisture of the hills, bounded on the north by the bay of Biscay, and to the south by snowy mountains, that no care is sufficient to preserve their fruits, their grain, their instruments of iron, from mould, from rot, and from rust. Both the acetous and the putrid fermentation here make a rapid progress. Besides the relaxing humidity of the climate, the common food of the inhabitants contributes much to the prevalence of most diseases which infect the principality of Asturia. Yet, although subject to such a variety of endemical diseases, few countries can produce more instances of longevity; many live to the age of a hundred, some to a hundred and ten, and others much longer. The same observation may be extended to Gallicia, where, in the parish of St. Juan de Poyo, A. D. 1724, the curate administered the sacrament to thirteen persons whose ages together made one thousand four hundred and ninety-nine, the youngest of these being one hundred and ten, and the oldest one hundred and twenty-seven. But in Villa de Fofa-

nanas, one Juan de Outeyro, a poor labourer, died in the year 1746, aged more than one hundred and forty-six years.

The soil of Spain was formerly very fruitful in corn; but the natives have lately found some scarcity of it, by their diffuse of tillage, through their indolence; the causes of which will be afterwards explained. It produces, in many places, almost spontaneously, the richest and most delicious fruits that are to be found in France and Italy; oranges, lemons, prunes, citrons, almonds, raisins, and figs. The wines of Spain, especially sack and sherry, are in high request among foreigners. There are, in the district of Malaga (according to Mr. Townshend), fourteen thousand wine-presses, chiefly employed in making the rich wine, which, if white, from the nature of the country, is called *Mountain*; if red, from the colour, *vino tinto*, known in England by the name of Tent. Good Mountain is sold from thirteen to sixteen pounds the butt, of one hundred and thirty-five gallons; according to quality and age. It is reckoned that from eight hundred to a thousand vessels enter this port every year, of which about one-tenth are Spanish, and the exports in wine, fruit, oil, and fish, are computed at about 375,000*l.* per annum; but it has been considerably more.

Spain indeed offers to the traveller large tracts of unpromising, because uncultivated, ground; but no country perhaps maintains such a number of inhabitants who neither toil nor work for their food; such are the generous qualities of the soil. Even sugar-canes thrive in Spain; and it yields saffron, honey, and silk, in great abundance. A late writer, Ustariz, a Spaniard, computes the number of shepherds in Spain to be 40,000; and has given us a most curious detail of their œconomy, their changes of pasture at certain times of the year, and many other particulars unknown till lately to the public. Those sheep-walks afford the finest of wool, and are a treasure in themselves. Some of the mountains in Spain are clothed with rich trees, fruits, and herbage, to the tops; and Seville oranges are noted all over the world. No country produces a greater variety of aromatic herbs, which render the taste of their kids and sheep so exquisitely delicious. The kingdom of Murcia abounds so much with mulberry-trees, that the product of its silk amounts to 200,000*l.* a year. Upon the whole, few countries in the world owe more than Spain does to nature, and less to industry.

The medicinal waters of Spain are little known; but many salutiferous springs are found in Grenada, Seville, and Cordova. All over Spain the waters are found to have such healing qualities, that they are excelled by those of no country in Europe; and they are continually more and more resorted to, especially at Alhama, in Grenada.

MOUNTAINS. It is next to impossible to specify these, they are so numerous; the chief, and the highest, are the Pyrenees, near 200 miles in length, which extend from the bay of Biscay to the Mediterranean, and divide Spain from France. Over these mountains there are only five narrow passages to France; and the road over the pass that separated Roussillon from Catalonia, reflects great honour on the engineer who planned it. It formerly required the strength of 30 men to support, and nearly as many oxen to drag up a carriage, which four horses now do with ease. The Cantabrian mountains (as they are called) are a kind of continuation of the Pyrenees, and reach to the Atlantic ocean, south of Cape Finisterre. No Englishman ought to be unacquainted with Mount Calpe, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, and, in former times,

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one of the Pillars of Hercules; the other, Mount Abyla, lying opposite to it in Africa.

Among the mountains of Spain, Montserrat is particularly worthy the attention of the curious traveller; one of the most singular in the world, for situation, shape, and composition. It stands in a vast plain, about thirty miles from Barcelona, and nearly in the centre of the principality of Catalonia. It is called by the Catalonians Monte-ferrado, or the sawed mountain; and is so named from its singular and extraordinary form; for it is broken and divided, and crowned with an infinite number of spiring cones, or pine heads, so that it has the appearance, when seen at a distance, of the work of man; but, upon a nearer approach, is seen to be evidently the production of nature. It is a spot so admirably adapted for retirement and contemplation, that it has, for many ages, been inhabited only by monks and hermits, whose first vow is never to forsake it. When the mountain is first perceived at a distance, it has the appearance of an infinite number of rocks cut into conical forms, and built one upon another to a prodigious height, and seems like a pile of grotto work, or Gothic spires. Upon a nearer view, each cone appears of itself a mountain: and the whole composes an enormous mass about 14 miles in circumference. The Spaniards compute it to be two leagues in height*. As it is like no other mountain, so it stands quite unconnected with any, though not far distant from some that are very lofty. A convent is erected on the mountain, dedicated to our lady of Montserrat, to which pilgrims resort from the farthest parts of Europe. All the poor who come here are fed gratis for three days, and all the sick received into the hospital. Sometimes, on particular festivals, seven thousand persons arrive in one day; but people of condition pay a reasonable price for what they eat. On different parts of the mountain are a number of hermitages, all of which have their little chapels, ornaments for saying mass, water cisterns, and most of them little gardens. The inhabitant of one of these hermitages, which is dedicated to St. Benito, has the privilege of making an annual entertainment on a certain day, on which day all the other hermits are invited, when they receive the sacrament from the hands of the mountain vicar, and, after divine service, dine together. They meet also at this hermitage on the days of the saints to whom their several hermitages are dedicated, to say mass, and commune with each other. But at other times they live in a very solitary and reclusive manner, perform various penances, and adhere to very rigid rules of abstinence. They never eat flesh; nor are they allowed to keep within their walls either dog, cat, bird, or any living thing, lest their attention should be withdrawn from heavenly to earthly affections. The number of professed monks there is 76, of lay brothers 28, and of singing boys 25; besides physician, surgeon, and servants. Mr. Thicknesse, who has published a very particular description of this extraordinary mountain, was informed by one of the hermits, that he often saw from his habitation the islands of Minorca, Mallorca, and Yvica, and the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers of Spain are the Douro, formerly Durus, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean, below Oporto, in Portugal; the Tajo or Tagus, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean below Lisbon; the Guadiana which falls into the same ocean near Cape Finisterre; as does the Guadalquiver, now Turio, at St. Lu-

* Mr. Swinburne estimates its height at only 7,300 feet, and observes that the arms of the convent are the Virgin Mary sitting at the foot of a rock half cut through by a saw.

car; and the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, which falls into the Mediterranean sea below Tortosa.

The river Tinto, the qualities of which are very extraordinary, rises in Sierra Morena, and empties itself into the Mediterranean, near Huelva. The name of Tinto has been given it from the tinge of its waters, which are as yellow as a topaz, hardening the sand, and petrifying it in a most surprising manner. If a stone happens to fall in, and rest upon another, they both become, in a year's time, perfectly united and conglutinated.—This river withers all the plants on its banks, as well as the roots of trees, which it dyes of the same hue as its waters. No kind of verdure will come up where it reaches, nor any fish live in its stream. It kills worms in cattle when given them to drink; but in general no animals will drink out of this river, excepting goats, whose flesh nevertheless has an excellent flavour. These singular properties continue till other rivulets run into it and alter its nature; for when it passes by Niebla, it is not different from other rivers. It falls into the Mediterranean sea, six leagues lower down.

Several lakes in Spain, particularly that of Deneventa, abound with fish, particularly excellent trout. The water of a lake near Antiquera is made into salt by the heat of the sun.

[BAYS.] The chief bays are those of Biscay, Ferrol, Corunna (commonly called the Groyne), Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Carthage, Alicante, Alicant, Valencia, Roses, Majorca in that island, and the harbour of PortMahon in the island of Minorca. The strait of Gibraltar divides Europe from Africa.

[METALS AND MINERALS.] Spain abounds in both, and in as great variety, and of the same kinds, as the other countries of Europe. Cornelian, agate, loadstones, jacinths, turquois stones, quicksilver, copper, lead, sulphur, alum, calamine, crystal, marbles of several kinds, porphyry, the finest jasper, and even diamonds, emeralds, and amethysts, are found here. The Spanish iron, next to that of Damascus, furnishes the best arms in the world; and, in former times, brought in a vast revenue to the crown; the art of working it being here brought to great perfection.—Spanish gun-barrels, and swords of Toledo, are still highly valued. Among the ancients, Spain was celebrated for gold and silver mines; and silver was in such plenty, that Strabo, who was contemporary with Augustus Cæsar, informs us, that when the Carthaginians took possession of Spain, their domestic and agricultural utensils were of that metal. These mines have now disappeared; but whether by their being exhausted, or through the indolence of the inhabitants in not working them, we cannot say; though the latter cause seems to be the most probable.

[ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] The Spanish horses, especially those of
BY SEA AND LAND. } Andalusia, are thought to be the hand-
somest of any in Europe, and at the same time very swift and service-
able. The king does all he can to monopolise the finest breeds for his
own stables and service. Spain furnishes likewise mules and black
cattle; and the wild bulls have so much ferocity, that the bull-feasts
were the most magnificent spectacle the court of Spain could exhibit;
nor are they yet disused. Wolves are the chief beasts of prey in Spain,
which is well stored with all the game and wild fowl that are to be
found in the neighbouring countries already described. The Spanish
seas afford excellent fish of all kinds, especially anchovies, which are
here cured in great perfection. This country is much infested with
locusts; and Mr. Dillon observes, that in 1754, La Mancha was cover-
ed with them, and the horrors of famine assailed the fruitful provinces

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of Andalusia, Murcia, and Valencia. They have sometimes appeared in the air in such numbers as to darken the sky; the clear atmosphere of Spain has become gloomy; and the finest summer day in Estremadura been rendered more dismal than the winter of Holland. Their sense of smelling is so delicate, that they can discover a corn field or a garden at a considerable distance; which they will ravage almost in an instant. Mr. Dillon is of opinion, that the country people, by timely attention and observation, might destroy the eggs of these formidable insects, and thereby totally extirpate them.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } Spain, formerly the most populous kingdom in Europe, is now but thinly inhabited. This is owing, partly to the great drains of people sent to America, and partly to the indolence of the natives, who will not labour to raise food for their families. Another cause may be assigned, and that is, the vast numbers of ecclesiastics, of both sexes, who lead a life of celibacy. Some writers have assigned several other causes, such as their wars with the Moors, and the final expulsion of that people. The present inhabitants of this kingdom have been computed by Feyjoo, a Spanish writer, to amount to 9,250,000; so that England is three times as populous as Spain, considering its extent.

The persons of the Spaniards are generally tall, especially the Castilians; their hair and complexions swarthy, but their countenances are very expressive. The court of Madrid has of late been at great pains to clear their upper lips of mustachoes, and to introduce among them the French dress, instead of their black cloaks, their short jerkins, strait breeches, and long Toledo swords, which dress is now chiefly confined to the lower ranks. The Spaniards, before the accession of the house of Bourbon to their throne, affected that antiquated dress, in hatred and contempt of the French; and the government probably will find some difficulty in abolishing it entirely, as the same spirit is far from being extinguished. An old Castilian, or Spaniard, who sees none above him, thinks himself the most important being in nature; and the same pride is commonly communicated to his descendents. This is the true reason why many of them are so fond of removing to America, where they can retain all their native importance, without the danger of seeing a superior.

Ridiculous, however, as this pride is, it is productive of the most exalted qualities. It inspires the nation with generous, humane, and virtuous sentiments; it being seldom found that a Spanish nobleman, gentleman, or even trader, is guilty of a mean action. During the most embittered wars they have had with England, for near 70 years past, we know of no instance of their taking advantage (as they might easily have done) of confiscating the British property on board their galleons and Plate fleet, which was equally secure in time of war as peace. This is the more surprising; as Philip V. was often needy, and his ministers were far from being scrupulous of breaking their good faith with Great Britain.

By the best and most credible accounts of the late wars, it appears that the Spaniards in America gave the most humane and noble relief to all British subjects who were in distress, and fell into their hands, not only by supplying them with necessaries, but money; and treating them in the most hospitable manner while they remained among them.

Having said thus much, we are carefully to distinguish the Spanish nobility, gentry, and traders, from the lower ranks of Spaniards, who are as mean and rapacious as those of any other country. The kings

of Spain, of the house of Bourbon, have seldom ventured to employ native Spaniards, of great families, as their ministers. These are generally French or Italians, but most commonly the latter, who rise into power by the most infamous arts, and of late times from the most abject stations.—Hence it is, that the French kings of Spain, since their accession to that monarchy, have been but very indifferently served in the cabinet. Alberoni, who had the greatest genius among them, embroiled his master with all Europe, till he was driven into exile and disgrace; and Grimaldi, the last of their Italian ministers, hazarded a rebellion in the capital, by his oppressive and unpopular measures.

The common people who live on the coasts, partake of all the bad qualities that are to be found in other nations. They are an assemblage of Jews, French, Russians, Irish adventurers, and English smugglers, who being unable to live in their own country, mingle with the Spaniards.—In time of war, they follow privateering with great success; and when peace returns, they engage in all illicit practices, and often enter into the Irish and Walloon guards in the Spanish service. There are about 40,000 gypsies, who, besides their trade of fortune-telling, are inn-keepers in the small towns and villages. The character of the Spaniards is thus drawn by Mr. Swinburne. "The Catalans appear to be the most active stirring set of men, the best calculated for business, travelling, and manufactures. The Valencians are a more sedate race, better adapted to the occupations of husbandmen, less eager to change place, and of a much more timid, suspicious cast of mind than the former. The Andalusians seem to be the greatest talkers and rhodomontalers of Spain. The Castilians have a manly frankness, and less appearance of cunning and deceit. The New Castilians are perhaps the least industrious of the whole nation; the Old Castilians are laborious, and retain more of ancient simplicity of manner; both are of a firm determined spirit. The Arragoneze are a mixture of the Castilian and Catalan, rather inclining to the former. The Biscayners are acute and diligent, fiery and impatient of control, more resembling a colony of republicans, than a province of an absolute monarchy; and the Galicians are a plodding pains-taking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in search of a hardly earned subsistence."

The beauty of the Spanish ladies reigns mostly in their novels and romances; for though it must be acknowledged that Spain produces very fine women as any country in the world, yet beauty is far from forming their general character. In their persons, they are generally small and slender; but they are said to employ great art in supplying the defects of nature.—If we were to hazard a conjecture, we might reasonably suppose that those artifices rather diminish than increase beauty, especially when they are turned of 25. Their indiscriminate use of paint, not only upon their faces, but their necks, arms, and hands, undoubtedly disfigures their complexions and shrivels their skin. It is at the same time universally allowed, that they have great wit and vivacity.

Among the many good qualities possessed by the Spaniards, their sobriety in eating and drinking is remarkable. They frequently break fast, as well as sup, in bed. Their breakfast is usually chocolate, tea being very seldom drank. Their dinner is generally beef, mutton, veal, pork, and bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together. They live much upon garlic, chives, sallad, and radishes; which, according to one of their proverbs, are food for a gentleman. The men drink very

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little wine; and the women use water or chocolate. Both sexes usually sleep after dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evening. This is the common practice in warm countries, such as Italy, Spain, and Portugal, where, generally speaking, the weather is clear, and the inhabitants are mostly in the habit of rising much earlier than in England. The human body cannot furnish spirits sufficient to resist the effects of the violent heat, through the whole day, without some such refreshment; it is therefore the universal practice to go to sleep for some hours after dinner, which in those countries is over early; and this time of repose, which lasts for two or three hours, is in Spain called *the Siesta*, and in Portugal *the Sesta*. Dancing is so much their favourite entertainment, that you may see a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the same country-dance. Many of their theatrical exhibitions are insipid and ridiculous bombast. The prompter's head sometimes appears through a trap-door, above the level of the stage, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience. Gallantry is a ruling passion in Spain. Jealousy, since the accession of the house of Bourbon, has slept in peace. The nightly musical serenades of mistresses by their lovers are still in use. The fights of the cavaliers, or bull-fights, are almost peculiar to this country, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On these occasions, young gentlemen have an opportunity of showing their courage and activity before their mistresses; and the valour of the cavalier is proclaimed, honoured, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceness of the bulls he has killed in these encounters. Great pains are used in settling the form and weapons of the combat, so as to give a relief to the gallantry of the cavalier. The diversion itself, which is attended with circumstances of great barbarity, is undoubtedly of Moorish original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaisance, and partly through rivalry.

There is not a town in Spain but what has a large square for the purpose of exhibiting bull-fights; and it is said, that even the poorest inhabitants of the smallest villages will often club together, in order to procure a cow or an ox, and fight them, riding upon asses for want of horses.

RELIGION.] The Romish religion is the only one tolerated in Spain. The inquisition is a tribunal disgraceful to human nature; but though disused, it is not yet abrogated; but the ecclesiastics and their officers can carry no sentence into execution without the royal authority. The Spaniards embrace and practise the Roman catholic religion with all its absurdities; and in this they have been so steady, that their king is distinguished by the epithet of *Most Catholic*. It appears, however, that the burning zeal which distinguished their ancestors above the rest of the catholic world, hath lost much of its activity, and seems nearly extinguished, and the power of the clergy has been much reduced of late years. A royal edict has also been issued, to prevent the admission of novices into the different convents, without special permission; which has a great tendency to reduce the monastic orders. It is computed that there are now, in the kingdom of Spain, 14,000 friars, 34,000 nuns, and 20,000 secular clergy, but as little true moral religion as in any country under heaven.

In Catalonia, the confidence of the people in the intercession of saints has at all periods been a source of consolation to them, but upon some occasions has betrayed them into mischief. Every company of artisans, and every ship that sails, is under the immediate protection of

some patron. Besides folio volumes, which testify the innumerable miracles performed by our lady in Montserrat, every subordinate shrine is loaded with votive tablets. This has been the parent of presumption, and among the merchants has brought many families to want. The companies of insurance, in the last war, having each of them its favourite saint, such as San Ramon de Penaforte, la Virgen de la Merced, and others, associated in form by the articles of partnership, and named in every policy of insurance; and having with the most scrupulous exactness allotted to them their correspondent dividend, the same as to any other partner, they concluded that with such powerful associates it was not possible for them to suffer loss. Under this persuasion, they ventured, about the year 1779, to insure the French West Indiamen, at fifty per cent. when the English and Dutch had refused to do it at any premium, and indeed when most of the ships were already in the English ports. By this fatal stroke, all the insuring companies, except two, were ruined.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] In Spain there are eight archbishoprics, and forty-six bishoprics. The archbishop of Toledo is the primate of Spain; he is great chancellor of Castile, and has a revenue of 100,000l. sterling per annum; but the Spanish court has now many ways of lessening the revenues of the church, as by pensions, donations to hospitals, &c. and premiums to the societies of agriculture. This archbishopric pays annually 15,000 ducats to the monks of the Escorial, besides other pensions; and it is asserted that there is not a bishopric in Spain but has somebody or other quartered upon it; and the second-rate benefices are believed to be in the same predicament. Out of the rich canonries and prebends, are taken the pensions of the new order of knights of Carlos Tercero. The riches of the Spanish churches and convents are the unvarying objects of admiration to all travellers as well as natives; but there is a sameness in them all, excepting that they differ in the degrees of treasure and jewels they contain.

LANGUAGE.] The Spanish language, like the Italian, is derived from the Latin; and it might properly be called a bastard Latin, were it not for the terminations, and the exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths, especially the former. It is a majestic and expressive language: and it is remarkable, that foreigners who understand it best, prize it most. It makes but a poor figure even in the best translations; and Cervantes speaks almost as aukward English, as Shakspeare does French. It may, however, be considered as a standard tongue, having nearly retained its purity for upwards of 200 years. Their Paternoster runs thus: *Padre nuestro, que estas en el cielo, santificado de se el tu nombre; venga a nos el tu reino; hagase tu voluntad, assi en la tierra como en el cielo; el pan nuestro de cada dia da nos de oy; y perdona nos nuestras deudas assi como nos otros perdonamos a nuestros deudores; no nos dexes cair en la tentacion, mas libra nos de mal, porque tao es el reino; y la gloria; y la gloria per los siglos. Amen.*

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Spain has not produced learned men in proportion to the excellent capacities of its natives. This defect may, in some measure, be owing to the indolence and bigotry of the Spaniards, which prevents them from making that progress in the polite arts which they otherwise would: but the greatest impediment to literature in Spain is the despotic nature of its government. Several of the ancient fathers of the church were Spaniards; and learning owes much to Isidore, bishop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Spain has

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likewise produced some excellent physicians. Such was the gloom of the Austrian government that took place with the emperor Charles V. that the inimitable Cervantes, the author of *Don Quixote*, born at Madrid in 1549, listed in a station little superior to that of a common soldier, and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto, in which he lost his left hand. His satire upon knight-errantry, in his adventures of *Don Quixote*, did as much service to his country by curing them of that ridiculous spirit, as it now does honour to his own memory. He was in prison for debt when he composed the first part of his history, and is perhaps to be placed at the head of moral and humorous satirists.

The Visions of Quevedo, and some other of his humorous and satirical pieces, having been translated into the English language, have rendered that author well known in this country. He was born at Madrid in the year 1570, and was one of the best writers of his age, excelling equally in verse and in prose. Besides his merit as a poet, he was well versed in the oriental languages, and possessed great erudition. His works are comprised in three volumes, 4to. two of which consist of poetry, and the third of pieces in prose. As a poet, he excelled both in the serious and burlesque style, and was happy in a turn of humour similar to that which we admire in Butler and Swift.

Poetry was cultivated in Spain at an early period. The most distinguished dramatic poet of this nation was Lopez de Vega, who was contemporary with our Shakespeare. He possessed an imagination astonishingly fertile, and wrote with great facility; but in his dramatic works he disregarded the unities, and adapted his works more to the taste of the age, than to the rules of criticism. His lyric compositions, and fugitive pieces, with his prose essays, form a collection of fifty volumes, besides his dramatic works, which make twenty-six volumes more; exclusive of four hundred scriptural dramatic pieces, called in Spain *Autos Sacramentales*. Calderon was also a dramatic writer of considerable note, but many of his plays are very licentious in their tendency.

Tostatus, a divine, the most voluminous perhaps that ever wrote, was a Spaniard; but his works have been long distinguished only by their bulk. Herrera, and some other historians, particularly De Solis, have shown great abilities in history, by investigating the antiquities of America, and writing the history of its conquest by their countrymen.— Among the writers who have lately appeared in Spain, Father Fejoo has been one of the most distinguished. His performances display great ingenuity, very extensive reading, and uncommon liberality of sentiment, especially when his situation and country are considered. Many of his pieces have been translated into English, and published in four volumes, 8vo. Don Francisco Perez Bayer, archdeacon of Valencia, and author of a Dissertation on the Phœnician Language, may be placed in the first line of Spanish literati. Spain has likewise produced many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, who are equally amusing and instructive.

Some of the Spaniards have distinguished themselves in the polite arts; and not only the cities, but the palaces, especially the Escorial, discover many striking specimens of their abilities as sculptors and architects; Palomino, in an elaborate treatise on the art of painting, in two volumes, folio, has inserted the lives of two hundred and thirty-three painters and sculptors, who flourished in Spain from the time of Ferdinand the Catholic, to the conclusion of the reign of Philip IV. Amongst the most eminent Spanish painters, were Velasques; Murillo,

who is commonly called the Spanish Vandyke; Ribeira; and Claudio Coello, whose style of painting was very similar to that of Paul Veronese.

UNIVERSITIES.] In Spain are reckoned 24 universities, the chief of which is Salamanca, founded by Alphonfus, ninth king of Leon, in the year 1200. It contains 21 colleges, some of which are very magnificent. Most of the nobility of Spain send their sons to be educated here. The others are, Seville, Granada, Compostella, Toledo, Valladolid, Alcalá, Sigüenza, Valencia, Lerida, Huesca, Saragossa, Tortosa, Ossuna, Onata, Galdia, Barcelona, Murcia, Taragona, Baeza, Avila, Oritella, Oviedo, and Palencia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The former of these consist **ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL.** } chiefly of Roman and Moorish antiquities. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley between two hills, and is supported by a double row of 199 arches. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terrago, and different parts of Spain. A ruinous watch-tower, near Cadiz, is vulgarly, but erroneously, thought to be one of the pillars of Hercules. Near the city of Salamanca are the remains of a Roman way, paved with large flat stones; it was continued to Merida, and from thence to Seville. At Toledo are the remains of an old Roman theatre, which is now converted into a church, said to be one of the most curious remains of antiquity. It is 600 feet in length, 500 in breadth, and of a proportionable height; the roof, which is amazingly bold and lofty, is supported by 350 pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven aisles, in which are 366 altars, and 24 gates; every part being enriched and adorned with the most noble and costly ornaments. At Martorel, a large town, where much black lace is manufactured, is a very high bridge, built, in 1768, out of the ruins of a decayed one that had existed 1985 years from its erection by Hannibal. At the north end is a triumphal arch or gateway, said to have been raised by that general in honour of his father Hamilcar. It is almost entire, well proportioned and simple, without any kind of ornament, except a rim or two of hewn stone. Near Mulviedro (once the faithful Saguntum destroyed by Hannibal), are some Roman remains — as the ruins of the theatre, an exact semicircle about 82 yards diameter; some of the galleries are cut out of the rock, and 9000 persons might attend the exhibitions, without inconvenience.

The Moorish antiquities are rich and magnificent. Among the most distinguished of these is the royal palace of the Alhambra, at Granada, which is one of the most entire as well as the most stately of any of the edifices which the Moors erected in Spain. It was built in 1280, by the second Moorish king of Granada; and, in 1492, in the reign of their eighteenth king, was taken by the Spaniards. It is situated on a hill, which is ascended by a road bordered with hedges of double or imperial myrtles, and rows of elms. On this hill, within the walls of the Alhambra, the emperor Charles V. began a new palace in 1568, which was never finished, though the shell of it remains. It is built of yellow stone: the outside forms a square of one hundred and ninety feet. The inside is a grand circular court, with a portico of the Tuscan, and a gallery of the Doric order, each supported by thirty-two columns, made of as many single pieces of marble. The grand entrance is ornamented with columns of jasper, on the pedestals of which are representations of battles, in marble basso-relievo. The Alhambra itself is a mass of many houses and towers, walled round, and built of large

stones of different dimensions. Almost all the rooms have stucco walls and ceilings, some carved, some painted, and some gilt, and covered with various Arabic sentences. Here are several baths, the walls, floors, and ceilings of which are of white marble. The gardens abound with orange and lemon trees, pomegranates, and myrtles. At the end of the gardens is another palace called Ginaraliph, situated on a more elevated station than the Alhambra. From the balconies of this palace is one of the finest prospects in Europe, over the whole fertile plain of Grenada, bounded by the snowy mountains. The Moors to this day regret the loss of Grenada, and still offer up prayers to God for the recovery of the city. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Moorish times, remain in Spain; some of them in tolerable preservation, and others exhibiting superb ruins.

Among the natural curiosities, the medicinal springs, and some noisy lakes, form a principal part; but we must not forget the river Guadiana, which, like the Mole in England, runs under ground, and then rises again. The royal cabinet of natural history, at Madrid, was opened to the public, by his majesty's orders, in 1775. Every thing in this collection is ranged with neatness and elegance, and the apartments are opened twice a week for the public, besides being shown privately to strangers of rank. The mineral part of the cabinet, containing precious stones, marbles, ores, &c. is very perfect; but the collection of birds and beasts at present is not large, though it may be expected to improve rapidly, if care be taken to obtain the productions of the Spanish American colonies. Here is also a curious collection of vases, basons, ewers, cups, plates, and ornamental pieces, of the finest agates, amethysts, rock crystals, &c. mounted in gold and enamel, set with cameos, cataglios, &c. in elegant taste, and of very fine workmanship, said to have been brought from France by Philip V. The cabinet also contains specimens of Mexican and Peruvian vases and utensils.

In blowing up the rock of Gibraltar, many pieces of bones and teeth have been found incorporated with the stone, some of which have been brought to England, and deposited in the British Museum. On the west side of the mountain, is the cave called St. Michael's, eleven hundred and ten feet above the horizon. Many pillars, of various sizes, some of them two feet in diameter, have been formed in it by the droppings of water, which have petrified in falling. The water perpetually drips from the roof, and forms an infinite number of stalactites, of a whitish colour, composed of several coats or crusts, and which, as well as the pillars, continually increase in bulk, and may probably in time fill the whole cavern. From the summit of the rock, in clear weather, not only the town of Gibraltar may be seen, but the bay, the straits, the towns of St. Roque and Algeiras, and the Alpuxara mountains; mount Sycia, on the African shore, with its snowy top, the cities of Ceuta, Tangier, and great part of the Barbary coast.

MADRID (the chief city, &c.) Madrid, though unfortified, it being only surrounded by a mud wall, is the capital of Spain, and contains about 10000 inhabitants. It is surrounded with very lofty mountains, whose summits are frequently covered with snow. It is well paved and shaded, and some of the streets are spacious and handsome. The streets of Madrid are of brick, and are laid out chiefly for show, convenience being little considered: thus you will usually pass through two or three large apartments of no use, in order to come at a small room at the end where the family sit. The houses in general look more like prisons than the habitations of people at their liberty: the

windows, besides having a balcony, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and sometimes all the rest. Separate families generally inhabit the same house, as in Paris and Edinburgh. Foreigners are very much distressed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not fond of taking strangers into their houses, especially if they are not catholics. Its greatest excellency is the cheapness of its provisions; but neither tavern, coffee-house, nor newspaper, excepting the Madrid Gazette, are to be found in the whole city. The royal palace stands on an eminence, on the west side of the city; it is a spacious magnificent structure, consisting of three courts, and commands a very fine prospect. Each of the fronts is 470 feet in length, and 100 high, and there is no palace in Europe fitted up with greater magnificence; the great audience-chamber especially, which is 120 feet long, and hung with crimson velvet richly embroidered with gold. It is ornamented also with 12 looking glasses made at St. Ildefonso, each ten feet high, and with 12 tables of the finest Spanish marble. The other royal palaces round it are designed for hunting seats, or houses of retirement for their kings. Some of them contain fine paintings and good statues. The chief of those palaces are the Buen Retiro (now stripped of all its best pictures and furniture), Casa del Campo, Aranjuez, and St. Ildefonso.

A late traveller has represented the palace of Aranjuez, and its gardens, as extremely delightful. Here is also a park many leagues round cut across, in different parts, by alleys of two, three, and even four miles extent. Each of those alleys is formed by two double rows of elm trees; one double row on the right, and one on the left, which render the shade thicker. The alleys are wide enough to admit four coaches abreast, and betwixt each double row there is a narrow channel through which runs a stream of water. Between those alleys there are thick groves of smaller trees of various kinds; and thousands of deer and wild-boars wander there at large, besides numberless hares, rabbits, pheasants, partridges, and several other kinds of birds. The river Tagus runs through this place, and divides it into two unequal parts. The central point of this great park is the king's palace, which is partly surrounded by the garden, and is exceedingly pleasant, adorned with fountains and statues, and it also contains a vast variety of the most beautiful flowers, both American and European. As to the palace of Aranjuez itself, it is rather an elegant than a magnificent building.

The palace of St. Ildefonso is built of brick, plastered and painted, but no part of the architecture is agreeable. It is two stories high, and the garden-front has thirty-one windows, and twelve rooms in a suite. The gardens are on a slope, on the top of which is a great reservoir of water called here *El Mar* (the sea), which supplies the fountains; this reservoir is furnished from the torrents which pour down the mountains. The water-works are excellent, and far surpass those at Versailles. The great entry of the palace is somewhat similar to that of Versailles, and is with a large iron palisade. In the gardens are twenty-seven fountains; the basons are of white marble, and the statues, many of which are excellent, are of lead, bronzed and gilt. These gardens are in the French style, but ornamented with sixty-one very fine marble statues as large as life, with twenty-eight marble vases, and twenty lead vases gilt. The upper part of the palace contains many valuable paintings, and the lower part antique statues, busts, and basso relievo.

The pride of Spain, however, is the Escorial; and the natives perhaps with justice, that the building of it cost more than that of

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other palace in Europe. The description of this palace forms a sizeable quarto volume; and it is said that Philip II. who was its founder, expended upon it six millions of ducats. It contains a prodigious number of windows, 200 in the west front, and in the east 166, and the apartments are decorated with an astonishing variety of paintings, sculpture, tapestry, ornaments of gold and silver, marble, Jasper, gems, and other curious stones. This building, besides its palace, contains a church, large, and richly ornamented, a mausoleum, cloisters, a convent, a college, and a library, containing about thirty thousand volumes; but it is more particularly valuable for the Arabic and Greek manuscripts with which it is enriched. Above the shelves are paintings in fresco, by Barthelemi Carducho, the subjects of which are taken from sacred or profane history, or have relation to the sciences of which the shelves below present to us the elements. Thus, the council of Nice is represented above the books which treat of theology; the death of Archimedes at the siege of Syracuse, indicates those which relate to the mathematics; and Cicero pronouncing his oration in favour of Rabirius, the works relative to eloquence and the bar. A very singular circumstance in this library may be agreeable to the curious reader to know, which is, that, on viewing the books, he will find them placed the contrary way, so that the edges of the leaves are outwards, and contain their titles written on them. The reason for this custom is, that Arius Montanus, a learned Spaniard of the sixteenth century; whose library served as a foundation for that of the Escorial, had all his books placed and inscribed in that manner, which no doubt appeared to him to be the most commodious method of arranging them; that he had introduced his own method into the Escorial; and since his time, and for the sake of uniformity, it had been followed with respect to the books afterwards added. Here are also large apartments for all kinds of artists and mechanics; noble walks, with extensive parks and gardens, beautified with fountains and costly ornaments. The fathers that are in the convent are 200, and they have an annual revenue of 10,000*l*. The mausoleum, or burying place of the kings and queens of Spain, is called the Pantheon, because it is built upon the plan of that temple at Rome, as the church to which it belongs is upon the model of St. Peter's. It is thirty-six feet diameter, incrusted with fine marbles.

Allowing to the Spaniards their full estimate of the incredible sum showed on this palace, and on its furniture, statues, paintings, columns, and the like decorations, which are most amazingly rich and beautiful, yet we hazard nothing in saying, that the fabric itself discloses a bad taste upon the whole. The conceit of building it in the form of a gridiron, because St. Laurence, to whom it is dedicated, was broiled on such an utensil, and multiplying the same figure through the principal ornaments upon the doors, windows, altars, rituals, and sacerdotal habits, could have been formed only in the brain of a tasteless bigot, such as Philip II. who erected it to commemorate the victory he obtained over the French (but by the assistance of the English) at St. Quentin, on St. Laurence's day, in the year 1557. The apartment where the king resides forms the handle of the gridiron. The building is a long square of 340 feet by 580. The height of the roof is 100 feet. It has been enriched and adorned by his successors; but outside has a gloomy appearance, and the inside is composed of different structures, some of which are master-pieces of architecture, but forming a disagreeable whole. It must, however, be confessed, that the

pictures and statues that have found admission here, are excellent in their kind, and some of them not to be equalled even in Italy itself.

Cadiz is the great emporium of Spanish commerce. It stands on an island separated from the continent of Andalusia, without the Straits of Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the sea, over which a fortified bridge is thrown, and joins it to the main-land. The entrance into the bay is about 500 fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts, called the Puntals. The entrance has never been of late years attempted by the English in their wars with Spain, because of the vast interest our merchants have in the treasures there, which they could not reclaim from the captors. The streets are narrow, ill paved, and filthy, and full of rats in the night; the houses lofty, with flat roofs, and few are without a turret for a view of the sea. The population is reckoned at 140,000 inhabitants, of which 12,000 are French, and as many Italians. The cathedral has been already 50 years building, and the roof is not half finished. The environs are beautifully rural.

Cordova is now an inconsiderable place; the streets are crooked and dirty, and but few of the public or private buildings conspicuous for their architecture. The palaces of the inquisition and of the bishop are extensive and well situated. The cathedral was formerly a mosque, divided into seventeen aisles by rows of columns of various marbles, and is very rich in plate; four of the silver candlesticks cost 850*l.* a piece. The revenue of the see amounts to 3500*l.* per ann. but as the bishops cannot devise by will, all they die possessed of, escheats to the king.

Seville, the Julia of the Romans, is, next to Madrid, the largest city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population. The shape is circular, and the walls seem of Moorish construction; its circumference is five miles and a half. The suburb of Triana is as large as many towns, and remarkable for its gloomy Gothic castle, where in 1481, the inquisition was first established in Spain. Its manufactures in wool and silk, which formerly amounted to 16,000, are now reduced to 400; and its great office of commerce to Spanish America is removed to Cadiz. The cathedral of Seville is a fine Gothic building, with a curious steeple or tower, having a movable figure of a woman at the top, called La Giralda, which turns round with the wind, and which is referred to in Don Quixote. This steeple is reckoned one of the greatest curiosities in Spain, and is higher than St. Paul's in London; but the cathedral, in Mr. Swinburne's opinion, is by no means equal to York-minster for lightness, elegance, or Gothic delicacy. The clock made in the kingdom was set up in this cathedral, in the year 1409, in the presence of king Henry III. The prospect of the country round this city, beheld from the steeple of the cathedral, is extremely delightful.

Barcelona, formerly Barcino, said to be founded by Hamilcar Barca, is a large circular trading city, containing 15,000 houses, situated on the Mediterranean, facing Minorca, and is said to be the handsomest place in Spain; the houses are lofty and plain, and the streets well lighted and paved. The citadel is strong, and the place and inhabitants famous for the siege they sustained, in 1714, against a formidable army, when deserted both by England and the emperor, for who they had taken up arms. The number of inhabitants is supposed to be nearly 250,000, and they supply Spain with most of the cloth and arms for the troops. A singular custom prevails among them, that on the 1st of November, the eve of All Souls, they run about from

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to house to eat chestnuts, believing that for every chestnut they swallow with proper faith and unction, they shall deliver a soul out of purgatory.

Valencia is a large and almost circular city, with lofty walls. The streets are crooked and narrow, and not paved; the houses ill built and filthy, and most of the churches tawdry. Priests, nuns, and friars, of every dress, swarm in this city, whose inhabitants are computed at 80,000. Its archbishopric is one of the best in Spain, to the amount of 40,000l. sterling a year.

Carthagená is a large city, but has very few good streets, and fewer remarkable buildings. The port is very complete, formed by nature in the figure of a heart, and the arsenal is a spacious square, south-west of the town, with 40 pieces of cannon to defend it towards the sea. When Mr. Swinburne visited it, in 1775, there were 800 Spanish criminals, and 600 Barbary slaves, working at the pumps, to keep the docks dry, &c. and treated with great inhumanity. The crimes for which the Spaniards were sent there, deserved indeed exemplary punishment.

Grenada stands on two hills, and the ancient palace of the Alhambra crowns the double summit between two rivers, the Douro, and the Xenil. The former glories of this city are passed away with its old inhabitants; the streets are now filthy, the aqueducts crumbled to dust, and its trade lost. Of 50,000 inhabitants, only 18,000 are reckoned useful; the surplus is made up of clergy, lawyers, children, and beggars. The amphitheatre for bull-fights is built of stone, and one of the best in Spain. The environs of the city are still pleasing and healthful.

Bilboa is situated on the banks of the river Ybaizabal, and is about two leagues from the sea. It contains about eight hundred houses, with a large square by the water-side, well shaded with pleasant walks, which extend to the outlets, on the banks of the river; where there are great numbers of houses and gardens, which form a most pleasing prospect, particularly in sailing up the river; for, besides the beautiful verdure, numerous objects open gradually to the eye, and the town appears as an amphitheatre, which enlivens the landscape, and completes the scenery. The houses are solid and lofty, the streets well paved and level, and the water is so conveyed into the streets, that they may be washed at pleasure; which renders Bilboa one of the neatest towns in Europe.

Malaga is an ancient city, and not less remarkable for its opulence and extensive commerce, than for the luxuriance of its soil, yielding in great abundance the most delicious fruits; whilst its rugged mountains afford those luscious grapes which give such reputation to the Malaga wine, known in England by the name of Mountain. The city is large and populous, and of a circular form, surrounded with a double wall, strengthened by stately towers, and has nine gates. A Moorish castle on the point of a rock commands every part of it. The streets are narrow, and the most remarkable building in it is a stupendous cathedral, begun by Philip II. said to be as large as that of St. Paul's in London. The bishop's income is 16,000l. sterling.

The city of Salamanca is of a circular form, built on three hills and two valleys, and on every side surrounded with prospects of fine houses, noble seats, gardens, orchards, fields, and distant villages; and is ancient, large, rich, and populous. There are ten gates to this city, and it contains twenty-five churches, twenty-five convents of friars, and the same number of nunneries. The most beautiful part of this city is the great

square, built about forty years ago. The houses are of three stories, and all of equal height and exact symmetry, with iron balconies, and a stone balustrade on the top of them: the lower part is arched, which forms a piazza all round the square, which extends two hundred and ninety-three feet on each side. Over some of the arches are medallions, with busts of the kings of Spain, and of several eminent men, in stone basso relievo, among which are those of Ferdinando Cortez, Francis Pizarro, Davila, and Cid Ruy. In this square the bull-fights are exhibited, for three days only, in the month of June. The river Tormes runs by this city, and has a bridge over it of twenty-five arches, built by the Romans, and yet entire.

Toledo is one of the most ancient cities in Spain, and during several centuries it held the rank of its metropolis. But the neighbourhood of Madrid has by degrees stripped it of its numerous inhabitants, and it would have been almost entirely deserted but for its cathedral, the income of which being in great part spent here, contributes chiefly to the maintenance of the few thousands that are left, and assists, in some degree, those small manufactures of sword-blades and silk-stuffs that are established in this city. It is now exceedingly ill built, poor, and mean.

Burgos was the ancient capital of the kingdom of Castile, but now in obscurity. The cathedral is one of the most magnificent structures, of the Gothic kind, now in Europe. Its form is exactly the same as that of York minster, and on the east end is an octagon building, exactly like the chapter-house at York.

Gibraltar, once a celebrated town and fortress of Lusitania, is at present in possession of Great Britain. Till the arrival of the Saracens in Spain, which took place in the year 711, or 712, the rock of Gibraltar went by the name of *Mons Calpe*. On their arrival, a fortress was built upon it, and it obtained the name of *Gibbel Tarif*, or Mount Tarif, from the name of their general, and thence Gibraltar. It was in the possession of the Spaniards and Moors by turns, till it was taken from the former by a combined fleet of English and Dutch ships, under the command of sir George Rooke, in 1704; and this rather through accident than any thing else. The prince of Hesse, with 1800 men, landed on the isthmus; but an attack on that side was found to be impracticable, on account of the steepness of the rock. The fleet fired 15,000 shot, without making any impression on the works, so that the fortress seems to be equally impregnable both to the British and Spaniards, except by famine. At last, a party of sailors, having got merry with grog, rowed close under the New Mole in their boats; and as they saw that the garrison, which consisted only of 100 men, did not mind them, they were encouraged to attempt a landing; and having mounted the mole, hoisted a red jacket as a signal of possession. This being immediately observed from the fleet, more boats and sailors were sent out who, in like manner, having ascended the works, got possession of a battery, and soon obliged the town to surrender. After many fruitless attempts to recover it, it was confirmed to the English, by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. Repeated attempts have been since made to wrest it from England, but without success; the last war has made it more famous than ever, when it underwent a long siege against the united forces of Spain and France, by land and sea, and was gallantly defended by general Elliot and his garrison, to the great loss and disgrace of the assailants; though it must be granted, the place is by nature almost impregnable. Near 300 pieces of cannon, of different bores, and

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chiefly brass, which were sunk before the port in the floating batteries; have been raised, and sold, to be distributed among the garrison. It is a commodious port, and formed naturally for commanding the passage of the Straits, or, in other words, the entrance into the Mediterranean and Levant seas. But the road is neither safe against an enemy nor storms; the bay is about twenty leagues in circumference. The straits are 24 miles long, and 15 broad; through which sets a current from the Atlantic ocean into the Mediterranean; and for the stemming of it, a brisk gale is required. The town was neither large nor beautiful, and in the last siege was totally destroyed by the enemies' bombs, but on account of its fortifications, is esteemed the key of Spain, and is always furnished with a garrison well provided for its defence. The harbour is formed by a mole, which is well fortified and planted with guns. Gibraltar is accessible on the land side only by a narrow passage between the rock, and the sea; but that is walled and fortified both by art and nature, and so inclosed by high steep hills, as to be almost inaccessible. It has but two gates on that side, and as many towards the sea. Across this isthmus the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, chiefly with a view to hinder the garrison of Gibraltar from having any intercourse with the country behind them; notwithstanding which they carry on a clandestine trade, particularly in tobacco, of which the Spaniards are exceedingly fond. The garrison is, however, confined within very narrow limits; and, as the ground produces scarcely any thing, all their provisions are brought them either from England or from Ceuta, on the opposite coast of Barbary. Formerly, Gibraltar was entirely under military government; but that power producing those abuses which are naturally attendant on it, the parliament thought proper to erect it into a body corporate, and the civil power is now lodged in its magistrates.

The chief islands belonging to Spain in Europe, are Minorca, Majorca, and Yvica. Minorca, which was taken by the English, in 1708, under general Stanhope, and confirmed to Great Britain by the treaty of Urecht, 1713, was re-taken by the Spaniards in the last war, February 15, 1782, and is now become a Spanish island again, containing about 27,000 inhabitants.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Spaniards, unhappily for themselves, make gold and silver the chief branches both of their exports and imports. They import it from America, from whence they export it to other countries of Europe. Cadiz is the chief emporium of this commerce. "Hither (says Mr. Anderson, in his History of Commerce) other European nations send their merchandize to be shipped off in Spanish bottoms for America, sheltered (or, as our old English phrase has it, coloured) under the names of the Spanish factors." Those foreign nations have here their agents and correspondents; and the consuls of those nations make a considerable figure. Cadiz has been said to have the finest storehouses and magazines for commerce of any city in Europe; and to it the flota and galleons regularly import the treasures of Spanish America. The proper Spanish merchandises exported from Cadiz to America are of no great value; but the duty on the foreign merchandise sent thither would yield a great revenue (and consequently the profits of merchants and their agents would sink) were it not for the many fraudulent practices for eluding those duties."

At St. Ildesonso the glass manufacture is carried on to a degree of perfection unknown in England. The largest mirrors are made in a brass frame, 162 inches long, 93 wide, and six deep, weighing near nine

tons. These are designed wholly for the royal palaces, and for presents from the king. Yet even for such purposes it is ill plac'd, and proves a devouring monster in a country where provisions are dear, fuel scarce, and carriage exceedingly expensive. Here is also a royal manufacture of linen, employing about 15 looms; by which it is said the king is a considerable loser.

In the city of Valencia there is a very respectable silk manufacture, in which five thousand looms, and three hundred stocking frames, give employment to upwards of 20,000 of the inhabitants, without enumerating those who exercise professions relative to the manufacture, such as persons who prepare the wood and iron work of so great a number of machines, or spin, wind, or die the silk. At Alcora, in the neighbourhood of Valencia, a manufacture of porcelain has been successfully established; and they very much excel in painted tiles. In Valencia, their best apartments are floored with these, and are remarkable for neatness, for coolness, and for elegance. They are stronger and much more beautiful than those of Holland.

At Carthage they make great quantities of the *esparto* ropes and cables, some of them spun like hemp, and others plaited. Both operations are performed with singular rapidity. These cables are excellent, because they float on the surface of the water, and are not therefore liable to be cut by the rocks on a foul coast. The *esparto* rush makes good mats for houses, *alpargates*, or short trowsers and buskins for peasants, and latterly it has been spun into fine thread for the purpose of making cloth. If properly encouraged, there is no doubt that the manufacture may be brought to such perfection, as to make this once useless rush a source of abundant wealth to the southern provinces of Spain, for it is the peculiar and natural production of all the high and uncultivated mountains of the south.

As to the hempen cordage, which is made in Spain for the use of the royal navy, M. de Bourgoarme observes that it is better and more durable than that of the principal dock-yards and magazines in Europe; because, in combing the hemp, all the towy part we leave in it is taken out, and made use of in caulking, whence results the double advantage of more solid cordage, and the better caulking of vessels. Another custom in our rope-yards, which the Spaniards have avoided adopting, is the tarring the cordage and keeping it a long time piled up. In this state the tar ferments, and eats the hemp, and the cordage is extremely apt to break after being used but a short space of time.

The Spaniards formerly obtained their hemp from the north; at present they are able to do without the assistance, in this article, of any other nation. The kingdom of Grenada already furnishes them with the greatest part of the hemp they use; and, in case of need, they may have recourse to Arragon and Navarre. All the sail-cloth and cordage in the magazines at Cadiz are made with Spanish hemp; the texture of which is even, close, and solid.

The most important production of this country, and the most valuable article of commerce, is barilla, a species of pot-ash, procured by burning a great variety of plants almost peculiar to the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia, such as *foxa*, *algazul*, *suzon*, *soyennes*, *salicornia*, with *barilla*. It is used for making soap, for bleaching, and for glass. All the nations in Europe, by the combustion of various vegetable substances, make some kind of pot-ash; but the superior excellence of the barilla has hitherto secured the preference. The country producing it is about sixty leagues in length, and eight in breadth, on the borders of the Me-

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Mediterranean. The quantity exported annually from Spain (according to the testimonies of both Mr. Townsend, and M. de Bourgoanne) is about a hundred and fifty quintals, most of which are sent to France and England, and a small quantity to Genoa and Venice.

Spain is one of the richest countries in Europe in salt-petre, a most important article of commerce. The account of this surprising manufacture we shall abridge from Mr. Townsend. "I observed," says he, "a large enclosure, with a number of mounds of about twenty feet high, at regular distances from each other. These were collected from the rubbish of the city of Madrid, and the scrapings of the highways. They had remained all the winter piled up in the manner in which I found them. At this time men were employed in wheeling them away, and spreading abroad the earth to the thickness of about one foot, whilst others were turning what had been previously exposed to the influence of the sun and air. The preceding summer these heaps had been washed, and being thus exposed, would yield the same quantity of salt again; and, as far as appears, the produce would never fail; but, after having been washed, no salt-petre can be obtained without a subsequent exposure. Some of this earth they can lixiviate once a year, some they have washed twenty times in the last seven years, and some they have subjected to this operation fifteen times in one year, judging always by their eye when they may wash it to advantage, and by their taste if it has yielded a lixivium of a proper strength; from which, by evaporating the water in boiling, they obtain the salt-petre."

The other manufactures of Spain are chiefly of wool, copper, and hardware. Great efforts have been made by the government, to prevent the other European nations from reaping the chief advantage of the American commerce; but these never can be successful, till a spirit of industry is awakened among the natives, so as to enable them to supply their American possessions with their own commodities and merchandise. Meanwhile, the good faith and facility with which the English, French, Dutch, and other nations, carry on this contraband trade, render them greater gainers by it than the Spaniards themselves are, the clear profits seldom amounting to less than twenty per cent. This evidently makes it an important concern, that those immense riches should belong to the Spaniards, rather than to any active European nation: but of this subject there will be occasion to speak in the account of America.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Spain, from being the most free, is now the most despotic kingdom in Europe; and the poverty which is so visible in most parts of the country is in a great degree the result of its government, in the administration of which no proper attention is paid to the interests and welfare of the people. The monarchy is hereditary, and females are capable of succession. It has even been questioned, whether his catholic majesty may not bequeath his crown, upon his demise, to any branch of the royal family he pleases. It is at least certain, that the house of Bourbon mounted the throne of Spain in virtue of the last will of Charles II.

The cortes, or parliaments of the kingdom, which formerly, especially in Castile, had greater power and privileges than those of England, are now abolished; but some faint remains of their constitution are still discernible in the government, though all of them are ineffectual, and under the control of the king.

The privy council, which is composed of a number of noblemen, or grandees, nominated by the king, sits only to prepare matters, and to

digest papers for the cabinet council, or junto, which consists of the first secretary of state, and three or four more named by the king, and in them resides the direction of all the executive part of government. The council of war takes cognisance of military affairs only. The council of Castile is the highest law tribunal of the kingdom. The several courts of the royal audiences are those of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragossa, Valencia, and Barcelona. These judge primarily in all causes within fifteen miles of their respective cities or capitals, and receive appeals from inferior jurisdictions. Besides these there are many subordinate tribunals, for the police, the finances, and other branches of business.

The government of Spanish America forms a system of itself, and is delegated to viceroys, and other magistrates, who are in their respective districts almost absolute. A council for the Indies is established in Old Spain, and consists of a governor, four secretaries, and twenty-two counsellors, besides officers. Their decision is final in matters relating to America. The members are generally chosen from the viceroys and magistrates who have served in that country. The two great viceroys, of Peru and Mexico are so considerable, that they are seldom trusted to one person for more than three years; and their emoluments are sufficient to make his fortune in that time.

The foreign possessions of the crown of Spain, besides those in America, are the town of Ceuta, Oran, and Masulquiver, on the coast of Barbary, in Africa; and the islands of St. Lazaro, the Philippines, and Ladrones, in Asia.

REVENUES.] The revenues arising to the king from Old Spain, yearly amount to 5,000,000 sterling, though some say eight; and they form the surest support of his government. His American income, it is true, is immense, but it is generally, in a manner, embezzled or anticipated before it arrives in Old Spain. The king has a fifth of all the silver mines that are worked, but little of it comes into his coffers. He falls upon means, however, in case of a war, or any public emergency, to sequester into his own hands great part of the American treasures belonging to his subjects, who never complain, because they are always punctually repaid with interest. The finances of his present catholic majesty are in excellent order, and on a better footing, both for himself and his people, than those of any of his predecessors.

As to the taxes whence the internal revenues arise, they are various, arbitrary, and so much suited to conveniency, that we cannot fix them at any certainty. They fall upon all kinds of goods, houses, lands, timber, and provisions; the clergy and military orders are likewise taxed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The land forces of the crown of Spain, in time of peace, are never fewer than 70,000; but in case of war, they amount, without prejudice to the kingdom, to 110,000. The great dependence of the king, however, is upon his Walloon or foreign guards. His present catholic majesty has been at great care and expense to raise a powerful marine; and his fleet in Europe and America at present exceeds seventy ships of the line. All along the coast of Spain are watch-towers from mile to mile, with lights and guards at night, so that from Cadiz to Barcelona, and from Bilbao to Ferrol, the whole kingdom may be soon alarmed in case of an invasion.

ROYAL ARMS, TITLES, NOBILITY, AND ORDERS.] Spain formerly comprehended twelve kingdoms; all of which, with several others, were, by name, entered into the royal titles, so that they amounted in all to about thirty-two. This absurd custom is still occa-

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sionally continued, but the king is now generally contented with the title of his Catholic Majesty. The kings of Spain are inaugurated by the delivery of a sword, without being crowned. Their signature never mentions their name, but, I THE KING. Their eldest son is called prince of Asturias, and their younger children of both sexes, are, by way of distinction, called *infants or infantas*, that is, children.

The armorial bearing of the kings of Spain, like their title, is loaded with the arms of all their kingdoms. It is now a shield, divided into four quarters, of which the uppermost on the right hand and the lowest on the left contain a castle, or, with three towers, for Castile; and in the uppermost on the left, and the lowest on the right, are three lions, gules, for Leon; with three lilies in the centre for Anjou.

The general name for those Spanish nobility and gentry who are unmixed with the Moorish blood, is *Hidalgo*. They are divided into princes, dukes, marquises, counts, viscounts, and other inferior titles. Such as are created grandees, may stand covered before the king, and are treated with princely distinctions. A grandee cannot be apprehended without the king's order; and cardinals, archbishops, ambassadors, knights of the Golden Fleece, and certain other great dignitaries, both in church and state, have the privilege, as well as the grandees, to appear covered before the king.

The "Order of the *Golden Fleece*," particularly described before in the orders of Germany, is generally conferred on princes and sovereign dukes; but the Spanish branch of it has many French and Italian nobility; there are no commanderies or revenues annexed to it.

The "Order of *St. James*," or *St. Jago de Compostella*, is the richest of all the orders of Spain. It was divided into two branches, each under a grand-master; but the office of both was given, by pope Alexander VI. to the kings of Spain and Portugal, as grand-masters in their respective dominions. The order is highly esteemed in Spain, and only conferred on persons of noble families. The same may be said of the "Order of *Calatrava*," first instituted by *Alonso*, king of Toledo: it took its name from the castle of Calatrava, which was taken from the Moors, and here began the order, which became very powerful. Their number, influence, and possessions, were so considerable as to excite the jealousy of the crown, to which, at length, their revenues, and the office of grand-master, were annexed, by Pope Innocent VIII. The celebrated "Order of *Alcantara*" derived its origin from the order of St. Julian, or of the Pear-tree; but after Alcantara was taken from the Moors, and made the chief seat of the order, they assumed the name of knights of the order of Alcantara, and laid aside the old device of a pear-tree. This order is highly esteemed, and conferred only on persons of ancient and illustrious families. The "Order of the *Lady of Mercy*" is said to have been instituted by James I. king of Arragon, about the year 1218, on account of a vow made by him to the Virgin Mary, during his captivity in France, and was designed for the redemption of captives from the Moors, in which were expended large sums of money. It was first confined to men, but a lady of Barcelona afterwards got women included in it. This order possesses considerable revenues in Spain. The "Order of *Montesa*" was instituted at Valencia, at the close of the thirteenth century, in the place of the Templars, and enjoyed their possessions. Their chief seat being the town of Montesa, the order from thence derived its name, and chose St. George for their patron. In the year 1771, the late king instituted, after his own name, the "Order of *Charles III.*" in commemoration of the birth of the infant. The badge

is a star of eight points, enamelled white, and edged with gold: in the centre of the cross is the image of the Virgin Mary, vestments white and blue. On the reverse the letters C. C. with the number III. in the centre, and this motto, *Virtuti et Merito*. None but persons of noble descent can belong to this order.

HISTORY OF SPAIN.] Spain was probably first peopled by the Celts, from Gaul, to which it lies contiguous; or from Africa, from which it is only separated by the narrow strait of Gibraltar. The Phœnicians sent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the rise of Rome and Carthage, the possession of this kingdom became an object of contention between those powerful republics; but at length the Roman arms prevailed, and Spain remained in their possession until the fall of that empire, when it became a prey to the Goths. In the beginning of the fifth century, the Suevi, the Vandals, and the Alani, divided this kingdom among them; but in the year 584, the Goths again became its masters.

These, in their turn, were invaded by the Saracens, who, about the end of the seventh century, had possessed themselves of the finest kingdoms of Asia and Africa; and, not content with the immense regions that formerly composed great part of the Assyrian, Greek, and Roman empires, crossed the Mediterranean, ravaged Spain, and established themselves in the southerly provinces of that kingdom.

Don Pelago is mentioned as the first Old Spanish prince who distinguished himself against these infidels (who were afterwards known by the name of Moors, the greater part of them having come from Mauritania); and he took the title of king of Asturia about the year 720. His successes animated other Christian princes to take arms likewise, and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal for many ages were perpetually embroiled in bloody wars.

The Moors in Spain were superior to all their contemporaries in arts and arms, and the Abdoulrahman line retained possession of the throne near three hundred years. Learning flourished in Spain, while the rest of Europe was buried in ignorance and barbarity. But the Moorish princes by degrees became weak and effeminate, and their chief ministers proud and insolent. A series of civil wars ensued, which at last overturned the throne of Cordova, and the race of Abdoulrahman. Several petty principalities were formed on the ruins of this empire, and many cities of Spain had each an independent sovereign. Every adventurer was then entitled to the conquests he made from the Moors; till Spain at last was divided into twelve or thirteen kingdoms; and about the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his son, Alphonso, threw off his dependence on Leon, and declared himself king. A series of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till about the year 1492, when all the kingdoms in Spain, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Isabella, the heiress and afterwards queen of Castile, who took Grenada, and expelled out of Spain the Moors and Jews who would not be converts to the Christian faith, to the number of 170,000 families.

The expulsion of the Moors and Jews in a manner depopulated Spain of artists, labourers, and manufacturers; and the discovery of America not only added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards most deplorably indolent. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Isabella introduced the popish inquisition, with all its horrors, into their dominions, as a safeguard against the return of the Moors and Jews.

Charles V. of the house of Austria, and emperor of Germany, succeeded to the throne of Spain, in right of his mother, who was the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, in the year 1516. The extensive possessions of the house of Austria in Europe, Africa, and, above all, America, from whence it drew immense treasures, began to alarm the jealousy of neighbouring princes, but could not satisfy the ambition of Charles; and we find him constantly engaged in foreign wars, or with his own protestant subjects, whom he in vain attempted to bring back to the catholic church. He also reduced the power of the nobles in Spain, abridged the privileges of the commons, and greatly extended the regal prerogative. At last, after a long and turbulent reign, he came to a resolution that filled all Europe with astonishment, withdrawing himself entirely from any concern in the affairs of this world, in order that he might spend the remainder of his days in retirement and solitude*.

* Charles, of all his vast possessions, reserved nothing for himself but an annual pension of 100,000 crowns; and chose, for the place of his retreat, a vale in Spain, of no great extent, watered by a small brook, and surrounded by rising grounds, covered with lofty trees. He gave strict orders, that the style of the building which he erected there, should be such as suited his present situation, rather than his former dignity. It consisted only of six rooms; four of them in the form of friars' cells, with naked walls; and the other two, each twenty feet square, were hung with brown cloth, and furnished in the most simple manner: they were all level with the ground, with a door on one side into a garden, of which Charles himself had given the plan, and had filled it with various plants, which he proposed to cultivate with his own hands. After spending some time in the city of Ghent, in Flanders, the place of his nativity, he set out for Zealand, in Holland, where he prepared to embark for Spain, accompanied by his son, and a numerous retinue of princes and nobility; and taking an affectionate and last farewell of Philip and his attendants, he set out, on the 17th of September, 1556, under convoy of a large fleet of Spanish, Flemish, and English ships. As soon as he landed in Spain, he fell prostrate on the ground; and considering himself now as dead to the world, he kissed the earth, and said, "Naked came I out of my mother's womb, and naked I now return to thee, thou common mother of mankind." Some of the Spanish nobility paid their court to him as he passed along to the place of his retreat; but they were so few in number, and their attendance was so negligent, that Charles observed it, and felt, for the first time, that he was no longer a monarch. But he was more deeply affected with his son's ingratitude; who, forgetting already how much he owed to his father's bounty, obliged him to remain some weeks on the road, before he paid him the first moiety of that small portion, which was all that he had reserved of so many kingdoms. At last the money was paid; and Charles, having dismissed a great number of his domestics, whose attendance he thought would be superfluous, entered into his humble retreat with twelve domestics only. Here he buried in solitude and silence his grandeur, his ambition, together with all those vast projects which, during half a century, had alarmed and agitated Europe, filling every kingdom in it, by turns, with the terror of his arms, and the dread of being subjected to his power. Here he enjoyed, perhaps, more complete satisfaction than all his grandeur had ever yielded him. For from taking any part in the political transactions of the princes of Europe, he restrained his curiosity even from any inquiry concerning them; and he seemed to view the busy scene which he had abandoned, with all the contempt and indifference arising from his thorough experience of its vanity, as well as from the pleasing reflection of having disengaged himself from its cares.

New amusements and new objects now occupied his mind; sometimes he cultivated the plants in his garden with his own hands; sometimes he rode out to the neighbouring wood on a little horse, the only one that he kept, attended by a single servant on foot. When his infirmities confined him to his apartment, he either admitted a few gentlemen who resided in the neighbourhood, and entertained them familiarly at his table; or he employed himself in studying the principles, and in forming curious works of mechanism, of which he had always been remarkably fond. He was particularly curious with regard to the construction of clocks and watches; and having found, after repeated trials, that he could not bring any two of them to go exactly alike, he reflected, it is said, with a mixture of surprise and regret, on his own folly,

Agreeably to this determination he resigned Spain and the Netherlands, with great formality, in the presence of his principal nobility, to his son, Philip II. but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor, which dignity they conferred on Ferdinand, Charles's brother, thereby dividing the dangerous power of the house of Austria into two branches; Spain, with all its possessions in Africa and the New World, the Netherlands, and some Italian states, remained with the elder branch, whilst the empire, Hungary, and Bohemia, fell to the lot of the younger, which they still possess.

Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, with few of his good qualities. He was austere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, and, through his whole life, a cruel bigot in the cause of popery. His marriage with queen Mary, of England, an unfeeling bigot like himself, his unsuccessful addresses to her sister Elizabeth, his resentment and unsuccessful wars with that princess, his tyranny and persecutions in the Low Countries, the revolt and loss of the United Provinces, with other particulars of his reign, have been already mentioned in the history of those countries.

In Portugal he was more successful. That kingdom, after being governed by a race of wise and brave princes, fell to Sebastian, about the year 1557. Sebastian lost his life and a fine army, in a headstrong, unjust, and ill-concerted expedition against the Moors, in Africa; and in the year 1580, Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Braganza family, of Portugal, asserted a prior right. By this acquisition, Spain became possessed of the Portuguese settlements in India, some of which she still holds.

The descendants of Philip proved to be very weak princes; but Philip and his father had so totally ruined the ancient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almost unmolested in their own dominions. Their viceroys, however, were at once so tyrannical and insolent over the Portuguese, that, in the reign of Philip IV. in the year 1640, the nobility of that nation, by a well-conducted conspiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza, by the title of John IV. upon their throne; and ever since, Portugal has been a distinct kingdom from Spain.

The kings of Spain, of the Austrian line, failing in the person of Charles II. who left no issue, Philip, duke of Anjou, second son to the dauphin of France, and grandson to Lewis XIV. mounted that throne, in virtue of his predecessor's will, by the name of Philip V. anno 1701. After a long and bloody struggle with the German branch of the house of Austria, supported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity, at the conclusion of the war, by the shameful peace of Utrecht, in 1713. And thus Lewis XIV. through a masterly train of politics (for, in his wars to support his grandson, as we have already observed, he was almost ruined) accomplished his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich possessions in America and the Indies, from the house of Austria, to that of his own family of Bourbon. In 1734, Philip invaded Naples, and got that kingdom for his son Don Carlos, the Sicilians readily acknowledging him for their sovereign, through the oppression of the imperialists.

After a long and turbulent reign, which was disturbed by the ambition in having bestowed so much time and labour on the more vain attempt of bringing mankind to a precise uniformity of sentiment concerning the intricate and mysterious doctrines of religion. And here, after two years' retirement, he was seized with a fever which carried him off, in the 59th year of his age.

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of his wife, Elizabeth of Parma, Philip died in 1746, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand VI. a mild and peaceable prince, who reformed many abuses, and endeavoured to promote the commerce and prosperity of his kingdom. In 1759, he died without issue, through melancholy for the loss of his wife. Ferdinand was succeeded by his brother, Charles III. then king of Naples and the Two Sicilies, son to Philip V. by his wife, the princess of Parma.

He was so warmly attached to the family compact of the house of Bourbon, that, two years after his accession, he even hazarded his American dominions to support it. War being declared between him and England, the latter took from him the famous port and city of Havannah, in the island of Cuba, and thereby rendered herself entirely mistress of the navigation of the Spanish plate-fleets. Notwithstanding the success of the English, their ministry thought proper, hastily, to conclude a peace, in consequence of which Havannah was restored to Spain. In 1775, an expedition was concerted against Algiers by the Spanish ministry, which had a most unsuccessful termination. The troops, which amounted to upwards of 24,000, and who were commanded by lieutenant-general conde de O'Reilly, landed about a league and a half to the eastward of the city of Algiers; but were disgracefully beaten back, and obliged to take shelter on board their ships, having 27 officers killed, and 191 wounded; and 501 rank and file killed, and 2088 wounded. In the years 1783 and 1784, they also renewed their attacks against Algiers by sea, but after spending much ammunition, and losing many lives, were forced to retire without doing much injury.

When the war with Great Britain and her American colonies had subsisted for some time, and France had taken part with the latter, the court of Spain was also prevailed upon to commence hostilities against Great Britain. The Spaniards closely besieged Gibraltar, both by sea and land; it having been always a great mortification to them, that this fortress should be possessed by the English. The grand attack was on the 13th of September, 1782, under the command of the duke de Crillon, by ten battering ships, from 600 to 1400 tons burden, carrying in all 212 brass guns, entirely new, and discharging shot of 26 pounds weight. The showers of shot and shells which were directed from them, from their land-batteries, and on the other hand from the various works of the garrison, exhibited a scene, of which perhaps neither the pen nor the pencil can furnish a competent idea. It is sufficient to say, that *four hundred pieces* of the heaviest artillery were playing at the same moment: an instance which has scarcely occurred in any siege since the invention of those wonderful engines of destruction.

The irresistible impression of the numerous red-hot balls from the garrison was soon conspicuous; for in the afternoon, smoke was perceived to issue from the admiral's ship and another, and by one in the morning several were in flames, and numbers of rockets were thrown up from each of their ships as signals of distress; and thus ended all the hopes of the Spaniards of reducing the fortress of Gibraltar. Some trifling operations continued on the side of the Spaniards till the restoration of peace in 1783.

In other enterprises, however, the Spaniards proved more successful. The island of Minorca was surrendered to them on the 6th of February, 1782, after having been besieged for 171 days. The garrison consisted of no more than 2692 men, while the forces of the enemy amounted to 16,000, under the command of the duke de Crillon. The Spanish commander at first attempted to corrupt the governor (general Murray);

but this being rejected with indignation, the siege was commenced in form; and the garrison would have showed themselves equally invincible with those of Gibraltar, had it been possible to relieve them in the same manner. The scurvy soon made its appearance, and reduced them to such a deplorable situation, that they were at last obliged to surrender in spite of every effort of human fortitude or skill; and so sensible were both parties that this was the true cause, that the Spanish general allowed them to march out with their arms shouldered, drums beating, and colours flying, while the disconsolate British soldiers protested that they surrendered their arms to God, and not to the Spaniards.

His late catholic majesty did all he could to oblige his subjects to desist from their ancient dress and manners, and carried his endeavours so far, that it occasioned such a dangerous insurrection at Madrid, as obliged him to part with his minister, the marquis of Squillace; thereby affording an instance of the necessity that even despotic princes are under, of paying some attention to the inclinations of their subjects.

The government of Spain testified much uneasiness at the French revolution, and watched narrowly those who spoke in favour of its principles. The circulation of all public papers and political pamphlets from France was severely prohibited. The proclamation against tinkers and knife-grinders introducing seditious papers into the kingdom, and the rescript concerning strangers, show all the deformity, but, at the same time, the old age of despotism. If dotage be a sign of decay, these symptoms are very apparent in this government; and a temperate revolution in Spain would be a matter of far more exultation to the philosopher, than that of France; for its miseries are far greater. Liberty, science, and true religion, were confined in France; but in Spain they are trampled under the brutal feet of monks and bigots.

A short war arose between the Spaniards and the emperor of Morocco. The emperor besieged Ceuta; but peace is since restored. It was unjustly surmised that this war was entered into, in order to divert the attention of the people, who might be impressed with the affairs of France; but the reign of ignorance and bigotry is so firmly established in Spain, that many years may elapse before any idea of freedom is formed in that unhappy kingdom. In France the crisis was prepared by innumerable writings; but it is believed that not even a pamphlet exists in the Spanish language, which displays any just or liberal notions of government.

The sudden dismissal of count Florida Blanca from the office of prime minister, originated in causes not disclosed. It is imagined that the court found this step necessary, to appease the public murmurs at some late measures, particularly the edict concerning strangers, which contributed to impose farther fetters upon commerce, and which has since been repealed. On the 28th of February, 1792, the minister was removed, and count d'Aranda, an old statesman, a warm friend of the queen and nobility of France, succeeded to his employments, till some other arrangement could be formed. It is said, he abolished the superintendant tribunal of police, a kind of civil inquisition; and in other liberal measures appeared to see the real interest of monarchs, which is certainly to concede with grace, in order to prevent the despair of the people from recurring to force. His influence, however, was but short; and has been succeeded by that of the duke d'Alcudia.

The irregularities committed in France, the indecent reception of the humane interference of the court of Spain in favour of the king, and

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the industry of the confederated sovereigns, induced the court of Spain to declare war against France, on the 23d of March 1793. The issue of this war, the treaty of peace concluded by Spain with the French republic on the 23d of July 1795, and the subsequent commencement of hostilities with England, have already been mentioned in our historical accounts of those countries.

Charles IV. king of Spain, born Nov. 11, 1748, ascended the throne Dec. 13, 1788 (upon the death of his father, Charles III.) and was married to Louisa-Maria-Theresa, princess of Parma, Sept. 4, 1765, by whom he has issue,

1. Charlotte, born April 25, 1775.
2. Mary-Louisa, born July 9, 1777.
3. Philip, born Aug. 10, 1783.
4. Ferdinand, born Oct. 14, 1784.
5. Maria-Isabella, born July 6, 1789.

Brothers to the king :

1. Ferdinand, the present king of the Two Sicilies, born in 1751, married, in 1768, to the arch-duchess Mary-Caroline-Louisa, sister to Joseph II. late emperor of Germany.
2. Anthony-Pascal, born Dec. 31, 1755.

P O R T U G A L.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Degrees.

Length 300 } between { 37 and 42 north latitude.

Breadth 100 } { 7 and 10 west longitude.

Containing 32,000 square miles, with 72 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Spain on the North and East, and on the South and West by the Atlantic Ocean, being the most westerly kingdom on the continent of Europe.

ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] This kingdom was, in the time of the Romans, called Lusitania. The etymology of the modern name is uncertain. It most probably is derived from some noted harbour or port, to which the Gauls (for so strangers are called in the Celtic) resorted. By the form of the country, it is naturally divided into three parts; the northern, middle, and southern provinces.

	Provinces.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
The northern division contains	Entre Minho e Douro	Braga, Oporto, and Vila Rica	6814
	Tra los Montes e Biera	Miranda and Villa Real	
The middle division contains	Estremadura	Colmbra	12640
	Entre Tajo e Guadiana	Guarda, Castel Rodrigo, LISBON { 38-42 N. lat. 8-53 W. lon.	
The southern division contains	Alentejo	St. Ubes and Leira	8397
	Algarva	Ebora, or Evora, Portalegre, Elvas, Beja, Lagos, Faro, Tavora, and Silves	

[SOIL, AIR, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The soil of Portugal is not in general equal to that of Spain for fertility, especially in corn, which they import from other countries. Their fruits are the same as in Spain, but not so highly flavoured. The Portuguese wines, when old and genuine, are esteemed to be very friendly to the human constitution, and safe to drink*.

Portugal contains mines, but they are not worked; variety of gems, marbles, and mill-stones, and a fine mine of salt-petre near Lisbon. The cattle and poultry are but indifferent eating. The air, especially about Lisbon, is reckoned soft and beneficial to consumptive patients; it is not so scorching as that of Spain, being refreshed from the sea-breezes.

[MOUNTAINS.] The face of Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky, for the mountains are generally barren: the chief are those which divide Algarva from Alentejo; those of Tra los Montes; and the rock of Lisbon, at the mouth of the Tajo.

[WATER AND RIVERS.] Though every brook in Portugal is reckoned a river, yet the chief Portuguese rivers are mentioned in Spain, all of them falling into the Atlantic Ocean. The Tagus or Tajo was celebrated for its golden sand. Portugal contains several roaring lakes and springs; some of them are absorbent even of the lightest substances, such as wood, cork, and feathers; some, particularly one about 45 miles from Lisbon, are medicinal and sanative; and some hot baths are found in the little kingdom, or rather province, of Algarva.

[PROMONTORIES AND BAYS.] The promontories or capes of Portugal are Cape Mondego, near the mouth of the river Mondego; Cape Roca, at the north entrance of the river Tajo; Cape Espitel, at the south entrance of the river Tajo; and Cape St. Vincent, on the south-west point of Algarva. The bays are those of Cadoan, or St. Ubes, south of Lisbon, and Lagos Bay in Algarva.

[ANIMALS.] The sea-fish, on the coast of Portugal, are reckoned excellent; on the land, the hogs and kids are tolerable eating. Their mules are sure, and serviceable both for draught and carriage; and their horses, though slight, are lively.

[POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] According to the best calculation, Portugal contains near two millions of inhabitants. By a survey made in the year 1732, there were in that kingdom 3,344 parishes, and 1,742,230 lay persons (which is but 522 laity to each parish on a medium) besides above 300,000 ecclesiastics of both sexes.

The modern Portuguese retain nothing of that adventurous enterprising spirit that rendered their forefathers so illustrious 300 years ago. They have, ever since the house of Braganza mounted the throne, degenerated in all their virtues; though some noble exceptions are still remaining among them, and no people are so little obliged as the Portuguese are to the reports of historians and travellers. Their degeneracy is evidently owing to the weakness of their monarchy, which renders them inactive, for fear of disobliging their powerful neighbours; and that inactivity has proved the source of pride, and other unmanly vices. Treachery has been laid to their charge, as well as ingratitude, and above all, an intemperate passion for revenge. They are, if possible, more superstitious, and, both in high and common life, affect more

* The Port-wines are made in the districts round Oporto, which does not produce the quantity that is consumed, under that name, in the British dominions only. The merchants in this city have very spacious wine-vaults, capable of holding 6 or 7000 pipes, and it is said that 20,000 are yearly exported from Oporto.

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state, than the Spaniards themselves. Among the lower people, thieving is commonly practised; and all ranks are accused of being unfair in their dealings, especially with strangers. It is hard, however, to say what alteration may be made in the character of the Portuguese, by the expulsion of the Jesuits, and diminution of the papal influence among them; but above all, by that spirit of independency, with regard to commercial affairs, upon Great Britain, which, not much to the honour of their gratitude, though to the interest of their own country, is now so much encouraged by their court and ministry.

The Portuguese are neither so tall nor so well made as the Spaniards, whose habits and customs they imitate; only the quality affect to be more gaily and richly dressed. The Portuguese ladies are thin, and small of stature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expressive, and their features generally regular. They are esteemed to be generous, modest, and witty. They dress like the Spanish ladies, with much awkwardness, and affected gravity, but in general more magnificently; and they are taught by their husbands to exact from their servants a homage, that in other countries is paid only to royal personages. The furniture of the houses, especially of their grandees, is rich and superb to excess; and they maintain an incredible number of domestics, as they never discharge any who survive after serving their ancestors. The poorer sort have scarcely any furniture at all, for they, in imitation of the Moors, sit always cross-legged on the ground. The Portuguese peasant has never reaped any advantage from the benefits of foreign trade, and of the fine and vast countries the kings of Portugal possessed in Africa or in the East; or of those still remaining to them in South America. The only foreign luxury he is yet acquainted with is tobacco; and when his feeble purse can reach it, he purchases a dried Newfoundland cod-fish; but this is a regale he dares seldom aspire to. A piece of bread made of Indian corn, and a salted pilchard, or a head of garlic, to give that bread a flavour, compose his standing dish; and if he can get a bit of the hog, the ox, or the calf, he himself fattens, to regale his wretched family at Christmas or Easter, he has reached the pinnacle of happiness in this world; and indeed whatever he possessed beyond this habitual penury, according to the present state and exertions of his intellects, would quickly be taken from him, or rather he would willingly part with it, being taught by his numberless ghostly comforters, with which his country swarms, to look forward for ease and happiness to another state of existence, to which they are themselves the infallible guides and conductors.

To these remarks, we shall subjoin those of Mr. Murphy, a late traveller in Portugal: — "The common people of Lisbon and its environs are a laborious and hardy race. It is painful to see the trouble they are obliged to take for want of proper implements to carry on their work. Their cars have the rude appearance of the earliest ages; these vehicles are slowly drawn by two stout oxen. The corn is shelled by the treading of the same animals. They have many other customs which to us appear very singular; for example, women sit with the left side towards the horses head when they ride. A postillion rides on the left horse. A taylor sits at his work like a shoemaker. A half-dresser appears on Sundays with a sword, a cockade, and two watches, at least two watch-chains. A tavern is known by a vine bush; a house to be let by a piece of blank paper, the door of an accoucheuse by a white cross, and a Jew by his extra-catholic devotion. — A Portuguese peasant will not walk with a superior, an aged person, or a stranger, without giving him the

right hand side, as a mark of respect. He never passes by a human being without taking off his hat, and saluting him in these words, *the Lord preserve you for many years*. In speaking of an absent friend he always says—'I die with impatience to see him.'—They all imagine their country is the blessed Elysium, and that Lisbon is the greatest city in the world."

RELIGION.] The established religion of Portugal is popery, in the strictest sense. The Portuguese have a patriarch; but formerly he depended entirely upon the pope, unless when a quarrel subsisted between the courts of Rome and Lisbon. The power of his holiness in Portugal has been of late so much curtailed, that it is difficult to describe the religious state of that country; all we know is, that the royal revenues are greatly increased, at the expense of the religious institutions in the kingdom. The power of the inquisition is now taken out of the hands of the ecclesiastics, and converted to a state-trap for the benefit of the crown.

ARCHBISHOPS AND BISHOPS.] The archbishoprics are those of Braga, Evora, and Lisbon. The first of these has ten suffragan bishops; the second, two; and the last, ten, including those of the Portuguese settlements abroad. The patriarch of Lisbon is generally a cardinal, and a person of the highest birth.

LANGUAGE.] The Portuguese language differs but little from that of Spain, and that provincially. Their Paternoster runs thus: *Padre nosso que estas nos ceos, sanctificado seja o tu nome; venha a nos tuo reino, seja feita a tua vontade, assi nos ceos, como na terra. O pao nosso de codidia, dano lo cei nestro dia. E perdoa nos as nossas devidas, assi como nos perdoamos a os nossos devedores. E nao nos dexes cahir em tentacao, mas libera nos do mal. Amen.*

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] These are so few, that they are mentioned with indignation, even by those of the Portuguese themselves who have the smallest tincture of literature. Some efforts, though very weak, have of late been made by a few, to draw their countrymen from this deplorable state of ignorance. It is universally allowed, that the defect is not owing to the want of genius, but of a proper education. The ancestors of the present Portuguese were certainly possessed of more true knowledge, with regard to astronomy, geography, and navigation, than perhaps any other European nation, about the middle of the 16th century, and for some time after. Camoens, who himself was a great adventurer and voyager, was possessed of a true, but neglected, poetical genius.

UNIVERSITIES.] These are Coimbra, founded in 1291, by king Denis; and which had fifty professors; but it has been lately put under some new regulations; Evora, founded in 1559; and the college of the nobles at Lisbon, where the young nobility are educated in every branch of polite learning and the sciences. All the books that did belong to the banished Jesuits are kept here, which compose a very large library. The English language is likewise taught in this college. Here is also a college where young gentlemen are educated in the science of engineering, and, when qualified, get commissions in that corps.

CURIOSITIES.] The lakes and fountains which have been already mentioned, form the chief of these. The remains of some castles in the Moorish taste are still standing. The Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra are almost entire, and deservedly admired. The walls of Santarem are said to be of Roman work likewise. The church and monastery near Lisbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are inex-

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preſſibly magnificent, and ſeveral monaſteries in Portugal are dug out of the hard rock. The chapel of St. Roch is probably one of the fineſt and richeſt in the world; the paintings are moſaic work, ſo curiouſly wrought with ſtones of all colours, as to aſtoniſh the beholders. To theſe curioſities we may add, that the king is poſſeſſed of the largeſt, though not the moſt valuable, diamond in the world. It was found in Braſil.

[**CHIEF CITIES.**] Liſbon is the capital of Portugal. Of the population of this city (ſays Mr. Murphy) no exact account has been recently publiſhed, and the rapid increaſe of its inhabitants of late years muſt render any calculation of that kind very uncertain. In the year 1774, the forty pariſhes into which Liſbon is divided were found to contain 33,764 houſes; and in the year 1790, they amounted to 38,102. Hence it appears to have increaſed 4,338 houſes, in the courſe of theſe ten years. Now, if we eſtimate each houſe on an average at ſix perſons, which, perhaps is within the truth, the population in the year 1790 was 228,612. To theſe are to be added the religious of both ſexes, with their attendants, who dwell in convents and monaſteries, the ſoldiery, the profeſſors and ſtudents of ſeminaries of education, and ſuch of the Galician labourers as have no fixed dwelling; their aggregate amount, if my information be correct, is not very ſhort of 12,000. According to this ſtatement, therefore, the population of Liſbon exceeds 240,000. From the magnitude of the city, indeed, we ſhould be induced to ſuppoſe that its population was conſiderably more than above ſtated; for it is computed to be four miles long, by one and a half broad; but many of the houſes have large gardens; and ſuch as have not, are, in general, laid out upon a large ſcale, on account of the heat of the climate.

The fatal effects of the earthquake in 1755 are ſtill viſible in many parts of the city, and never fail to impreſs every ſpectator with an awful remembrance of that diſaſter; according to the moſt accurate accounts, there were not leſs than 24,000 victims to it. The Portuguese have, however, availed themſelves of this miſfortune, and, like the Engliſh, after the deſtructive fire of 1666, have turned the temporal evil into a permanent good. All the new ſtreets erected in Liſbon, in the place of the old, are capacious, regular, and well paved, with convenient foot-paths for paſſengers, as in the ſtreets of London. In point of cleanlineſs, Liſbon is no longer a ſubject of animadverſion to ſtrangers; but all is not yet done, as it ſtill wants common ſewers, pipe-water, and privies. Liſbon is deſervedly accounted the greateſt port in Europe, next to London and Amſterdam. The harbour is ſpacious and ſecure, and the city itſelf is guarded from any ſudden attack towards the ſea by forts, though they would make but a poor defence againſt ſhips of war. The ſecond city in this kingdom is Oporto, which is computed to contain 30,000 inhabitants. The chief article of commerce in this city is wine; and the inhabitants of half the ſhops in the city are coopers. The merchants aſſemble daily in the chief ſtreet, to tranſact buſineſs; and are protected from the ſun by ſail-cloths hung acroſs from the oppoſite houſes. About thirty Engliſh families reſide here, who are chiefly concerned in the wine trade.

[**COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.**] Theſe, within theſe ſeven or eight years, have taken a ſurpriſing turn in Portugal. The miniſtry have projected many new companies and regulations, which have been again and again complained of as unjuſt and oppreſſive, and inconſiſtent with the privileges which the Britiſh merchants formerly enjoyed by the moſt ſolemn treaties.

The Portuguese exchange their wine, salt, and fruits, and most of their own materials, for foreign manufactures. They make a little linen, and some coarse silk and woollen, with a variety of straw-work, and are excellent in preserving and candying fruit. The commerce of Portugal, though seemingly extensive, proves of little solid benefit to her, as the European nations trading with her, engross all the productions of her colonies, as well as her own native commodities, as her gold, diamonds, pearls, sugars, cocoa-nuts, fine red wood, tobacco, hides, and the drugs of Brasil, her ivory, ebony, spices, and drugs of Africa and East India, in exchange for the almost numberless manufactures, and the vast quantity of corn and salt-fish, supplied by those European nations, and by the English North American colonies.

The Portuguese foreign settlements are, however, not only of immense value, but vastly improvable. These are Brasil, the Isles of Cape Verd, Madeira, and the Azores. They bring gold from their plantations on the east and west coast of Africa, and likewise slaves for manufacturing their sugars and tobacco in Brasil, and their South American settlements.

What the value of these latter may be, is unknown perhaps to themselves; but they certainly abound in all the precious stones, and rich mines of gold and silver, and other commodities that are produced in the Spanish dominions there. It is computed that the king's fifth of gold sent from Brasil amounts annually to 300,000 sterling, notwithstanding the vast contraband trade. The little shipping the Portuguese have, is chiefly employed in carrying on the slave-trade, and a correspondence with Goa, their chief settlement in the East Indies, and their other possessions there, as Diu, Daman, Macao, &c.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The crown of Portugal is absolute; but the nation still preserves an appearance of its ancient free constitution, in the meeting of the cortes, or states, consisting, like our parliaments, of clergy, nobility, and commons. They pretend to a right of being consulted upon the imposition of new taxes; but the only real power they have, is, that their assent is necessary in every new regulation with regard to the succession. In this they are indulged, to prevent all future disputes on that account.

This government may be fairly pronounced the most despotic in Europe. The established law is generally a dead letter, excepting where its decrees are carried into execution by the supplementary mandates of the sovereign, which are generally employed in defeating the purposes of safety and protection; which law is calculated to extend equally over all the subjects.

The people here have no more share in the direction of government, in enacting of laws, and in the regulating of agriculture and commerce, than they have in the government of Russia, or China. The far greater part know nothing of what is done in that respect. Every man has no other alternative but to yield a blind and ready obedience, in whatever concerns himself, to the decrees and laws of the despot, as promulgated from time to time by his secretaries of state. How would an Englishman, alive to all the feelings of civil liberty, tremble at reading the preamble of every new law published here! and which runs thus: "*I, the king, in virtue of my own certain knowledge, of my royal will and pleasure, and of my full, supreme, and arbitrary power, which I hold only of God; and for which I am accountable to no man on earth, I do, in consequence, order and command, &c. &c.*"

All great preferments, both spiritual and temporal, are disposed of in

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the council of state, which is composed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the secretary of state. A council of war regulates all military affairs, as the treasury counts do the finances. The council of the palace is the highest tribunal that can receive appeals, but the *Casa da Supplicação*, is a tribunal from which no appeal can be brought. The laws of Portugal are contained in three duodecimo volumes, and have the civil law for their foundation.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The revenues of the crown amount to above 3,000,000 and a half sterling, annually. The customs and duties on goods exported and imported are excessive, and farmed out; but if the Portuguese ministry should succeed in all their projects, and in establishing exclusive companies, to the prejudice of the British trade, the inhabitants will be able to bear these taxes without murmuring. Foreign merchandise pays twenty-three per cent. on importation, and fish from Newfoundland twenty-five per cent. Fish taken in the neighbouring seas and rivers pays twenty-seven per cent. and the tax upon lands, and cattle that are sold, is ten per cent. The king derives a considerable revenue from the several orders of knighthood, of which he is grand-master. The pope, in consideration of the large sums he draws out of Portugal, gives the king the money arising from indulgences, and licences to eat flesh at times prohibited, &c. The king's revenue is now greatly increased by the suppression of the Jesuits, and other religious orders and institutions.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The Portuguese government used to depend chiefly for protection on England; and therefore, for many years, they greatly neglected their army and fleet; but the same friendly connection between Great Britain and Portugal does not at present subsist. In the late reign, though they received the most effectual assistance from England, when invaded by the French and Spaniards, his Most Faithful Majesty judged it expedient to raise a considerable body of troops, who were chiefly disciplined by foreign officers; but since that period, the army has been again neglected, no proper encouragement being given to foreign officers, and little attention paid to the discipline of the troops, so that the military force of Portugal is now again inconsiderable, amounting, it is said, to 25,000 men. The naval force of this kingdom is about seventeen ships of war, including six frigates.

ROYAL TITLES AND ARMS.] The king's titles are, King of Portugal and the Algarves, Lord of Guinea, and of the navigation, conquest, and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and Brasil. The last king was complimented by the pope, with the title of his Most Faithful Majesty. That of his eldest son is, Prince of Brasil.

The arms of Portugal are, argent, five escutcheons, azure, placed cross-wise, each charged with as many besants as the first, placed saltier-wise, and pointed, sable, for Portugal. The shield bordered, gules, charged with seven towers, or, three in chief, and two in each flanch. —The supporters are two winged dragons, and the crest a dragon, or, under the two flanches, and the base of the shield appears at the end of it; two crosses, the first fleur-de-lis, vert, which is for the order of Aviez, and the second patee, gules, for the order of Christ; the motto is changeable, each king assuming a new one; but it is frequently these words *pro Rege et Grege*, "For the King and the People."

NOBILITY AND ORDERS.] The titles and distinctions of their nobility are much the same as those of Spain. Their orders of knighthood are three; 1. That of *Aviz* or *Aviez*, first instituted by Alphonfus Henri-

quez, king of Portugal, in the year 1147, as a military and religious order, on account of his taking Evora from the Moors. In 1213, it was subject to the order of Calatrava; in Spain; but when Don John of Portugal seized the crown, he made it again independent. 2. The "Order of St. James," instituted by Dennis I. king of Portugal, in the year 1310, supposing that under that saint's protection he became victorious over the Moors; and he endowed it with great privileges. The knights profess chastity, hospitality, and obedience, and none are admitted till they prove the gentility of their blood. Their ensign is a red sword, the habit white, and their principal convent is at Dalmela. 3. The "Order of Christ" was instituted in the year 1317, by Dennis I. of Portugal, to engage the nobility to assist him more powerfully against the Moors. The knights obtained great possessions, and elected their grand-master, till 1522, when pope Adrian VI. conferred that office on John III. and his successors to the crown of Portugal. These orders have small commanderies and revenues annexed to them, but are in small esteem. The "Order of Malta" has likewise twenty-two commanderies in Portugal.

HISTORY OF PORTUGAL.] This kingdom comprehends the greatest part of the ancient Lusitania, and shared the same fate with the other Spanish provinces, in the contests between the Carthaginians and Romans, and in the decline and fall of the Roman empire, and was successively in subjection to the Suevi, Alans, Visigoths, and Moors. In the eleventh century, Alphonfus VI. king of Castile and Leon, rewarded Henry, grandson of Robert, king of France, for his bravery and assistance against the Moors, with his daughter, and that part of Portugal then in the hands of the Christians. Henry was succeeded by his son, Alphonfus Henry, in the year 1095, who gained a decisive victory over five Moorish kings, in July, 1139. This victory proved the origin of the monarchy of Portugal, for Alphonfus was then proclaimed king by his soldiers. He reigned forty-six years, and was esteemed for his courage and love of learning. — His descendants maintained themselves on the throne for some centuries; indeed Sancho II. was expelled from his dominions for cowardice, in the year 1240.

Dennis I. or Dionysius, was called the *Father of his country*; he built and rebuilt forty-four cities and towns in Portugal, founded the military order of Christ, and was a very fortunate prince. He reigned forty-six years. — Under his successor, Alphonfus IV. happened several earthquakes at Lisbon, which threw down part of the city, and destroyed many lives. — John I. was illustrious for his courage, prudence, and conquests in Africa; under him Madeira was first discovered, in 1420, and the Canaries; he took Ceuta, and, after a reign of forty-nine years, died in the year 1433. In the reign of Alphonso V. about 1480, the Portuguese discovered the coast of Guinea; and in the reign of his successor, John II. they discovered the Cape of Good Hope, and the kingdom of Moni-Congo, and settled colonies, and built forts in Africa, Guinea, and the East-Indies. Emanuel, surnamed the Great, succeeded him in 1495, and adopted the plan of his predecessors, fitting out fleets for new discoveries. Vasco de Gama, under him, cruised along the coast of Africa and Ethiopia, and landed in Indostan: and in the year 1500, Alvarez discovered Brasil.

John III. succeeded in 1521, and while he lost some of his African settlements, made new acquisitions in the Indies. He sent the famous Xavier as a missionary to Japan, and, in the height of his zeal, established that infernal tribunal, the inquisition, in Portugal, anno 1526,

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against the entreaties and remonstrances of his people. Sebastian, his grandson, succeeded him in 1557, and undertook a crusade against the Moors in Africa. In 1578, in a battle with the king of Fez and Morocco, on the banks of the river Lucco, he was defeated, and either slain or drowned. Henry, a cardinal, and uncle to the unfortunate Sebastian, being the son of Emanuel, succeeded, but died without issue, in the year 1580: on which, Antony, prior of Crato, was chosen king, by the states of the kingdom; but Philip II. of Spain, as has been observed in our history of that country, pretended that the crown belonged to him, because his mother was the eldest daughter of Emanuel, and sent the duke of Alva with a powerful force, who subdued the country, and proclaimed his master king of Portugal, the 12th of September, 1580.

The viceroys under Philip and his two successors, Philip III. and Philip IV. behaved towards the Portuguese with great rapacity and violence. The Spanish ministers treated them as vassals of Spain, and, by their repeated acts of oppression and tyranny, so kindled the hatred and courage of the Portuguese, as to produce a revolt at Lisbon, the first of December, 1640. The people obliged John, duke of Braganza, the legitimate heir to the crown, to accept it, and he succeeded to the throne by the title of John IV. almost without bloodshed; and the foreign settlements also acknowledged him as their sovereign. A fierce war subsisted for many years between the two kingdoms, and all the efforts of the Spaniards to re-unite them proved vain, so that a treaty was concluded in February, 1668, by which Portugal was declared to be free and independent.

The Portuguese could not have supported themselves under their revolt from Spain, had not the latter power been engaged in wars with England and Holland; and, upon the restoration of Charles II. of England, that prince having married a princess of Portugal, prevailed with the crown of Spain to give up all pretensions to that kingdom. Alphonso, son to John IV. was then king of Portugal. He had the misfortune to disagree at once with his wife and his brother Peter; and they uniting their interests, not only forced Alphonso to resign his crown, but obtained a dispensation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually consummated. They had a daughter; but Peter, by a second marriage, had sons, the eldest of whom was John, his successor, and father to the late king of Portugal. John, like his father, joined the grand confederacy formed by king William; but neither of them were of much service in humbling the power of France. On the contrary, he almost ruined the allies, by occasioning the loss of the battle of Almanza, in 1707. — John died in 1750, and was succeeded by his son Joseph, whose reign was neither happy to himself, nor fortunate to his people. The fatal earthquake, in 1755, overwhelmed his capital, and shook his kingdom to the centre. His succeeding administration was not distinguished by the affection that it acquired at home, or the reputation which it sustained abroad. It was deeply stained with domestic blood, and rendered odious by excessive and horrible cruelty. On September, 1758, the king was attacked by assassins, and narrowly escaped with his life, in a solitary place near his country palace of Beja. The families of Aveira and Tavora were destroyed by torture, in consequence of an accusation being exhibited against them of having conspired against the king's life. But they were condemned without proper evidence, and their innocence has been since authentically declared. From this supposed conspiracy is dated the expulsion of the

Jesuits (who were conjectured to have been at the bottom of the plot) from all parts of the Portuguese dominions. The marquis de Pombal, who was at this time the prime minister of Portugal, governed the kingdom for many years with a most unbounded authority, and which appears to have been sometimes directed to the most cruel and arbitrary purposes.

In 1762, when a war broke out between Spain and England, the Spaniards, and their allies, the French, attempted to force his Faithful Majesty into their alliance, and offered to garrison his sea-towns against the English, with their troops. The king of Portugal rejected this proposal, and declared war against the Spaniards, who, without resistance, entered Portugal with a considerable army, while a body of French threatened it from another quarter. Some have doubted whether any of these courts were in earnest upon this occasion, and whether the whole of the pretended war was not concerted to force England into a peace with France and Spain, in consideration of Portugal's apparent danger. It is certain, that both the French and Spaniards carried on the war in a very dilatory manner, and that, had they been in earnest, they might have been masters of Lisbon, long before the arrival of the English troops to the assistance of the Portuguese. However, a few English battalions put an effectual stop, by their courage and manœuvres, to the progress of the invasion. Portugal was saved, and a peace was concluded at Fontainebleau, in 1763. Notwithstanding this eminent service performed by the English to the Portuguese, who often had been saved before in the like manner, the latter, ever since that period, cannot be said to have beheld their deliverers with a friendly eye. The most captious distinctions and frivolous pretences have been invented by the Portuguese ministers, for cramping the English trade, and depriving them of their privileges.

His Portuguese majesty having no son, his eldest daughter was married, by dispensation from the pope, to don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown from falling into a foreign family. The late king died on the 24th of February, 1777, and was succeeded by his daughter, the present queen. One of the first acts of her majesty's reign was the removal from power of the marquis de Pombal; an event which excited general joy throughout the kingdom, as might naturally be expected from the arbitrary and oppressive nature of his administration; though it has been alleged in his favour, that he adopted sundry public measures which were calculated to promote the real interests of Portugal.

On the 10th of March, 1792, the prince of Brasil, as presumptive heir to the crown, published an edict, declaring, that as his mother, from her unhappy situation, was incapable of managing the affairs of government, he would place his signature to public papers, till the return of her health; and that no other change should be made in the forms.

Portugal, as the ally of England, took a feeble part in the war against France; but her exertions were confined to furnishing Spain with a few auxiliary troops, and sending a small squadron to join the English fleet. A treaty of peace between Portugal and France has, however, lately been signed, on terms not very honourable to the former power.

The queen is disordered by religious melancholy; and Dr. Will has been called to cure her; but her recovery remaining hopeless, the government of the country rests with the prince of Brasil.

Maria-Frances-Isabella, queen of Portugal, born December 17, 1733, married, June 6, 1760, to her uncle, don Pedro Clement, F. R. S. 50

July 5, 1777.

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July 5, 1717, who died May 25, 1786; began to reign February 24, 1777.

Their issue.

John-Maria-Joseph-Louis, born May 13, 1767; married, March 20, 1785, Maria-Louisa, of Spain, born July 9, 1777.

The issue by the late king.

1. Her present majesty.
2. Anna-Frances-Antoinetta, born October 8, 1736.
3. Maria-Francisca-Benedicta, born July 24, 1746; married, in 1775, to her nephew, the prince of Brasil, who died September 11, 1788.

I T A L Y.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 600 } Breadth 400 }	between { 38 and 47 north latitude. { 7 and 19 east longitude.

Containing 116,967 square miles, with 170 inhabitants in each.

THE form of Italy renders it very difficult to ascertain its extent and dimensions; for, according to some accounts, it is, from the frontiers of Switzerland, to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, about 750 miles in length; and from the frontiers of the duchy of Savoy, to those of the dominions of the states of Venice, which is its greatest breadth, about 400 miles, though in some parts it is scarcely 100.

BOUNDARIES.] Nature has fixed the boundaries of Italy; for towards the East it is bounded by the Gulf of Venice, or Adriatic Sea; on the South and West by the Mediterranean Sea; and on the North, by the lofty mountains of the Alps, which divide it from France and Switzerland.

The whole of the Italian dominions, comprehending Corsica, Sardinia, the Venetian and other islands, are divided and exhibited in the following table:

Italy.	Countries' Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
	Piedmont	6619	140	98	Turin
	Montferrat	446	40	22	Casal
To the king of Sardinia,	Alexandria	204	27	20	Alexandria
	Oneglia	132	24	7	Oneglia
	Sardinia I.	6600	135	57	Cagliari
To the king of Naples,	Naples	22,000	275	100	Naples
	Sicily I.	9400	180	92	Palermo
	Milan	5431	155	70	Milan
To the new Cisalpine republic,	Mantua	700	47	27	Mantua
	Mirandola	120	19	10	Mirandola
	Mafia	82	16	11	Mafia
	Modena	2560	65	30	Modena

Italy.	Countries' Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
	Pope's dominions	14,348	235	143	ROME. { N. Lat. 41.54 E. Lon. 12.45
To their respective princes,	Tuscany	6640	115	94	Florence
	Parma	1225	48	37	Parma
	Piombino	100	22	18	Piombino
	Monaco	24	12	4	Monaco
Republics,	Lucca	287	28	15	Lucca
	St. Marino	8			St. Marino
	Genoa	2400	160	55	Genoa
To the emperor,	Venice	8434	175	95	Venice
	Istria	1245	6	32	Capo d'Istria
	Dalmatia P.	1400	135	20	Zara
	Savoy	3572	87	60	Chamberry
	Corfica I.	1520	90	38	Bastia
To France,	Iles of Dalmatia	1364			
	Cephalonia	428	40	18	Cephalonia
	Corfu, or Coreyra	194	31	10	Corfu
	Zant, or Zacynthus	120	23	12	Zant
	St. Maura	56	12	7	St. Maura
	Little Cephalonia (Ithaca olim)	14	7	3	
	Total	75,956			

SOIL AND AIR.] The happy soil of Italy produces the comforts and luxuries of life in great abundance; each district has its peculiar excellency and commodity; wines, the most delicious fruits, and oil, are the most general productions. As much corn grows here as serves the inhabitants; and were the ground properly cultivated, the Italians might export it to their neighbours. The Italian cheeses, particularly those called Parmesans, and their native silk, form a principal part of their commerce. There is here a great variety of air: and some parts of Italy bear melancholy proofs of the alterations that accidental causes make on the face of nature; for the Campagna di Roma, where the ancient Romans enjoyed the most salubrious air of any place perhaps on the globe, is now almost pestilential, through the decrease of inhabitants, which has occasioned a stagnation of waters, and putrid exhalations. The air of the northern parts, which lie among the Alps, or in their neighbourhood, is keen and piercing, the ground being in many places covered with snow in winter. The Apennines, which are a ridge of mountains that longitudinally almost divide Italy, have great effects on its climate; the countries on the south being warm, those on the north, mild and temperate. The sea breezes refresh the kingdom of Naples so much, that no remarkable inconveniency of air is found there, notwithstanding its southern situation. In general, the air of Italy may be said to be dry and pure.

MOUNTAINS.] We have already mentioned the Alps and Apennines, which form the chief mountains of Italy. The famous volcano of Mount Vesuvius lies in the neighbourhood of Naples.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers of Italy are the Po, the Var, the Adige, the Trebia, the Arno, and the Tiber, which runs through the city of Rome. The famous Rubicon forms the southern boundary between Italy and the ancient Cisalpine Gaul.

The lakes of Italy are the Maggiore, Lugano, Como, Isco, and Garda, in the north; the Perugia or Trasimene, Bracciana, Terni, and Celano, in the middle.

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SEAS, GULFS, OR BAYS, CAPES, } Without a knowledge of these,
 PROMONTORIES, AND STRAITS. } neither the ancient Roman au-
 thors, nor the history or geography of Italy, can be understood. The
 seas of Italy are the gulf of Venice, or the Adriatic sea; the seas of
 Naples, Tuscany, and Genoa; the bays or harbours of Nice, Villa
 Franca, Oneglia, Final, Savona, Vado, Spezzia, Lucca, Pisa, Leghorn,
 Piombino, Civita Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policastro, Rhegio,
 Squilace, Taranto, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trieste, Istria, and
 Fiume; Cape Spartavento, del Alice, Otranto, and Ancona; the strait
 of Messina, between Italy and Sicily.

The gulfs and bays in the Italian islands are those of Fiorenze, Bastia,
 Talada, Porto Novo, Cape Corso, Bonifacio, and Ferro, in Corsica;
 and the strait of Bonifacio, between Corsica and Sardinia. The bays of
 Cagliari and Oristagni; Cape de Sardin, Cavello, Monte Santo, and
 Polo, in Sardinia. The gulfs of Messina, Melazzo, Palmero, Mazara,
 Syracuse, and Catania; Cape Faro, Melazzo, Orlando, Gallo, Tra-
 pano, Passaro, and Alessia, in Sicily; and the bays of Porto Feraio, and
 Porto Longone, in the island of Elba.

METALS AND MINERALS. } Many places of Italy abound in mineral
 springs; some hot, some warm, and many of sulphureous, chalybeat,
 and medicinal qualities. Many of its mountains abound in mines that
 produce great quantities of emeralds, jasper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli,
 and other valuable stones. Iron and copper-mines are found in a few
 places; and a mill for forging and fabricating these metals is erected
 near Tivoli, in Naples. Sardinia is said to contain mines of gold, sil-
 ver, lead, iron, sulphur, and alum, though they are now neglected; and
 curious crystals and coral are found on the coast of Corsica. Beautiful
 marble of all kinds is one of the chief productions of Italy.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRO- } Besides the rich vegetable pro-
 DUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. } ductions mentioned under the ar-
 ticle of soil, Italy produces citrons, and such quantities of chefnuts,
 cherries, plums, and other fruits, that they are of little value to the pro-
 prietors.

There is little difference between the animal productions of Italy,
 either by land or sea, and those of France and Germany already men-
 tioned.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MAN- } Authors are greatly divided
 NERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } on the head of Italian popula-
 tion. This may be owing, in a great measure, to the partiality which
 every Italian has for the honour of his own province. The number of
 the king of Sardinia's subjects in Italy is about 2,300,000. The city
 of Milan itself, by the best accounts, contains 300,000, and the duchy
 proportionably populous. As to the other provinces of Italy, geo-
 graphers and travellers have paid very little attention to the numbers
 of natives that live in the country, and inform us by conjecture only of
 those who inhabit the great cities. Some doubts have arisen whether
 Italy is as populous now as it was in the time of Pliny, when it con-
 tained 14,000,000 of inhabitants. It seems probable that the present
 inhabitants exceed that number. The Campagna di Roma, and some other
 of the most beautiful parts of Italy, are at present in a manner desolate;
 but we are to consider that the princes and states of Italy now en-
 courage agriculture and manufactures of all kinds; which undoubtedly
 promotes population; so that it may not perhaps be extravagant, if we
 assign to Italy 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but some calculations great-

ly exceed that number*. The Italians are generally well proportioned, and have such meaning in their looks, that they have greatly assisted the ideas of their painters. The women are well-shaped, and very amorous. The marriage ties, especially of the better sort, are said to be of very little value in Italy. Every wife has been represented to have her gallant or cicisbeo, with whom she keeps company, and sometimes cohabits, with very little ceremony, and no offence on either side. But this practice is chiefly remarkable at Venice; and indeed the representations which have been made of this kind by travellers, appear to have been much exaggerated. With regard to the modes of life, the best quality of a modern Italian is sobriety, and they submit very patiently to the public government. With great taciturnity, they discover but little reflection. They are rather vindictive than brave, and more superstitious than devout. The middling ranks are attached to their native customs, and seem to have no ideas of improvement. Their fondness for greens, fruits, and vegetables of all kinds, contributes to their contentment and satisfaction; and an Italian gentleman or peasant can be luxurious at a very small expense. Though perhaps all Italy does not contain many descendants of the ancient Romans, yet the present inhabitants speak of themselves as successors of the conquerors of the world, and look upon the rest of mankind with contempt.

The dress of the Italians is little different from that of the neighbouring countries, and they affect a medium between the French volatility and the solemnity of the Spaniards. The Neapolitans are commonly dressed in black, in compliment to the Spaniards. It cannot be denied that the Italians excel in the fine arts: though they make at present but a very inconsiderable figure in the sciences. They cultivate and enjoy vocal music at a very dear rate, by emasculating their males when young; to which their mercenary parents agree without remorse.

The Italians, the Venetians especially, have very little or no notion of the impropriety of many customs that are considered as criminal in other countries. Parents, rather than their sons should throw themselves away by unsuitable marriages, or contract diseases by promiscuous amours, hire mistresses for them, for a month, or a year, or some determined time; and concubinage, in many places of Italy, is an avowed licensed trade. The Italian courtesans, or *bona-robas*, as they are called, make a kind of profession in all their cities. Masquerading and gaming, horse races without riders, and conversations or assemblies, are the chief diversions of the Italians, excepting religious exhibitions, in which they are pompous beyond all other nations.

A modern writer, describing his journey through Italy, gives us a very unfavourable picture of the Italians and their manner of living. Give what scope you please to your fancy, says he, you will never imagine half the disagreeableness that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Italian nastiness, offer to an Englishman. At Turin, Milan, Venice, Rome, and perhaps two or three other towns, you meet with good accommodations; but no words can express the wretchedness of the other inns. No other beds than those of straw, with a mattress of straw and next to that a dirty sheet, sprinkled with water, and consequently damp; for a covering, you have another sheet as coarse as the first like one of our kitchen jack-towels, with a dirty coverlit. The bedding

* Mr. Swinburne says, that in 1779, the number of inhabitants in the kingdom of Naples amounted to 4,249,430, exclusive of the army and naval establishments.

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consists of four wooden forms or benches. An English peer and peers must lie in this manner, unless they carry an upholsterer's shop with them. There are, by the bye, no such things as curtains; and in all their inns the walls are bare, and the floor has never once been washed since it was first laid. One of the most indelicate customs here, is that men, and not women, make the ladies' beds, and would do every office of a maid-servant, if suffered. They never scour their pewter; their knives are of the same colour. In these inns they make you pay largely, and send up ten times as much as you can eat. The soup, like wash, with pieces of liver swimming in it; a plate full of brains fried in the shape of fritters; a dish of livers and gizzards; a couple of fowls (always killed after your arrival) boiled to rags, without any the least kind of sauce or herbage; another fowl, just killed, stewed as they call it; then two more fowls, or a turkey, roasted to rags. All over Italy, on the road, the chickens and fowls are so stringy, you may divide the breast into as many filaments as you can a halfpenny-worth of thread. Now and then we get a little piece of mutton or veal; and, generally speaking, it is the only eatable morsel that falls in our way. The bread all the way is exceedingly bad; and the butter so rancid, that it cannot be touched, or even borne within the reach of your smell. But what is a greater evil to travellers than any of the above recited, are the infinite numbers of gnats, bugs, fleas, and lice, which infest us by day and night.

[RELIGION.] The religion of the Italians is Roman catholic. The inquisition here is little more than a sound; and persons of all religions live unmolested in Italy, provided no gross insult is offered to their worship. In the Introduction, we have given an account of the rise and establishment of popery in Italy, from whence it spread over all Europe; likewise of the causes and symptoms of its decline. The ecclesiastical government of the papacy has employed many volumes in describing it. The cardinals, who are next in dignity to his holiness, are seventy; but that number is seldom or never complete: they are appointed by the pope, who takes care to have a majority of Italian cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the then pope being a Frenchman. In promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalship, the pope regulates himself according to the nomination of the princes who profess that religion. His chief minister is the cardinal patron, generally his nephew, or near relation, who improves the time of the pope's reign by amassing what he can. When met in a consistory, the cardinals pretend to control the pope, in matters both spiritual and temporal, and have been sometimes known to prevail. The reign of a pope is seldom of long duration, being generally old men at the time of their election. The conclave is a scene where the cardinals principally endeavour to display their abilities, and where many transactions pass very inconsistent with their pretended inspiration by the Holy Ghost. During the election of a pope, in 1721, the animosities ran so high, that they came to blows with both their hands and feet, and threw the ink standishes at each other. We shall here give an extract from the creed of pope Plus IV. 1560, before his elevation to the chair, which contains the principal points wherein the church of Rome differs from the protestant churches. After declaring his belief in one God, and other heads wherein Christians in general are agreed, he proceeds as follows:

"I most firmly admit and embrace the apostolical and ecclesiastical traditions, and all other constitutions of the church of Rome.

" I do admit the holy scriptures in the same sense that holy mother-church doth, whose business it is to judge of the true sense and interpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous consent of the fathers.

" I do profess and believe that there are seven sacraments of the law, truly and properly so called, instituted by Jesus Christ our Lord, and necessary to the salvation of mankind, though not all of them to every one; namely, baptism, confirmation, eucharist, penance, extreme unction, orders, and marriage, and that they do confer grace; and that of these, baptism, confirmation, and orders, may not be repeated without sacrifice. I do also receive and admit the received and approved rites of the catholic church in her solemn administration of the above-said sacraments.

" I do embrace and receive all and every thing that hath been defined and declared by the holy council of Trent* concerning original sin and justification.

" I do also profess that in the mass there is offered unto God a true, proper, and propitiatory sacrifice for the quick and the dead; and that in the most holy sacrament of the eucharist there is truly, really, and substantially, the body and blood, together with the soul and divinity, of our Lord Jesus Christ; and that there is a conversion made of the whole substance of the bread into the body, and of the whole substance of the wine into the blood; which conversion the catholic church calls Transubstantiation. I confess that under one kind only, whole and entire, Christ and a true sacrament is taken and received.

" I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory; and that the souls kept prisoners there do receive help by the suffrages of the faithful.

" I do likewise believe that the saints reigning together with Christ are to be worshipped and prayed unto; and that they do offer up prayers unto God for us, and that their relics are to be had in veneration.

" I do most firmly assert that the images of Christ, of the blessed Virgin the mother of God, and of other saints, ought to be had and retained, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given unto them †.

" I do likewise affirm, that the power of indulgences was left by Christ to the church, and that the use of them is very beneficial to Christian people.

" I do acknowledge the holy catholic, and apostolical Roman church to be the mother and mistress of all churches; and I do promise and

* A convocation of Roman catholic cardinals, archbishops, bishops, and divines, who assembled at Trent, by virtue of a bull from the pope, anno 1546, and devoted to him, to determine upon certain points of faith, and to suppress what they were pleased to term the rising heresies in the church.

† An English traveller, speaking of a religious procession some years ago at Florence, in Italy, describes it as follows: " I had occasion," says he, " to see a procession, where all the nobles of the city attended in their coaches. It was the anniversary of a charitable institution in favour of poor maidens, a certain number of whom are portioned every year. About two hundred of these virgins walked in procession, two and two together. They were preceded and followed by an irregular mob of youths, in sack-cloth, with lighted tapers, and monks carrying crucifixes, bawling and hallowing the litanies; but the greatest object was the figure of the Virgin Mary, big as the life, standing within a gilt frame, dressed in a gold stuff, with a large and a great quantity of false jewels, her face painted and patched, and her hair frizzed and curled in the very extremity of the fashion. Very little regard had been paid to the image of our Saviour on the cross; but when the Lady Mother appeared on the shoulders of three or four luby friars, the whole populace fell upon their knees in dirt."

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swear true obedience to the bishop of Rome, the successor of St. Peter, the prince of the apostles, and vicar of Jesus Christ.

“ I do undoubtedly receive and profess all other things which have been delivered, defined, and declared, by the sacred canons and oecumenical councils, and especially by the holy synod of Trent. And all other things contrary thereto, and all heresies condemned, rejected, and anathematized by the church, I do likewise condemn, reject, and anathematize.”

ARCHBISHOPS.] There are thirty-eight archbishoprics in Italy, but the suffragans annexed to them are too indefinite and arbitrary for the reader to depend upon; the pope creating or suppressing them as he pleases.

LANGUAGE.] The Italian language is remarkable for its smoothness, and the facility with which it enters into musical compositions. The ground-work of it is Latin, and it is easily mastered by a good classical scholar. Almost every state in Italy has a different dialect; and the prodigious pains taken by the literary societies there, may at last fix the Italian into a standard language. At present, the Tuscan style and writing is most in request.

The Lord's prayer runs thus: *Padre nostro che sei nel cielo, sia santificato il tuo nome; il tuo regno venga; la tua volontà sia fatta siccome in cielo così anche in terra: dacci oggi il nostro pane cotidiano; e rimettici i nostri debiti, siccome noi ancora rimettiamo a' nostri debitori; e non inducici in tentazione, ma liberaci dal maligno; perciocche tuo è il regno, e la potenza, e la gloria in sempiterno. Amen.*

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN, PAINTERS, } In the Introduction
STATUARIES, ARCHITECTS, AND ARTISTS. } we have particularised
some of the great men which ancient Italy has produced. In modern times, that is, since the revival of learning, some Italians have shone in controversial learning, but they are chiefly celebrated by bigots of their own persuasion. The mathematics and natural philosophy owe much to Galileo, Torricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and several other Italians. Strada is an excellent historian; and the history of the council of Trent, by the celebrated father Paul, is a standard work. Guicciardini, Bentivoglio, and Davila, have been much commended as historians by their several admirers. Machiavel is equally famous as an historian, and as a political writer. His comedies have much merit: and the liberality of his sentiments, for the age in which he lived, is amazing. Among the prose writers in the Italian language, Boccace has been thought one of the most pure and correct in point of style: he was a very natural painter of life and manners, but his productions are too licentious. Petrarch, who wrote both in Latin and Italian, revived among the moderns the spirit and genius of ancient literature: but among the Italian poets, Dante, Ariosto, and Tasso, are the most distinguished. There are said to be upwards of a thousand comedies in the Italian language, though not many that are excellent: but Metastasio has acquired a great reputation by writing dramatic pieces set to music. Sannazarius, Fracastorius, Bembo, Vida, and other natives of Italy, have distinguished themselves by the elegance, correctness, and spirit of their Latin poetry; many of their compositions not yielding to the classics themselves: Sotinus, who was so much distinguished by his opposition to the doctrine of the Trinity, was a native of Italy.

The Italian painters, sculptors, architects, and musicians, are unrivalled, not only in their numbers, but their excellencies. The revival of learning, after the sack of Constantinople by the Turks, revived taste

likewise, and gave mankind a relish for truth and beauty in design and colouring. Raphael from his own ideas, assisted by the ancients, struck out a new creation with his pencil, and still stands at the head of the art of painting. Michael Angelo Buonarrotti united in his own person painting, sculpture, and architecture. The colouring of Titian has perhaps never yet been equalled. Bramante, Bernini, and many other Italians, carried sculpture and architecture to an amazing height. Julio Romano, Correggio, Caraccio, Veronese, and others, are, as painters, unequalled in their several manners. The same may be said of Corelli, and other Italians, in music. At present Italy cannot justly boast of any extraordinary genius in the fine arts.

UNIVERSITIES.] Those of Italy are, Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Pisa*, Naples, Salerno, and Perugia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES. } Italy is the native country of all
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } that is stupendous, great, or beautiful, either in ancient or modern times. A library may be filled by descriptions and delineations of all that is rare and curious in the arts; nor do the bounds of this work admit only of a very brief account of those objects that are most distinguished either for antiquity or excellence.

The amphitheatres claim the first rank, as a species of the most striking magnificence. There are at Rome considerable remains of that which was erected by Vespasian, and finished by Domitian, called the Colisseo. Twelve thousand Jewish captives were employed by Vespasian in this building; and it is said to have been capable of containing eighty-seven thousand spectators seated, and twenty thousand standing. The architecture of this amphitheatre is perfectly light, and its proportions are so just, that it does not appear near so large as it really is. But it has been stripped of all its magnificent pillars and ornaments, at various times, and by various enemies. The Goths, and other barbarians, began its destruction, and popes and cardinals have endeavoured to complete its ruin. Cardinal Farnese, in particular, robbed it of some fine remains of its marble cornices, friezes, &c. and with infinite pains and labour, got away what was practicable of the outside casing of marble, which he employed in building the palace of Farnese. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the consul Flaminius, is thought to be the most entire of any in Italy. There are forty-five rows of steps carried all round, formed of fine blocks of marble about a foot and a half high each, and above two feet broad. Twenty-two thousand persons may be seated here at their ease, allowing one foot and a half for each person. This amphitheatre is quite perfect, and has been lately repaired, with the greatest care, at the expense of the inhabitants. They frequently give public spectacles in it, such as horse-races, combats of wild beasts, &c. The ruins of theatres and amphitheatres are likewise visible in other places. The triumphal arches of Vespasian, Septimius Severus, and Constantine the Great, are still standing, though decayed: The ruins of the baths, palaces, and temples, answer all the ideas we can form of the Roman grandeur. The Pantheon, which is at present converted into a modern church, and which from its circular figure is commonly called the Rotunda, is more entire than any other Roman temple which is now remaining. There are still left several of the niches which anciently contained the statues of the heathen deities. The outside of the building is of Tivoli free-stone, and within it is incruste

* Pisa has forty-six professors.

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with marble. The roof of the Pantheon is a round dome, without pillars, the diameter of which is a hundred and forty-four feet; and though it has no windows, but only a round aperture in the centre of this dome, it is very light in every part. The pavement consists of large square stones and porphyry, sloping round towards the centre, where the rain-water, falling down through the aperture on the top of the dome, is conveyed away by a proper drain covered with a stone full of holes. The colonnade in the front, which consists of sixteen columns of granite, thirty-seven feet high, exclusive of the pedestals and capitals, each cut out of a single block, and which are of the Corinthian order, can hardly be viewed without astonishment. The entrance of the church is adorned with columns forty-eight feet high, and the architrave is formed of a single piece of granite. On the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large antique vase of Numidian marble; and in the area before the church is a fountain with an antique of porphyry. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with instructive sculptures, are still remaining. A traveller forgets the devastations of the northern barbarians, when he sees the rostrated column erected by Duillius in commemoration of the first naval victory the Romans gained over the Carthaginians; the statue of the wolf giving suck to Romulus and Remus, with visible marks of the stroke of lightning, mentioned by Cicero; the original brass plates containing the laws of the twelve tables; and a thousand other identical antiquities, some of them transmitted unhurt to the present times; not to mention medals, and the infinite variety of seals and engraved stones which abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many palaces, all over Italy, are furnished with busts and statues fabricated in the times of the republic and the higher empire.

The Appian, Flamian, and Æmilian roads, the first 200 miles, the second 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are in many places still entire; and magnificent ruins of villas, reservoirs, bridges, and the like, present themselves all over Italy.

The subterraneous constructions of Italy are as stupendous as those above ground: such are the cloacæ, and the catacombs, or repositories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above 30 years since a painter's apprentice discovered the ancient city of Pæstum or Posidonia, in the kingdom of Naples, still standing; for so indifferent are the country people of Italy about objects of antiquity, that it was a new discovery to the learned. An inexhaustible mine of curiosities exists in the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Vesuvius, which in the reign of Nero was almost destroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the first year of the reign of Titus, overwhelmed by a stream of the lava of Vesuvius. The melted lava in its course filled up the streets and houses in some places to the height of sixty-eight feet above the tops of the latter, and in others one hundred and ten feet. This lava is now of a consistency which renders it extremely difficult to be removed or cleared away: it is composed of bituminous particles, mixed with cinders, minerals, metallics, and vitrified sandy substances, which all together form a close and heavy mass. In the revolution of so many ages, the spot it stood upon was entirely forgotten; but in the year 1713, upon digging into these parts, somewhat of this unfortunate city was discovered, and many antiquities were dug out: but the search was afterwards discontinued, till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig perpendicularly eighty feet deep, whereupon not only the city made its

appearance, but also the bed of the river which ran through it. The temple of Jupiter was then brought to light, and the whole of the theatre. In the temple was found a statue of gold, and the inscription that decorated the great doors of entrance. In the theatre the fragments of a gilt chariot of bronze, with horses of the same metal, likewise gilt: this had been placed over the principal door of entrance. They likewise found among the ruins of this city multitudes of statues, busts, pillars, paintings, manuscripts, furniture, and various utensils, and the search is still continued. The streets of the town appear to have been quite straight and regular, the houses well built, and much alike; some of the rooms paved with mosaic, other with fine marbles, others again with bricks, three feet long and six inches thick. It appears that the town was not filled up so unexpectedly with the melted lava, as to prevent the greatest part of the inhabitants from escaping with many of the richest effects: for when the excavations were made, there was not more than a dozen skeletons found, and but little gold, silver, or precious stones.

The town of Pompeii was destroyed by the same eruption of Mount Vesuvius, which occasioned the destruction of *Herculaneum*; but it was not discovered till near forty years after the discovery of *Herculaneum*. One street, and a few detached buildings of this town, have been cleared: the street is well paved with the same kind of stone of which the ancient roads are made, and narrow causeways are raised a foot and a half on each side for conveniency of foot passengers. Dr. Moore observes, that the street itself is not so broad as the narrowest part of the Strand, and is supposed to have been inhabited by *tragic* people. The traces of wheels of carriages are to be seen on the pavement. The houses are small, but give an idea of neatness and conveniency. The stucco on the walls is smooth and beautiful, and as hard as marble. Some of the rooms are ornamented with paintings, mostly single figures, representing some animal. They are tolerably well executed, and a little water being thrown on them, the colours appear surprisngly fresh. Most of the houses are built on the same plan, and have one small room from the passage, which is conjectured to have been the shop, with a window to the street, and a place which seems to have been contrived for showing the goods to the greatest advantage. In another part of the town is a rectangular building, with a colonnade towards the court, something in the style of the Royal Exchange at London, but smaller. At a considerable distance from this, is a temple of the goddess Isis, the pillars of which are of brick, stuccoed like those of the guard-room; but there is nothing very magnificent in the appearance of this edifice. The best paintings hitherto found at Pompeii, are those of this temple; they have been cut out of the walls, and removed to Portici. Few skeletons were found in the streets of this town, but a considerable number in the houses. In one apartment (says Mr. Sutherland), we saw the skeletons of 17 poor wretches, who were confined by the ancles in an iron machine. Many other bodies were found, some of them in circumstances which plainly show that they were endeavouring to escape, when the eruption overtook them.

With regard to modern curiosities in Italy, they are as numerous as the remains of antiquity. Rome itself contains 300 churches, filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting, and sculpture. Each city and town of Italy contains a proportionable number. The church of St. Peter at Rome is the most astonishing, bold, and regular fabric, that ever perhaps existed; and when examined by the rules of art, it may be

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The natural curiosities of Italy, though remarkable, are not so numerous as its artificial. Mount Vesuvius, which is five Italian miles distant from the city of Naples, and Mount *Ætna*, in Sicily, are remarkable for emitting fire from their tops. The declivity of Mount Vesuvius towards the sea, is every where planted with vines and fruit-trees, and it is equally fertile towards the bottom. The circumjacent plain affords a delightful prospect, and the air is clear and wholesome. The south and west sides of the mountain form very different views, being, like the top, covered with black cinders and stones. The height of Mount Vesuvius has been computed to be 3900 feet above the surface of the sea. It has been a volcano, beyond the reach of history or tradition. An animated description of its ravages in the year 79, is given by the younger Pliny, who was a witness to what he wrote. From that time to the year 1631, its eruptions were but small and moderate; however, then it broke out with accumulated fury, and desolated miles around. In 1694, was a great eruption, which continued near a month, when burning matter was thrown out with so much force, that some of it fell at thirty miles distance, and a vast quantity of melted minerals, mixed with other matter, ran down like a river for three miles, carrying every thing before it which lay in its way. In 1707, when there was another eruption, such quantities of cinders and ashes were thrown out, that it was dark at Naples at noon-day. In 1767, a violent eruption happened, which is reckoned to be the 17th from that which destroyed *Herculaeum*, in the time of Titus. In this eruption, the ashes, or rather small cinders, showered down so fast at Naples, that the people in the streets were obliged to use umbrellas, or adopt some other expedient, to guard themselves against them. The tops of the houses and the balconies were covered with these cinders; and ships at sea, twenty leagues from Naples, were covered with them, to the great astonishment of the sailors. An eruption happened also in 1766, another in 1779, which have been particularly described by sir William Hamilton in the *Philosophical Transactions*; and another in June, 1794, which laid waste a considerable tract of country, and destroyed several villages, and a great number of habitations. It has been observed by a modern traveller, that though Mount Vesuvius often fills the neighbouring country with terror, yet, as few things in nature are so absolutely noxious as not to produce some good, even this raging volcano, by its sulphureous and nitrous manure, and the heat of its subterraneous fires, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of the country about it, and to the profusion of fruits and herbage with which it is every where covered. Besides, it is supposed that, open and active, the mount is less hostile to Naples, than it would be, if its eruptions were to cease, and its struggles confined to its own bowels, for then might ensue the most fatal shocks to the unstable foundation of the whole district of *Terra di Lavoro* *.

* Sir William Hamilton, in his account of the earthquakes in Calabria Ultra, and Sicily, from February 5th, to May, 1783, gives several reasons for believing that they were occasioned by the operation of a volcano, the seat of which lay deeper either under the bottom of the sea, between *Stromboli*, and the coast of Calabria, or under the parts of the plain towards *Oppido* and *Terra Nuova*. He plainly observed a gradation in the damage done to the buildings, as also in the degree of mortality, in proportion as the countries were more or less distant from this supposed centre of a civil,

Mount *Ætna* is 10,954 feet in height, and has been computed to be 60 miles in circumference. It stands separate from all other mountains, its figure is circular, and it terminates in a cone. The lower parts of it are very fruitful in corn and sugar-canes; the middle abounds with woods, olive-trees, and vines; and the upper part is almost the whole year covered with snow. Its fiery eruptions have always rendered it famous: in one of these, which happened in 1669, fourteen towns and villages were destroyed, and there have been several terrible eruptions since that time. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption. In 1693, the port-town of *Catania* was overturned, and 18,000 people perished.

Near the lake *Agnano* and *Pozzuolo*, there is a valley called *Solfatara*, because vast quantities of sulphur are continually forced out of the clefts by subterranean fires. The grotto del *Cane* is remarkable for its poisonous steams, and is so called from its killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there. Scorpions, vipers, and serpents, are said to be common in *Apulia*.

Among the natural curiosities of Italy, those vast bodies of snow and ice, which are called the glaciers of *Savoy*, deserve to be particularly mentioned. There are five glaciers which extend almost to the plain of the vale of *Chamouny*, and are separated by wild forests, corn fields, and rich meadows; so that immense tracts of ice are blended with the highest cultivation, and perpetually succeed to each other, in the most singular and striking vicissitude. All these several valleys of ice, which lie chiefly in the hollows of the mountains, and are some leagues in length, unite together at the foot of *Mont Blanc*; the highest mountain in Europe, and probably of the ancient world. According to the calculations of *M. de Luc*, the height of this mountain above the level of the sea, is 2391 $\frac{1}{2}$ French toises, or 15,303 English feet. "I am convinced," says *Mr. Coxe*, "from the situation of *Mont Blanc*, from the height of the mountains around it, from its superior elevation above them, and its being seen at a great distance from all sides, that it is higher than any mountain in *Switzerland*; which, beyond a doubt, is next to *Mont Blanc*, the highest ground in Europe."

STATES OF ITALY, CONSTITUTION, AND CHIEF CITIES. } Thus far, of Italy in general; but as the Italian states are not like the republics of *Holland* or *Switzerland*, or the empire of *Germany*, cemented by a political confederacy, to which every member is accountable (for every Italian state has a distinct form of government, trade, and interests); it will be necessary to take a separate view of each, to assist the reader in forming an idea of the whole.

The duke of *Savoy*, or, as he is now styled, king of *Sardinia*, taking his royal title from that island, is a powerful prince in Italy, of which he is called the *Janus*, or keeper, against the *French*; though in the late irruption of the republicans, his guardianship has proved of little avail. His capital, *Turin*, is strongly fortified, and one of the finest cities in Europe; but the country of *Savoy* is mountainous and barren, and its natives are forced to seek their bread all over the world. They are esteemed a simple, but very honest people. The king is so absolute, that his revenues consist of what he pleases to raise upon his sub-

One circumstance he particularly remarked: if two towns were situated at an equal distance from this centre, the one on a hill, the other on the plain or in the bottom, the latter had always suffered greatly more by the shocks of the earthquakes, than the former: sufficient proof to him of the cause coming from beneath, as this must naturally have been productive of such an effect.

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jects. His ordinary income, besides his own family provinces, cannot be less than 500,000l. sterling, but of which he maintains 15,000 men in time of peace. During a war, when assisted by foreign subsidies, he can bring to the field 40,000 men. The aggrandisement of his present Sardinian majesty was chiefly owing to England, to whom, by his situation, he was esteemed a natural ally, for the preservation of the balance of power in Europe.

The MILANESE, lately belonging to the house of Austria, was a most formidable state, and formerly gave law to all Italy, when under the government of its own dukes. The fertility and beauty of the country are almost incredible. Milan, the capital, and its citadel, is very strong, and furnished with a magnificent cathedral, in the Gothic taste, which contains a very rich treasury, consisting chiefly of ecclesiastical furniture, composed of gold, silver, and precious stones. The revenue of the duchy was above 300,000l. annually, which was supposed might maintain an army of 50,000 men.

Milan is now the capital, and seat of government, of the new CISALPINE REPUBLIC, erected by the French; which, it is not impossible, may in time extend over the whole of Italy. Besides Milan, it contains the cities of Mantua, Modena, Bologna, Ferrara, Cremona, Rimini, and several others. By the latest accounts, the territory it embraces has been divided into twenty departments, the total population of which, according to the report of the committee appointed to inquire into the state of each department, amounts to 3,239,571. It is probable, however, that others will be added, as the pope's dominions are particularly threatened by the Cisalpine troops, which have taken possession of several places in the ecclesiastical state: and should the French seize the whole of the territory of the church, in consequence of their present dispute with the pope, it will probably be annexed to the new republic.

The government of the Cisalpine republic is an exact transcript of that of France. It consists of a directory and legislative body; the latter composed of 240 members, forming two councils, one of ancients and one of juniors, and elected by the departments.

The republic of GENOA is greatly degenerated from its ancient power and opulence, though the spirit of trade still continues among its nobility and citizens. Genoa is a most superb city, and contains some very magnificent palaces, particularly those of Doria *, and Durazzo. The inhabitants of distinction dress in black, in a plain if not an uncouth manner, perhaps to save expenses. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damasks, gold and silver tissues, and paper. The city of Genoa contains about 150,000 inhabitants (but some writers greatly diminish that number), among whom are many rich trading individuals. Its maritime power is dwindled down to six galleys. The common people are wretched beyond expression, as is the soil of its territory. Near the sea some parts are tolerably well cultivated. The old government of Genoa was aristocratical; being vested in the nobility; the chief person was called the doge, or duke; to which dignity no person was promoted till he was fifty years of age. Every two years a new doge was chosen, and the former became incapable; during five

* Andrew Doria, the head of this family, famous for his military exploits, and the deliverer of Genoa, was born in the territory of Genoa, in the year 1468; he was offered the sovereignty of the state, but refused it, and gave to the people that republican form of government which still subsists; he lived to the age of 93, the refuge and friend of the unfortunate.

years, of holding the same post again. The doge gave audience to ambassadors; all orders of government were issued in his name, and he was allowed a body-guard of two hundred Germans.

This government has been abolished, by a revolution, under the direction of the French; and the republic of Genoa is now called the **LIGURIAN** republic. It is governed, like the Cisalpine, by a directory, and legislative body consisting of two councils, one of juniors and one of ancients, the members of which are elected by the fifteen departments into which the territory of the new republic is divided. The total population of these departments is estimated at about 600,000 souls.

VENICE is one of the most celebrated republics in the world, on account both of its constitution and former power. It is composed of several fine provinces on the continent of Italy, some islands in the Adriatic, and part of Dalmatia. The city of Venice is seated on 72 islands at the bottom of the north end of the Adriatic sea, and is separated from the continent by a marshy lake of five Italian miles in breadth, too shallow for large ships to navigate, which forms its principal strength. Venice preserves the vestiges of its ancient magnificence, but is in every respect degenerated, except in the passion which its inhabitants still retain for music and mummery during their carnivals. They seem to have lost their ancient taste for painting and architecture, and to be returning to Gothicism. They had, however, lately some spirited differences with the court of Rome, and seemed to be disposed to throw off their obedience to its head. As to the constitution of the republic, it was originally democratical, the magistrates being chosen by a general assembly of the people, and so continued for one hundred and fifty years; but various changes afterwards took place: doges, or dukes, were appointed, who were invested with great power, which they often grossly abused, and some of them were assassinated by the people. By degrees a body of hereditary legislative nobility was formed; continued and progressive encroachments were made on the rights of the people, and a complete aristocracy was at length established upon the ruins of the ancient popular government. The nobility are divided into six classes, amounting in the whole to 2500, each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, has a right to be a member of the grand council. Before the late revolution, these elected a doge, or chief magistrate, in a peculiar manner by ballot, which was managed by gold and silver balls. The doge was invested with great state; and with emblems of supreme authority, but had very little power, and was not permitted to stir from the city without the permission of the grand council. The government and laws were managed by different councils of the nobles.

The college, otherwise called the signory, was the supreme cabinet council of the state, and also the representative of the republic. This court gave audience, and delivered answers, in the name of the republic, to foreign ambassadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and to the generals of the army. It also received all requests and memorials on state affairs, summoned the senate at pleasure, and arranged the business to be discussed in that assembly. The council often took cognizance of state crimes, and had the power of seizing accused persons, examining them in prison, and taking their answers in writing, with the evidence against them. But the tribunal of state inquisitors, which consisted only of three members, and which was in the highest degree despotic in its manner of proceeding, had the power of deciding, without appeal, on the lives of every citizen belonging to the Venetian

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state; the highest of the nobility, even the doge himself, not being excepted. To these three inquisitors, was given the right of employing spies, considering secret intelligence, issuing orders to seize all persons whose words or actions they might think reprehensible, and afterwards trying them, and ordering them to be executed, when they thought proper. They had keys to every apartment of the ducal palace, and could, whenever they pleased, penetrate into the very bed-chamber of the doge, open his cabinet, and examine his papers; and, of course, might command access to the house of every individual in the state. They continued in office only one year, but were not responsible afterwards for their conduct whilst they were in authority. So much distrust and jealousy were displayed by this government, that the noble Venetians were afraid of having any intercourse with foreign ambassadors, or with foreigners of any kind, and were even cautious of visiting at each other's houses.

All the orders of Venetian nobility are dressed in black gowns, large wigs, and caps which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the doge's marrying the Adriatic once a year, by dropping into it a ring from his bucentaur or state barge, attended by those of all the nobility, was interrupted for the first time for several centuries on Ascension day 1797, and the bucentaur has since been carried away from Venice by the French. The inhabitants of Venice are said to amount to 200,000. The grandeur and convenience of the city, particularly the public palaces, the treasury, and the arsenal, are beyond expression. Over the several canals of Venice, are laid near 500 bridges, the greatest part of which are stone. The Venetians still have some manufactures in scarlet cloth, gold and silver stuffs, and, above all, fine looking-glasses, all which bring in a considerable revenue to the owners; that of the state, annually, is said to amount to 8,000,000 of Italian ducats, each valued at twenty-pence of our money. Out of this are defrayed the expenses of the state, and the pay of the army, which, in the time of peace, consists of 16,000 regular troops (always commanded by a foreign general) and 10,000 militia. They kept up a small fleet for curbing the insolencies of the piratical states of Barbary. The French have, however, pressed into their service the ships they found there; and likewise carried away immense quantities of arms and military stores from the arsenal.

The Venetians have some orders of knighthood, the chief of which are those of the *Stola d'oro*, so called from the robe they wear, which is conferred only on the first quality; and the military order of St. Mark; of which in the proper place.

In ecclesiastical matters, the Venetians have two patriarchs; the authority of one reaches over all the provinces, but neither of them have much power; and both of them are chosen by the senate; and all religious sects, even the Mahometan and pagan, excepting protestants, are tolerated in the free exercise of their religion.

The Venetians are a lively, ingenious people, extravagantly fond of public amusements, with an uncommon relish for humour. They are in general tall and well made; and many fine manly countenances are met with in the streets of Venice, resembling those transmitted to us by the ancients of Paul Veronese, and Titian. The women are of a fine style of countenance, with expressive features, and are of an easy address. The common people are remarkably sober, obliging to strangers, and polite in their intercourse with each other. As it is very much the custom to go about in masks at Venice, and great liberties are taken during the time of the carnival, an idea has prevailed, that there is

much more licentiousness of manners here than in other places: but this opinion seems to have been carried too far. Great numbers of strangers visit Venice during the time of the carnival, and there are eight or nine theatres here, including the opera houses.

The dominions of Venice, before the government of the republic was subverted by the French, consisted of a considerable part of Dalmatia and Istria, the islands of Corfu, Paschfu, Antipachfu, Santa Maura, Curzolari, Val di Compare, Cephalonia, and Zante. The Venetian territories in Italy contain the duchy of Venice, the Paduanese, the peninsula of Rovigo, the Veronese, the territories of Vicenza and Brescia, the districts of Bergamo, Cremafcò, and the Marca Trevigiana, with part of the country of Friuli. Of these Dalmatia, Istria, and a great part of the Venetian Terra Firma, have been ceded by the French to the emperor, by the late treaty of Campo Formio: the islands they retain possession of themselves.

The principal city of Tuscany is Florence, which is now possessed by a younger branch of the house of Austria, after being long held by the illustrious house of Medici, who made their capital the cabinet of all that is valuable, rich, and masterly, in architecture, literature, and the arts, especially those of painting and sculpture. It is thought to contain above 70,000 inhabitants. The beauties and riches of the grand duke's palaces have been often described; but all description falls short of their contents, so that, in every respect, it is reckoned, after Rome, the second city in Italy. The celebrated Venus of Medici, which, take it all in all, is thought to be the standard of taste in female beauty and proportion, stands in a room called the Tribunal. The inscription on its base mentions its being made by Cleomenes, an Athenian, the son of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and surrounded by other master-pieces of sculpture, some of which are said to be the works of Praxiteles, and other Greek masters. Every corner of this beautiful city, which stands between mountains covered with olive-trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno, is full of wonders, in the arts of painting, statuary, and architecture. It is a place of some strength, and contains an archbishop's see, and an university. The inhabitants boast of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their *Accademia della Crusca*; and several other academies are now established at Florence. Though the Florentines affect great state, yet their nobility and gentry drive a retail trade in wine, which they sell from their cellar windows, and sometimes they even hang out a broken flask, as a sign where it may be bought. They deal, besides wine and fruits, in gold and silver stuffs. Upon the accession of the archduke Peter Leopold, afterwards emperor of Germany, to this duchy, a great reformation was introduced, both into the government and manufactures, to the great benefit of the natives. It is thought that the great duchy of Tuscany could bring into the field, upon occasion, 30,000 fighting men, and that its revenues were above 500,000*l.* a year. The other principal towns of Tuscany are Pisa, Leghorn, and Sienna: the first and last are much decayed; but Leghorn is a very handsome city, built in the modern taste, and with such regularity, that both gates are seen from the market-place. It is well fortified, having two forts towards the sea, besides the citadel. The ramparts afford a very agreeable prospect of the sea, and of many villas on the land side. Here all nations, and even the Mahometans, have free access, and may settle. The number of inhabitants is computed at 40,000, among whom are said to be 20,000 Jews, who live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handsome synagogue; and, though

subject to very heavy imposts, are in a thriving condition; the greatest part of the commerce of this city going through their hands.

The inhabitants of LUCCA, which is a small free commonwealth, lying on the Tuscan sea, in a most delightful plain, are the most industrious of all the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, so that, though they do not exceed 120,000, their annual revenue amounts to 80,000*l.* sterling. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about 40,000 inhabitants, who deal in mercery goods, wines, and fruits, especially olives. The vicinity of the grand duchy of Tuscany keeps the people of Lucca constantly on their guard, in order to preserve their freedom; for in such a situation, an universal concord and harmony can alone enable them to transmit to posterity the blessings of their darling Liberty, whose name they bear on their arms, and whose image is not only impressed on their coin, but also on the city gates, and all their public buildings. It is also observable, that the inhabitants of this little republic, being in possession of freedom, appear with an air of cheerfulness and plenty, seldom to be found among those of the neighbouring countries.

The republic of ST. MARINO is here mentioned as a geographical curiosity. Its territories consist of a high, craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom, and the inhabitants boast of having preserved their liberties, as a republic, for 1300 years. It is under the protection of the pope; and the inoffensive manners of the inhabitants, who are not above 5000 in all, with the small value of their territory, have preserved its constitution.

The duchy and city of PARMA, together with the duchies of Placentia and Guastalla, form one of the most flourishing states in Italy, of its extent. The soils of Parma and Placentia are fertile, and produce the richest fruits and pasturages, and contain considerable manufactures of silk. It is the seat of a bishop's see, and an university; and some of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Correggio. The present duke * of Parma is a prince of the house of Bourbon, and son to the late Don Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. The cities of Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings; but his catholic majesty, on his accession to the throne of Naples, is said to have carried with him thither the most remarkable pictures and movable curiosities. The duke's court is thought to be the politest of any in Italy; and it is said that his revenues exceed 100,000*l.* sterling a year, a sum rather exaggerated. The city of Parma is supposed to contain 50,000 inhabitants.

MANTUA, formerly a rich duchy, bringing to its own dukes 500,000 crowns a year, is now much decayed. The capital is one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, and contains about 16,000 inhabitants, who boast that Virgil was a native of their country. By an order of the emperor, in 1785, this duchy was incorporated with that of Milan into one province, called Austrian Lombardy. Mantua was taken by the French after a long siege, on the 2d of February 1797. It is now a part, and the principal fortress, of the new Cisalpine republic; the emperor having given up his claim to it by the treaty of Campo Formio, in receiving from the French the city of Venice as an equivalent.

The duchy of MODENA (formerly Mutina), before the late revolu-

* Ferdinand, duke of Parma, born Jan. 20, 1751; married to the archduchess Maria-Amelia-Josepha, June 27, 1769. Their issue are, a prince and two princesses.

tions excited by the French in Italy, was governed by its own duke *, the head of the house of Este, from whom the family of Brunswic descended. The duke was absolute within his own dominions, which are fruitful. He was under the protection of the house of Austria, and a vassal of the empire. Modena is now annexed to the Cisalpine republic; and it is reported that the duke will receive an indemnification for the territory he has lost, by a cession of the Brisgau to him, at the congress of Rastadt.

The ECCLESIASTICAL STATE, which contains Rome, formerly the capital of the world, is situated about the middle of Italy. The ill effects of popish tyranny, superstition, and oppression, are here seen in the highest perfection. Those spots, which under the masters of the world were formed into so many terrestrial paradises, surrounding their magnificent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries that art and nature could produce, are now converted into noxious pestilential marshes and quagmires; and the Campagna di Roma, that formerly contained a million of inhabitants, would afford, at present, of itself, but a miserable subsistence to about five hundred. Notwithstanding this, the pope † is a considerable temporal prince: and some suppose that his annual revenue amounts to above a million sterling: other authors calculate it to be much higher. When we speak comparatively, the sum of a million sterling is too high a revenue to arise from his territorial possessions: his accidental income, which formerly far exceeded that sum, is now diminished, by the suppression of the order of the Jesuits, from whom he drew vast supplies, and the measures taken by the popish powers, for preventing the great ecclesiastical issues of money to Rome. According to the best and latest accounts, the taxes upon the provisions and lodgings furnished to foreigners, who spend immense sums in visiting his dominions, form now the greatest part of his accidental revenues. Some late popes have aimed at the improvement of their territories, but their labours have had no great effect.

Modern Rome which stands on the Campus Martius, &c. is thirteen miles; and was supposed in 1787 to contain (according to Mr. Watkins) 160,000 inhabitants. Within its circuit there is a vast number of gardens and vineyards. It stands upon the Tiber, an inconsiderable river when compared to the Thames, and navigated by small boats, barges, and lighters. The castle of St. Angelo, though its chief fortrefs, would be found to be a place of small strength, were it regularly besieged. The city standing upon the ruins of ancient Rome, lies much higher, so that it is difficult to distinguish the seven hills on which it was originally built. When we consider Rome as it now stands, there is the strongest reason to believe that it exceeds ancient Rome itself in the magnificence of its structures; nothing in the old city, when mistress of the world, could come in competition with St. Peter's church; and perhaps many other churches in Rome exceed, in beauty of architecture, and value of materials, utensils, and furniture, her ancient temples; though it must be acknowledged that the Partheon must have been an amazing structure. No city, however, in its general appearance, can unite more magnificence and poverty than this, as adjoining the most superb palaces we see the

* Hercules-Renaud, duke of Modena, born Nov. 22, 1717; married, April 1741, to the princess of Massa Carara. Their issue, Mary-Beatrix, born April 27, 1750; married to Ferdinand, archduke of Austria, 1771.

† His holiness, pope Pius VI. (formerly count Braschi) was born at Castagna, Dec. 27, 1717; created a cardinal in 1773, and elected pope, Feb. 15, 1775.

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meanest habitations; and temples, the boasted ornaments of antiquity, choked up by sheds and cottages. From the drawings of this city Mr. Watkins expected to see the streets at least as broad as in London, but was disappointed. Il Corso, the principal and most admired, is but little wider than St. Martin's-lane; but this mode of building their streets so narrow, is done with a view of intercepting, as much as possible, the sun's heat. The inhabitants of Rome, in 1714, amounted to 143,000. If we consider that the spirit of travelling is much increased since that time, we cannot reasonably suppose them to be diminished at present.

There is nothing very particular in the pope's temporal government at Rome. Like other princes, he has guards, or *sbirri*, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magistrates, both ecclesiastical and civil. The Campagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the inspection of his holiness. In the other provinces he governs by legates and vice-legates. He monopolises all the corn in his territories, and has always a sufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provinces in awe.

Next to Rome, Bologna, the capital of the Bolognese, was the most considerable city in the ecclesiastical state, and an exception to the indolence of its other inhabitants. The government was under a legate *a latere*, who was always a cardinal, and changed every three years. It is now annexed to the Cisalpine republic. The rest of the ecclesiastical state contains many towns celebrated in ancient history, and even now exhibiting the most striking vestiges of their flourishing state about the beginning of the 16th century; but they are at present little better than desolate, though here and there a luxurious magnificent church and convent may be found, which is supported by the toil and sweat of the neighbouring peasants.

The grandeur of FERRARA, RAVENNA, RIMINI, URBINO (the native city of the celebrated painter Raphael), ANCONA, and many other states and cities illustrious in former times, are now to be seen only in their ruins and ancient history. LORETTO, on the other hand, an obscure spot never thought or heard of in times of antiquity, is now the admiration of the world, for the riches it contains, and the prodigious resort to it of pilgrims, and other devotees, from a notion industriously propagated by the Romish clergy, that the house in which the Virgin Mary is said to have dwelt at Nazareth, was carried thither through the air by angels, attended with many other miraculous circumstances, such as that all the trees, on the arrival of the sacred mansion, bowed with the profoundest reverence; and great care is taken to prevent any bits of the materials of this house from being carried to other places, and exposed as relics, to the prejudice of Loretto. The image of the Virgin Mary, and of the divine infant, of cedar, placed in a small apartment, separated from the others by a silver balustrade, which has a gate of the same metal. It is impossible to describe the gold chains, the rings and jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, wherewith this image is or was loaded; and the angels of solid gold, who are here placed on every side, are equally enriched with the most precious diamonds. To the superstition of Roman catholic princes Loretto is indebted for this mass of treasure. It has been a matter of surprise, that no attempt has yet been made by the Turks or Barbary states upon Loretto, especially as it is badly fortified, and stands near the sea; but it is now generally supposed, that the treasure is withdrawn, and metals and stones of less value substituted in its place.

The king of NAPLES and SICILY, or, as he is more properly called, the king of the Two Sicilies (the name of Sicily being common to both), is possessed of the largest dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna-Græcia, and the island of Sicily, containing in all about 32,000 square miles. They are bounded on all sides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north-east, where Naples terminates on the ecclesiastical state. The Apennine runs through it from north to south; and its surface is estimated at 3,500 square leagues. The air is hot, and the soil fruitful of every thing produced in Italy. The wines called *Vino Greco*, and *Lacrymæ Christi*, are excellent. The city of Naples, its capital, which is extremely superb, and adorned with all the profusion of art and riches, and its neighbourhood, would be one of the most delightful places in Europe to live in, were it not for their vicinity to the volcano of Vesuvius, which sometimes threatens the city with destruction, and the soil being pestered with insects and reptiles, some of which are venomous. The houses in Naples are inadequate to the population, but in general, are five or six stories in height, and flat at the top; on which are placed numbers of flower vases, or fruit-trees in boxes of earth, producing a very gay and agreeable effect. Some of the streets are very handsome: no street in Rome equals in beauty the *Strada di Toledo*, at Naples; and still less can any of them be compared with those beautiful streets that lie open to the bay. The richest and most commodious convents in Europe, both for male and female votaries, are in this city; the most fertile and beautiful hills of the environs are covered with them: and a small part of their revenue is spent in feeding the poor, the monks distributing bread and soup to a certain number every day before the doors of the convents.

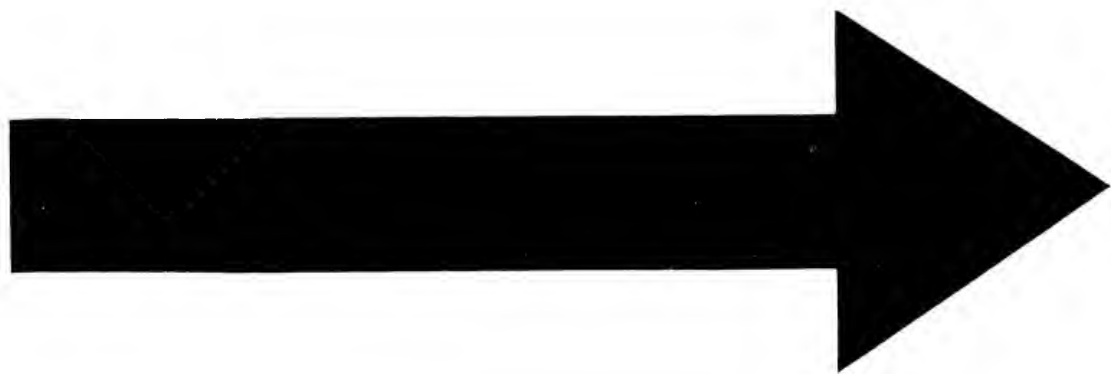
Though above two thirds of the property of the kingdom are in the hands of the ecclesiastics, the protestants live here with great freedom; and though his Neapolitan majesty presents to his holiness every year a palfrey, as an acknowledgment that his kingdom is a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquisition is established in Naples. The present revenues of that king amount to above 750,000 sterling a year. The exports of the kingdom are legumes, hemp, aniseeds, wool, oil, wine, cheese, fish, honey, wax, manna, saffron, gums, capers, macaroni, salt, pot-ash, flax, cotton, silk, and divers manufactures. The king has a numerous but generally poor nobility, consisting of princes, dukes, marquises, and other high-sounding titles; and his capital, by far the most populous in Italy, contains at least 350,000 inhabitants. Among these are about 30,000 *lazaroni*, or black-guards, the greater part of which have no dwelling-houses, but sleep every night in summer under porticos, piazzas, or any kind of shelter they can find, and in the winter or rainy time of the year, which lasts several weeks, the rain falling by palfurs, they resort to the caves under *Capo di Monte*, where they sleep in crowds like sheep in a penfold. Those of them who have wives and children, live in the suburbs of Naples, near *Posillipo*, in huts, or in caverns, or chambers dug out of that mountain. Some gain a livelihood by fishing, others by carrying burthens to and from the shipping; many walk about the streets ready to run on errands, or to perform any labour in their power for a very small recompence. As they do not meet with constant employment, their wages are not sufficient for their maintenance: but the deficiency is in some degree supplied by the soup and bread which are distributed at the doors of the convents.

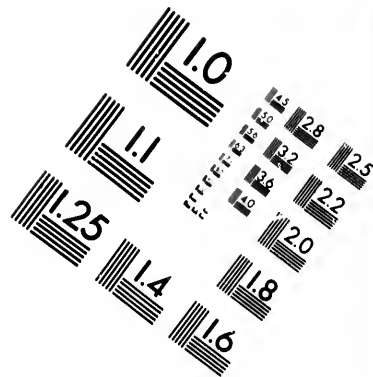
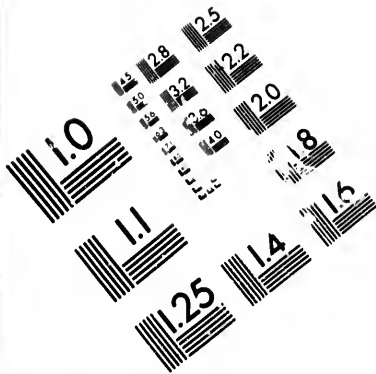
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But though there is so much poverty among the lower people, there is a great appearance of wealth among some of the great. The Neapolitan nobility are excessively fond of show and splendour. This appears in the brilliancy of their equipages, the number of their attendants, the richness of their dress, and the grandeur of their titles. According to a late traveller (Mr. Swinburne) luxury of late hath advanced with gigantic strides in Naples. Forty years ago, the Neapolitan ladies wore nets and ribbands on their heads, as the Spanish women do to this day, and not twenty of them were possessed of a cap: but hair plainly drest is a mode now confined to the lowest order of inhabitants, and all distinction of dress between the wife of a nobleman and that of a citizen is entirely laid aside. Expense and extravagance are here in the extreme.

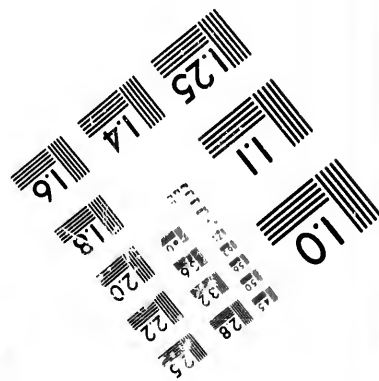
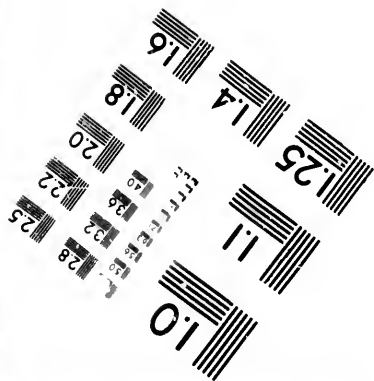
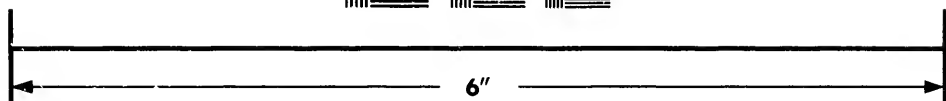
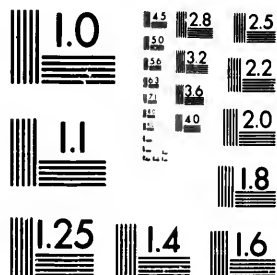
Through every spot of the kingdom of Naples, the traveller may be said to tread on classic ground, and no country presents the eye with more beautiful prospects. There are still traces of the memorable town of Cannæ, as fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and under-ground granaries; and the scene of action between Hannibal and the Romans is still marked out to posterity, by the name of *pezzo di sangue*, "field of blood." Taranto, a city that was once the rival of Rome, is now remarkable for little else than its fisheries. Sorrento is a city placed on the brink of steep rocks, that overhang the bay, and of all the places in the kingdom, has the most delightful climate. Nola, once famous for its amphitheatres, and as the place where Augustus Cæsar died, is now hardly worth observation.

Brundisium, now Brindisi, was the great supplier of oysters for the Roman tables. It has a fine port, but the buildings are poor and ruinous; and the fall of the Grecian empire under the Turks reduced it to a state of inactivity and poverty, from which it has not yet emerged. Except Rome, no city can boast of so many remains of ancient sculpture as Benevento: here the arch of Trajan, one of the most magnificent remains of Roman grandeur, out of Rome, erected in the year 114, is still in tolerable preservation. Reggio contains nothing remarkable but a Gothic cathedral. It was destroyed by an earthquake before the Marston war, and rebuilt by Julius Cæsar; part of the wall still remains, and was much damaged by the earthquake in 1783, but not destroyed: only 126 lost their lives out of 16,000 inhabitants. The ancient city of Oppido was entirely ruined by the earthquake of the 5th of February, the greatest force of which seems to have been exerted near that spot, and at Casal Nuova, and Terra Nuova. From Trupea to Squillace, most of the towns and villages were either totally or in part overthrown, and many of the inhabitants buried in the ruins. To ascertain the extent of the ravages, Sir William Hamilton, who surveyed it, gives the following description: "If on a map of Italy, and with your compasses on the scale of Italian miles, you were to measure off 22, and then fixing your central point in the city of Oppido (which appeared to me to be the spot on which the earthquake had exerted its greatest force) form a circle (the radii of which will be, as I just said, 22 miles), you will then include all the towns and villages that have been utterly ruined, and the spots where the greatest mortality has happened, and where there have been the most visible alterations on the face of the earth. Then extend your compasses on the same scale to 72 miles, preserving the same centre, and form another circle, you will include the whole of the country that has any mark of having been affected by the earthquake."





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The island of SICILY, once the granary of the world for corn, still continues to supply Naples, and other parts, with that commodity; but its cultivation, and, consequently, fertility, is greatly diminished. Its vegetable, mineral, and animal productions, are pretty much the same with those of Italy.

Both the ancients and moderns have maintained, that Sicily was originally joined to the continent of Italy, but gradually separated from it by the encroachments of the sea, and the shocks of earthquakes, so as to become a perfect island. The climate of Sicily is so hot, that even in the beginning of January the shade is refreshing: and chilling winds are only felt a few days in March, and then a small fire is sufficient to banish the cold. The only appearance of winter is found towards the summit of Mount *Ætna*, where snow falls, which the inhabitants have a contrivance for preserving. Churches, convents, and religious foundations are extremely numerous here: the buildings are handsome, and the revenues considerable. If this island were better cultivated, and its government more equitable, it would in many respects be a delightful place of residence. There are a great number of fine remains of antiquity here. Some parts of this island are remarkable for the beauty of the female inhabitants. Palermo, the capital of Sicily, is computed to contain 120,000 inhabitants. The two principal streets, and which cross each other, are very fine. This is said to be the only town in all Italy which is lighted at night at the public expence. It carries on a considerable trade; as also did Messina, which, before the earthquake in 1782, was a large and well built city, containing many churches and convents, generally elegant structures. By that earthquake a great part of the lower district of the city and of the port was destroyed, and considerable damage done to the lofty uniform buildings called the *Palazzata*, in the shape of a crescent; but the force of the earthquake, though violent, was nothing at Messina or Reggio, to what it was in the plain; for of 30,000, the supposed population of the city, only 700 is said to have perished. "The greatest mortality fell upon those towns and countries situated in the plain of Calabria Ultra, on the western side of the mountains Dejo, Sacro, and Caulone. At Casal Nuova, the princess Gerace, and upwards of 4000 of the inhabitants, lost their lives; at Bagnara, the number of dead amounted to 3017; Radicina and Palmi count their loss at about 3000 each; Terra Nuova about 1400; Seminari still more. The sum total of the mortality in both Calabrias and in Sicily, by the earthquakes alone, according to the returns in the secretary of state's office at Naples, is 32,367;" but sir William Hamilton says, he has good reason to believe, that, including strangers, the number of lives lost must have been considerably greater; 40,000 at least may be allowed, he believes, without exaggeration.

The island of SARDINIA, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies about 150 miles south by west of Leghorn, and has seven cities or towns. Its capital, Cagliari, is an university, an archbishopric, and the seat of the viceroy, containing about 15,000 inhabitants. It is thought that his Sardinian majesty's revenues, from this island, do not exceed 5000l. sterling a year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fishery. Its air is bad, from its marshes and high mountains on the North, and therefore was a place of exile for the Romans. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht was given to the emperor, and in 1719, to the house of Savoy.

The island of CORSICA lies opposite to the Genoese continent be-

tween the gulf of Genoa and the island of Sardinia, and is better known by the noble stand which the inhabitants made for their liberty, against their Genoese tyrants, and afterwards against the base and ungenerous efforts of the French to enslave them, than from any advantages they enjoy from nature or situation. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, chestnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has also some cattle and horses, and is plentifully supplied; both by sea and rivers, with fish. The inhabitants are said to amount to 120,000. Bastia, the capital, is a place of some strength; though other towns of the island that were in possession of the malcontents, appear to have been but poorly fortified.

In the year 1794 it was taken by the English, and annexed to the crown of England. A constitution was framed for it, a viceroy appointed, and a parliament assembled. But it has since been retaken by, and still remains in the possession of, the French.

CAPRI, the ancient CAPREA, is an island to which Augustus Cæsar often came for his health and recreation, and which Tiberius made a scene of the most infamous pleasures. It lies three Italian miles from that part of the main land which projects farthest into the sea. It extends four miles in length from East to West, and about one in breadth. The western part is, for about two miles, a continued rock, vastly high, and inaccessible next the sea; yet Anacapri, the largest town of the island, is situated here; and in this part are several places covered with a very fruitful soil. The eastern end of the island also rises up in precipices that are nearly as high, though not quite so long, as the western. Between the rocky mountains, at each end, is a slip of lower ground that runs across the island, and is one of the pleasantest spots that can easily be conceived. It is covered with myrtles, olives, almonds, oranges, figs, vineyards, and corn-fields, which look extremely fresh and beautiful, and afford a most delightful little landscape, when viewed from the tops of the neighbouring mountains. Here is situated the town of Caprea, two or three convents, and the bishop's palace. In the midst of this fertile tract rises a hill, which in the reign of Tiberius was probably covered with buildings, some remains of which are still to be seen. But the most considerable ruins are at the very extremity of the eastern promontory.

From this place there is a very noble prospect; on one side of it the sea extends farther than the eye can reach; just opposite is the green promontory of Sarentum, and on the other side the bay of Naples.

ISCHIA, and some other islands on the coasts of Naples and Italy, have nothing to distinguish them but the ruins of their antiquities, and their being now beautiful summer retreats for their owners. Elba has been renowned for its mines from a period beyond the reach of history. Virgil and Aristotle mention it. Its situation is about ten miles south-west from Tuscany, and it is 80 miles in circumference, containing near 7000 inhabitants. It is divided between the king of Naples, to whom Porto Longone belongs, the great duke of Tuscany, who is master of Porto Ferrajo, and the prince of Piombino. The fruits and wine of the island are very good, and the tannery, fisheries, and salt, produced a good revenue.

I shall here mention the isle of MALTA, though it is not properly ranked with the Italian islands. It was formerly called Melita, and is situated in 15 degrees E. long. and 36 degrees N. lat. 60 miles south of Cape Passaro in Sicily, and is of an oval figure, 20 miles long, and 12 broad. Its air is clear, but excessively hot: the whole island seems to

be a white rock, covered with a thin surface of earth, which is how-
 ever amazingly productive of excellent fruits and vegetables. This
 island; or rather rock, was given to the knights of St. John of Jeru-
 salem in 1530, by the emperor Charles V. when the Turks drove them
 out of Rhodes, under the tender of one falcon yearly to the viceroy of
 Sicily, and to acknowledge the kings of Spain and Sicily for their pro-
 tectors: they are now known by the distinction of the knights of Malta.
 They are under vows of celibacy and chastity; but they keep the for-
 mer much better than the latter. They have considerable possessions in
 the Roman catholic countries on the continent, and are under the gov-
 ernment of a grand-master, who is elected for life. The lord prior of
 the order was formerly accounted the prime baron in England. The
 knights are in number 1000: 500 are to reside on the island, the re-
 mainder are in their seminaries in other countries, but at any summons
 are to make personal appearance. They had a seminary in England, till
 it was suppressed by Henry VIII. but they now give to one the title of
 grand prior of England. They were considered as the bulwark of
 Christendom against the Turks on that side. They wear the badge of
 the order, a gold cross of eight points enamelled white, pendant to a
 black watered ribband at the breast, and the badge is decorated so, as
 to distinguish the country of the knight. They are generally of noble
 families, or such as can prove their gentility for six descents, and are
 ranked according to their nations. There are sixteen called the great-
 crosses, out of whom the officers of the order, as the marshal, admiral,
 chancellor, &c. are chosen. When the great-master dies, they suffer
 no vessel to go out of the island till another is chosen, to prevent the
 pope from interfering in the election. Out of the sixteen great-crosses
 the great-master is elected, whose title is, "The most illustrious, and
 most reverend prince, the lord friar A. B. great-master of the hospital of
 St. John of Jerusalem, prince of Malta and Gaza." All the knights
 are sworn to defend the church, to obey their superiors, and to live on
 the revenues of their order only. Not only their chief town Valletta
 or Malta, and its harbour, but the whole island, is so well fortified
 to be deemed impregnable. On the 18th of September there is an an-
 nual procession at Malta in memory of the Turks raising the siege on
 that day, 1563, after four months assault, leaving their artillery, &c.
 behind.

ARMS AND ORDERS.] The chief armorial bearings in Italy are a
 follow: The pope, as sovereign prince over the land of the church
 bears for his escutcheon, gules, consisting of a long headcape, or sur-
 mounted with a cross, pearly, and garnished with three royal crowns
 together with the two keys of St. Peter, placed in saltire. The arms of
 Tuscany, gr. five roundles, gules, two, two, and one, and one in chief
 azure, charged with three fleurs-de-lis. or. Those of Venice, azure,
 a lion winged, sejant, or, holding under one of his paws a book covered
 argent. Those of Genoa, argent, a cross, gules, with a crown above
 for the island of Corsica; and for supporters, two griffins, or. The
 arms of Naples are, azure, semée of fleur-de-lis, or, with a label
 five points, gules.

The "order of St. *Januarius*" was instituted by the late king of
 Spain, when king of Naples, in July 1738. The number of knights
 limited to thirty, and after the present sovereign, that office of the or-
 der is to be possessed by the kings of Naples. All the knights im-
 prove the nobility of their descent for four centuries, and are to be

The island of Malta is governed by a grand master.

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dressed by the title of excellency. St. Januarius, the celebrated patron of Naples, is the patron of this order. The "order of *Annunciation*" was instituted in the year 1355, by Amadeus V. count of Savoy, in memory of Amadeus I. who bravely defended Rhodes against the Turks, and won those arms, which are now borne by the dukes of Savoy: "gules, a cross argent." It is counted among the most respectable orders in Europe; the knight must be of a noble family, but also a papist. In the year 1372, Emanuel Phihbert, duke of Savoy, instituted the "order of *St. Lazarus*," and revived, and united to it, the obsolete order of *St. Maurice*; which was confirmed by the pope, on the condition of maintaining two galleys against the Turks.

In the year 848 it is pretended that the body of St. Mark was removed from Alexandria, in Egypt, to Venice. Accordingly, this saint hath been taken for their tutelar saint and guardian; and his picture was formerly painted on their ensigns and banners. When the "order of *St. Mark*" was first instituted is uncertain, but it was an honour conferred by the doge or duke of Venice and the senate, on persons of eminent quality, or who had done some signal service to the republic. The knights, when made, if present, were dubbed with a sword on their shoulders, the duke saying, "*Esto miles fidelis*" (be a faithful soldier). Absent persons were invested by letters patent; but their title, "*Knights of St. Mark*," is merely honorary; they have no revenue, nor are they under any obligation by vows as other orders. About the year 1466, Frederic III. emperor of Germany, instituted the order "of *St. George*," and dedicated it to St. George, tutelar saint and patron of Genoa. The doge is perpetual grand-master. The badge, a plain cross enamelled, gules, pendant to a gold chain, and worn about their necks. The cross is also embroidered on their cloaks. In the year 1561, Casimir of Medicis, first grand-duke of Tuscany, instituted the "order of *St. Stephen*," in memory of a victory which secured to him the sovereignty of that province. He and his successors were to be the grand-masters. The knights are allowed to marry, and their two principal conventual houses are at Pisa. It is a religious as well as military order, but the knights of justice and the ecclesiastics are obliged to make proof of nobility of four descents. They wear a red cross with right angles, orled or, on the left side of their habit, and on their mantle.

The "order of the *Holy Ghost*" was founded with their chief seat, the hospital of that name in Rome, by pope Innocent III. about the year 1198. They have a grand-master, and profess obedience, chastity, and poverty. Their revenue is estimated at 24,000 ducats daily, with which they entertain strangers, relieve the poor, train up deserted children, &c. Their ensign is a white patriarchal cross with 13 points, sewed on their breast on the left side of a black mantle. The "order of *Jesus Christ*," instituted by pope John XXII. was reformed and improved by pope Paul V. The reigning pope was to be always sovereign of it, and it was designed as a mark of distinction for the pope's Italian nobility, but on account of its frequent prostitution, it hath fallen into discredit. The "order of the *Golden Spur*" is said to have been instituted by pope Pius IV. 1559, and to have been connected with the "order of Pius," instituted a year afterwards; but the badges were different. The knights of Pius are suppressed, and all that the knights of the Golden Spur have preserved to themselves, is the title of counts of the sacred palace of the Lateran. The badge is a star of eight points, white, and between the two bottom points, a spur, gold.

HISTORY.] Italy was probably first peopled from Greece, as we have

mentioned in the Introduction, to which we refer the reader for the ancient history of this country, which, for many ages, gave law to the then known world, under the Romans.

The empire of Charlemagne, who died in 814, soon experienced the same fate with that of Alexander. Under his successors it was in a short time entirely dismembered. His son, Louis the Debonair, succeeded to his dominions in France and Germany, while Bernard, the grandson of Charlemagne, reigned over Italy and the adjacent islands. But Bernard having lost his life by the cruelty of his uncle, against whom he had levied war, and Louis himself dying in 840, his dominions were divided among his sons Lothario, Louis, and Charles. Lothario, with the title of emperor, retained Italy, Provence, and the fertile countries situated between the Saone and the Rhine; Louis had Germany; and France fell to the share of Charles, the youngest of the three brothers. Shortly after this, Italy was ravaged by different contending tyrants; but in 964, Otho the Great re-united Italy to the imperial dominions. Italy afterwards suffered much by the contests between the popes and the emperors; it was harassed by wars and internal divisions; and at length various principalities and states were erected under different heads.

Savoy and Piedmont, in time, fell to the lot of the counts of Maurienne, the ancestors of his present Sardinian majesty, whose father became king of Sardinia, in virtue of the quadruple alliance concluded in 1718*.

The great duchy of Tuscany belonged to the emperors of Germany, who governed it by deputies to the year 1240, when the famous distinctions of the Guelphs, who were the partizans of the pope, and the Gibellines, who were in the emperor's interest, took place. The popes then persuaded the imperial governors in Tuscany to put themselves under the protection of the church; but the Florentines in a short time formed themselves into a free commonwealth, and bravely defended their liberties against both parties by turns. Faction at last shook their freedom; and the family of Medici, long before they were declared either princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people seemed still to exist. The Medici, particularly Cosmo, who was deservedly called the Father of his Country, being in the secret, shared with the Venetians in the immense profits of the East-India trade, before the discoveries made by the Portuguese. His revenue in ready money, which exceeded that of any sovereign prince in Europe, enabled his successors to rise to sovereign power; and pope Pius V. gave one of his descendents (Cosmo, the great patron of the arts) the title of great-duke of Tuscany in 1570, which continued

* Charles-Emanuel-Ferdinand-Maria, king of Sardinia, and duke of Savoy, born May 24, 1731; married in 1775 to Maria Adelheid, sister to Louis XVI, the late unfortunate king of the French.

Brothers and sisters of the king.

1. Maria-Josepha-Louisa, born September 2, 1753; married to the count de Provence, vid. France.
2. Maria-Theresa, born Jan. 31, 1756; married to the count d'Artois, vid. France.
3. Anne-Maria-Carolina, born Dec. 17, 1757.
4. Victor-Financiel-ajetau, duc d'Ango, born July 24, 1759; married, April 15, 1789, Maria-Theresa, niece to the present emperor.
5. Maurice-Joseph-Maria, duc de Monterrat, born September 12, 1762.
6. Maria-Charlotta, born January 17, 1764.
7. Charles-Joseph, duc de Genevois, born April 6, 1765.
8. Joseph-Benedict, comte de Maurienne, born October 5, 1766.

* Ferdinand king of Spain, April 7, 1768, whom he has
1. Maria-Th

in his family to the death of Gaston de Medici in 1737, without issue. The great-duchy was then claimed by the emperor Charles VI. as a fief of the empire, and given to his son-in-law, the duke of Lorrain (afterwards emperor, and father of Joseph II.) in lieu of the duchy of Lorrain which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold his second son (brother and successor to the emperor Joseph II.) upon the death of his father, became grand-duke. When he succeeded to the imperial crown, his son Ferdinand entered upon the sovereignty of the great-duchy of Tuscany, who has now succeeded his father in the empire of Germany. Leghorn, which belongs to him, carries on a great trade: and several ships of very considerable force are now stationed on the Tuscan coasts to prevent the depredations of the infidels.

No country has undergone greater vicissitudes of government than Naples or Sicily, chiefly owing to the inconstancy of the natives, which seems to be incorporated with their air. Christians and Saracens by turns conquered it. The Normans under Tancred drove out the Saracens; and by their connections with the Greeks, established there, while the rest of Europe was plunged in monkish ignorance, a most respectable monarchy flourishing in arts and arms. About the year 1160, the popes being then all powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke into the succession of Tancred's line, and Naples and Sicily at last came into the possession of the French; and the house of Anjou, with some interruptions and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, and it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

The government of the Spaniards under the Austrian line, was so oppressive, that it gave rise to the famous revolt, headed by Masaniello, a young fisherman, without shoes or stockings, in the year 1647. His success was so surprising, that he obliged the haughty Spaniards to abolish the oppressive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people. Before these could be re-established perfectly, he turned delirious, through his continual agitations of body and mind, and he was put to death at the head of his own mob. Naples and Sicily continued with the Spaniards till the year 1700, when the extinction of the Austrian line opened a new scene of litigation. In 1706, the archduke Charles, afterwards emperor, took possession of the kingdom. By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, the king of Spain's son, to the possession of Parma and Placentia, a new war broke out in 1733, between the houses of Austria and Bourbon, about the possession of Naples; and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed king of both Sicilies: this was followed by a very bloody campaign, but the farther effusion of blood was stopt by a peace between France and the emperor, to which the courts of Madrid and Naples at first demurred, but afterwards acceded in 1736, and Don Carlos remained king of Naples. Upon his accession to the throne of Spain, in 1759, it being found, by the inspection of physicians, and other trials, that his eldest son was by nature incapacitated for reigning, and his second being heir apparent to the Spanish monarchy, he resigned the crown of Naples to his third son, Ferdinand IV. who married an archduchess of Austria*.

The Milanese, the fairest portion of Italy, went through several

* Ferdinand IV. king of the two Sicilies, third son of his late catholic majesty, the king of Spain, born Jan. 12, 1751, ascended the throne October 5, 1759; and married, April 7, 1768, to the archduchess Maria-Carolina-Louisa, sister to the late emperor, by whom he has had issue 15 children, 10 of whom are living; among whom are,
1. Maria-Theresa, present empress of Germany, born June 6, 1778.

hands; the Vicents were succeeded by the Galeaspi and the Sfortas; but fell at last into the hands of the emperor Charles V. about the year 1525, who gave it to his son, Philip II. king of Spain. It remained with that crown till the French were driven out of Italy, in 1703, by the imperialists. They were dispossessed of it in 1745; but by the emperor's cession of Naples and Sicily to the present king of Spain, it returned to the house of Austria, who governed it by a viceroy, till the late conquest of it by the French, and the establishment of the new Cisalpine republic, of which it forms the principal part.

The duchy of Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga, who adhering to France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire, to the house of Austria. It is now annexed to the Cisalpine republic. Guastalla was separated from it in 1748, and made part of the duchy of Parma.

The first duke of Parma was natural son to pope Paul III. the duchy having been annexed to the holy see, in 1545, by pope Julius II. The descendants of the house of Farnese terminated in the late queen-dowager of Spain, whose son, his present catholic majesty, obtained the duchy, and his nephew now holds it, with the duchy of Platentia.

The Venetians were formerly the most formidable maritime power in Europe. In 1494, they conquered Constantinople itself, and held it for some time, together with great part of the continent of Europe and Asia. They were more than once brought to the brink of destruction, by the confederacies formed against them among the other powers of Europe, especially by the league of Cambray, in 1509, but were as often saved by the disunion of the confederates. The discovery of a passage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the first blow to their greatness, as it lost them the Indian trade. By degrees the Turks took from them their most valuable possessions on the continent; and so late as the year 1715 they lost the Morea. In 1797 the French seized upon the city of Venice, abolished its government, and soon after ceded it by treaty to the emperor, with a considerable part of its continental territory.

The Genese for some time disputed the empire of the Mediterranean sea with the Venetians, but were seldom or never able to maintain their own independency by land, being generally protected, and sometimes subjected, by the French and imperialists. Their doge, or first magistrate, used to be crowned king of Corsica, though it does not clearly appear by what title. The successful effort they made in driving the victorious Austrians out of their capital, during the war, which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, has few parallels in history, and serves to show the effect of despair under oppression. Genoa has lately been revolutionized by France, and a new form of republican government established there.

The history of the Papacy is connected with that of Christendom itself. The most solid foundations for its temporal power were laid by the famous Matilda, countess of Tuscany, and heirs to the greatest part of Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the famous pope Gregory VII. (who, before his accession in 1073, was so well known by the name of Hildebrand). It would be too tedious here to enter into a detail of the ignorance of the laity, and the other causes that operated to the aggrandisement of the papacy, previous to the re-

2. Theresa-Clementina, born November 23, 1775; married, September 17, 1799, the archduke Ferdinand.

3. Francis-Januarius, prince-royal, born August 17, 1777; married Maria-Clementina, the archduchess; September, 1790.

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formation. Even since that era, the state of Europe has been such, that the popes have had more than once great weight in its public affairs, chiefly through the weakness and bigotry of temporal princes.

The papal power is evidently now nearly extinct. Even before the present times, when innovation and revolution have made such rapid strides, the pope was treated by Roman catholic princes with very little more ceremony than is due to him as bishop of Rome, and possessed of a temporal principality. In the present war, though he acted with considerable caution and moderation, he co-operated with the allied powers against France: in consequence of which, the French made an incursion into his territories, where they met with little resistance, and compelled him to sign a peace on such terms as they thought proper to dictate. He paid a considerable contribution in money; and consented that such of the most valuable statues and pictures in Rome, as commissioners appointed for that purpose should select, should be carried away, and conveyed to Paris. Another dispute has lately arisen between the French and his holiness, in consequence of a riot at Rome, in which the French general Duphot was killed. What will be the issue of this, time must show; but the temporal power and territory of the papacy certainly appear to be in great danger.

John Angelo Braschi, born in 1717, was elected pope in 1775, and took upon him the name of Pius VI.

TURKEY.

The Grand Signor's dominions are divided into

- | | |
|----------------------|------------|
| | Sq. Miles. |
| 1. TURKEY IN EUROPE. | } 960,000 |
| 2. TURKEY IN ASIA. | |
| 3. TURKEY IN AFRICA. | |

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 1000 } between { 17 and 40 East long.	} 36 and 49 North lat.
Breadth 900 }	

Containing 181,400 square miles, with 44 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES: BOUNDED by Russia, Poland, and Schavonia, on the North; by Circassia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Hellepont, and Archipelago, on the East; by the Mediterranean, on the South; by the same sea, and the Venetian and Austrian territories, on the West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
On the north coast of the Black Sea are the provinces of	{ Crim and little Taurica Taurica Chersonesus *	{ Precop Brachiseria Kassa }	} 26,200

* The Russians, in 1783, seized on the Crimea, the principal part of this division; and by a treaty, signed January 9, 1784, the Turks ceded it to them, with the isle of Taman, and that part of Cuban which is bounded by the river of that name. The Turks have now only the Tartar nations beyond the river Cuban, and from the Black Sea.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
North of the Danube are the provinces of	Bessarabia	Bender Belgorod	8,000
	Moldavia, olim Da- cia	Jazy Choczim Falczin	26,000
	Walachia, another part of the ancient Dacia	Tergovisc	10,500
	Bulgaria, the east part of the ancient My- sia	Widin Nicololi Siliftria Scoria	9
South of the Danube are	Servia, the west part of Myſia	Belgr Semen Niſſa	2,570
On the Bosphorus and Helleſpont	Rofnia, part of the an- cient Illyricum	Seraip	8,640
	Romania, olim Thrace	Constantinople, N. 1. 41. E. 1. 29. 21.	200
	Macedonia	Adrianople Strymon Conteſſa	18,980
South of Mount Rho- dope, or Argentum, the north part of the ancient Greece	Theſſaly, now Janua	Salonichi Lariſſa	4,650
	Achaia and Boeotia, now Livadia	Athenſ Thebes	3,420
	Epirus	Lepanto Chimæra	
		Burtinto Scodra	955
		Albania	Durazzo Dulcigno
On the Adriatic ſea or Gulf of Venice, the ancient Illyricum	Dalmatia	Zara Narenza	4,560
	Ragufa Republic *	Ragufa	430

* The republic of Ragufa, though reckoned by geographers part of Turkey in Europe, is not under the Turkiſh government. It is an ariftocratical ſtate, formed nearly after the model of that of Venice. The government is in the hands of the nobility; and the chief of the republic, who is ſtyled rector, is changed every month, and elected by ſcrutiny or lot. During his ſhort adminiſtration, he lives in the palace, and wears a ducal habit. As the Ragufans are unable to protect themſelves, they make uſe of their wealth to procure them protectors, the chief of whom, for many years, was the grand ſignor. They endeavour alſo to keep upon good terms with the Venetians, and other neighbouring ſtates. But in the year 1783, a diſpute aroſe between them and the king of Naples, reſpecting a claim of right to his appointing a commander of the Ragufan troops. It was terminated by the republic, putting itſelf under that king's protection. The city of Ragufa is not above two miles in circumference, but it is well built, and contains ſome handſome edifices. The ancient Epi-

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TURKEY IN EUROPE.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns, Sq. M.
	Corinthia	Corinth
	Argos	Argos
	Sparta	Napoli di Romania
		Lacedæmon, now Mistra, on the river Eurotas
In the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, being the south division of Greece, are	Olympia, where the games were held.	Olympia, or Longinica, on the river Alpheus
	Arcadia	Modon
	Elis	Coron
		Partas
		Elis, or Belvidere on the riv. Peneus.

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER.] Nature has lavished upon the inhabitants of Turkey all her blessings in those four particulars. The soil, though unimproved, is luxuriant beyond description. The air is salubrious, and friendly to the imagination, unless when it is corrupted from the neighbouring countries, or through the indolence and uncleanness of the Turkish manner of living. The seasons are here regular and pleasant, and have been celebrated from the remotest times of antiquity. The Turks are invited to frequent bathings, by the purity and wholesomeness of the water all over their dominions.

MOUNTAINS.] These are the most celebrated of any in the world, and, at the same time, often the most fruitful. Mount Athos stands on a peninsula, running into the Ægean sea; the mounts Pindus and Olympus, celebrated in Grecian fables, separate Thessaly from Epirus. Parnassus, in Achaia, so famous for being consecrated to the muses, is well known. Mount Hæmus is likewise often mentioned by the poets; but most of the other mountains have changed their names; witness the mountains Shua, Witoká, Staras, Plamina, and many others. Even the most celebrated mountains above mentioned, have modern names imposed upon them by the Turks, their new masters, and others in their neighbourhood.

SEAS.] The Euxine, or Black sea; the Palus Mæotis, or sea of Afoph; the sea of Marmora, which separates Europe from Asia; the Archipelago; the Ionian sea, and the Levant, are so many evidences that Turkey in its situation is not far from this city. The Ragusians profess the Romish religion, but Greeks, Armenians, and Turks are tolerated. Almost all the citizens are traders, and they keep so watchful an eye over their freedom, that the gates of the city of Ragusa are allowed to be open only a few hours in the day. The language chiefly in use among the Ragusians is the Sclavonian, but the greatest part of them speak the Italian. They have many trading vessels, and are great carriers in the Mediterranean, like the Dutch, being constantly at peace with the piratical states of Barbary. The cities of Gravus; and Stagno, 50 miles NE. of Ragusa, are within the territories of this republic, and there are also five small islands belonging to it, the principal of which

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10,500
2,570
8,640
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19,21
200
18,980
4,659
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955
6,375
4,560
430

Turkey in Europe, formed near of the nobility; month, and elected the palace, and yes, they make for many years, with the Venetians, appointing a putting itself miles in circumference the ancient Ep-

Europe, particularly that part of it where Constantinople stands, of all other countries, had the best claim to be mistress of the world.

STRAITS.] Those of the Hellespont and Bosphorus are joined to the sea of Marmora, and are remarkable in modern as well as in ancient history. The former, viz. the Hellespont, or Dardanelles, is only two miles and a half in breadth, and is famous for the passage of Xerxes over it, when about to invade Greece, and of Alexander in his expedition against Asia. The former, for the more easy transportation of his numerous forces, laid a bridge of boats over it. It is also celebrated by the poets in the story of two lovers, Hero and Leander, of whom, the latter swam across it to his mistress, but one night was unhappily drowned. The Bosphorus is about the same breadth, but has not been so much celebrated by historians and poets.

RIVERS.] The Danube, the Save, the Neister, the Neiper, and the Don, are the best known rivers in this country; though many others have been celebrated by poets and historians.

LAKES.] These are not extremely remarkable, nor are they mentioned with any great applause, either by the ancients or moderns. The Lago di Scutari lies in Albania. It communicates with the Lago di Plave, and the Lago di Holti. The Stymphalus, so famous for its harpies and ravenous birds, lies in the Morca; and the Pençus, from its qualities, is thought to be the lake from which the Styx issues, conceived by the ancients to be the passage into hell.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Turkey in Europe contains a variety of all sorts of mines; and its marbles are esteemed the finest in the world.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] These are excellent all over the European Turkey, especially when assisted by the smallest degree of industry. Besides pot and garden herbs of almost every kind, this country produces, in great abundance and perfection, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon sweetness, excellent figs, almonds, olives, and cotton. Besides these, many drugs, not common in other parts of Europe, are produced here.

ANIMALS.] The Thessalian or Turkish horses are excellent both for their beauty and service. The black cattle are large, especially in Greece. The goats are a most valuable part of the animal creation to the inhabitants, for the nutrition they afford, both of milk and flesh. The large eagles which abound in the neighbourhood of Badadagi, furnish the best feathers for arrows for the Turkish archers, and they sell at an uncommon price. Partridges are very plentiful in Greece; as are all other kinds of fowls and quadrupeds all over Turkey in Europe: but the Turks and Mahometans in general are not very fond of animal food.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] Almost every spot of ground,

NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Every river, and every fountain in Greece, presents the traveller with the ruins of a celebrated antiquity. On the Isthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the Isthmian games were celebrated, are still visible. Athens, which contains at present above 10,000 inhabitants, is a fruitful source of the most magnificent and celebrated antiquities in the world; a minute account of which would exceed the limits of this work, but it will be proper to mention some of the most considerable. Among the antiquities of this once superb city, are the remains of the temple of Minerva, built of white marble, and encompassed with forty-six fluted columns of the Doric order, forty-two feet high, and seven feet and half in circumference: the architrave is adorned with basso relievo

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CITIES.] Co

admirably executed, representing the wars of the Athenians. To the south-east of the Acropolis, a citadel which defends the town, are seventeen beautiful columns of the Corinthian order, thought to be the remains of the emperor Adrian's palace. They are of fine white marble, about sixty feet high, including the capitals and bases. Just without the city stands the temple of Theseus, surrounded with fluted columns of the Doric order; the portico at the west end is adorned with the battle of the Centaurs, in basso-relievo; that at the east end appears to be a continuation of the same history; and on the outside of the porticos, in the spaces between the triglyphs, are represented the exploits of Theseus. On the south-west of Athens is a beautiful structure, commonly called the Lantern of Demosthenes: this is a small round edifice of white marble, the roof of which is supported by six fluted columns of the Corinthian order, nine feet and a half high; in the space between the columns are pannels of marble; and the whole is covered with a cupola, carved with the resemblance of scales: and on the frieze are beautifully represented in relieve the labours of Hercules. Here are also to be seen the temple of the Winds; the remains of the theatre of Bacchus; of the magnificent aqueduct of the emperor Adrian; and of the temples of Jupiter Olympius and Augustus. The remains of the temple of the temple of Apollo are still visible at Castri, on the south side of mount Parnassus; and the marble steps that descend to a pleasing running water, supposed to be the renowned Castalian spring, with the niches for statues in the rock, are still discernible. The famous cave of Trophonius is still a natural curiosity in Livadia, the old Boeotia.

Mount Athos, which has been already mentioned, and which is commonly called Monte Santo, lies on a peninsula which extends into the Aegean sea, and is indeed a chain of mountains, reaching the whole length of the peninsula, seven Turkish miles in length, and three in breadth; but it is only a single mountain that is properly called Athos. This is so lofty, that on the top, as the ancients relate, the sun rising was beheld four hours sooner than by the inhabitants of the coast; and, at the solstice, its shade reached into the Agora or market-place of Myriob, a town in Lemnos, which island was distant eighty-seven miles eastward. There are twenty-two convents on mount Athos, besides a great number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of no less than six thousand monks and hermits; though the proper hermits, who live in grottos, are not above twenty: the other monks are anchorites, or such as live in cells. These Greek monks, who call themselves the inhabitants of the holy mountains, are so far from being a set of slothful people, that, besides their daily offices of religion, they cultivate the olive and vineyards, are carpenters, masons, stone-cutters, cloth-workers, tailors, &c. They also live a very austere life; their usual food, instead of flesh, being vegetables, dried olives, figs, and other fruits, onions, cheese, and on certain days, Lent excepted, fish. Their fasts are many and severe; which, with the healthfulness of the air, renders longevity so common there, that many of them live above a hundred years. It appears from Ælian, that anciently the mountain in general, and particularly the summit, was accounted very healthy, and conducive to long life; whence the inhabitants were called Macrobiæ, or long-lived. We are farther informed by Philostratus, in the life of Apollonius, that numbers of philosophers used to retire to this mountain, for the better contemplation of the heavens, and of nature; and after their example the monks doubtless built their cells.

CITIES.] Constantinople the capital of this great empire, is situated

on the European side of the Bosphorus. It was built upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium, by the Roman emperor Constantine the Great, as a more inviting situation than Rome, for the seat of empire. It became, afterwards the capital of the Greek empire; and having escaped the destructive rage of the barbarous nations, it was the greatest as well as the most beautiful city in Europe; and the only one, during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any image of the ancient elegance in manners and arts. While it remained in the possession of the Greek emperors, it was the only mart in Europe for the commodities of the East Indies. It derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the crusaders; and being then in the meridian of its glory, the European writers, in the ages of the crusades, speak of it with astonishment. "O what a vast city is Constantinople (exclaims one, when he first beheld it), and how beautiful! How many monasteries are there in it, and how many palaces built with wonderful art! How many manufactures are there in the city, amazing to behold! It would be astonishing to relate how it abounds with all good things, with gold, silver, and stuffs of various kinds; for every hour ships arrive at this port with all things necessary for the use of man." Constantinople is at this day one of the finest cities in the world by its situation and its port. The prospect from it is noble. The most regular part is the Beseftin, inclosed with walls, and gates, where the merchants have their shops excellently ranged. In another part of the city is the Hippodrome, an oblong square of 400 paces by 100, where they exercise on horseback. The Meidan, or parade, is a large spacious square, the general resort of all ranks. On the opposite side of the port are four towns, but considered as a part of the suburbs, their distance being so small, a person may easily be heard on the other side. They are named Pera, Galata, Pacha, and Tophana. In Pera the foreign ambassadors and all the Franks or strangers reside, not being permitted to live in the city. Galata also is mostly inhabited by Franks or Jews, and is a place of great trade. The city abounds with antiquities. The tomb of Constantine the Great is still preserved. The mosque of St. Sophia, once a Christian church, is thought in some respects to exceed, in grandeur and architecture, St. Peter's at Rome. The city is built in a triangular form, with the seraglio standing on a point of one of the angles, from whence there is a prospect of the delightful coast of the Lesser Asia, which is not to be equalled. When we speak of the seraglio, we do not mean the apartments in which the grand signor's women are confined, as is commonly imagined; but the whole inclosure of the Ottoman palace, which might well suffice for a moderate town. The wall which surrounds the seraglio is thirty feet high, having battlements, embrasures, and towers, in the style of ancient fortifications. There are in it nine gates, but only two of them magnificent; and from one of these the Ottoman court takes the name of the *Porta*, or the *Sublime Porta*, in all public transactions and records. Both the magnitude and population of Constantinople have been greatly exaggerated by credulous travellers. It is surrounded by a high and thick wall, with battlements after the Oriental manner, and towers, defended by a lined but shallow ditch, the works of which are double on the land side. The best authors think that it does not contain above 800,000 inhabitants, three-fourths of whom are said to be Greeks and Armenians, and the rest are Jews and Turks. Others suppose the inhabitants not to exceed 600,000. The city has frequently suffered great damage by fires, either owing to the narrowness of the streets and the structure of the houses, or the practices

of the Janiferics, who, it is said, fire the city as often as they are discontented with the government. In August, 1784, a fire broke out in the quarter situated towards the harbour, and spread into other quarters, and about 10,000 houses (most of which had been rebuilt since the fire in 1782) were consumed.

Opposite to the seraglio, on the Asiatic side, and about a mile and a half distant, across the water, is Scutari, adorned with a royal mosque, and a pleasant house of the grand signor. On the brow of an adjacent hill is a grand prospect; embracing in one view the cities of Constantinople, Galata, and Pera, the small seas of the Bosphorus and Propontis, with the adjacent countries on each shore.

As to the population, manners, religion, government, revenues, learning, military strength, commerce, and manufactures of the Turks, these several heads depending on the same principles all over the empire, shall be mentioned under Turkey in Asia.

CRIM-TARTARY, or the CRIMEA, is the ancient Taurica Chersonesus, and is a peninsula, lying on the Euxine, or Black sea, by which it is bounded on the west and south; and on the east and north-east, by that of Asoph. It is between forty-four and forty-six degrees north latitude, and thirty-four and thirty-seven degrees of east longitude.

This peninsula was esteemed a part of Turkey in Europe, until it was ceded to Russia, in consequence of the peace in 1784. Many cities were built on it by the Greeks, particularly those of Cherson, Theodosia, Panticapeum, and some others, which carried on a great trade with the Scythians, as well as with the Greek cities on the continent. The most considerable rivers in the Crimea are those of Karasu and Salagir, both of which take an easterly course.

Of the towns in this part of the world we have but very slight descriptions; and indeed where the country has been so often the seat of war, and the inhabitants are still so rude, very little can be expected from their buildings. Lady Craven, now the margravine of Anspach, who, without doubt, had access to the best lodgings in the country, informs us, that "a Tartar's house is a very slight building, of only one story, without any chair, table, or piece of wooden furniture. Large cushions are ranged round the room for seats; and, what is extremely convenient, there is more than double the space of the room behind the waincot, which draws back in most places; so that in a place where the room appears to be exceedingly small and confined, there is yet every conveniency to be met with."

Among the curiosities in this country, we may reckon the source of the river Karusa, which is situated among the rocks, in a very romantic manner, and rises in a considerable stream. It was visited by lady Craven in 1786. No less wonderful are those lakes which receive the rivulets without any visible outlet. This celebrated female traveller mentions a house near Sebastopol, situated in a very romantic manner at the foot of some rocks, from which issue many clear springs that amply supply the houses and baths with water. On the summit of these rocks, there are places through which immense cables have certainly passed and been tied. The Tartars insist that the sea was once close to the foot of them, and ships were fastened there. Near Bacziferia there is a mine of earth, exactly like soap, which is reckoned very good for the skin, and vast quantities of it are consumed by the women at Constantinople. Lady Craven bestows the greatest encomium on the sheep, which in this peninsula are innumerable, and afford the most beautiful and costly fleeces. The sheep are all spotted; the lambskin very beau-

tiful, and they kill the ewes to have them before birth, when their skins have small spots, and are smooth like the finest and lightest fattins. Coats lined with these skins are called Pelisses; and as a great number of these small animals must be killed to make the lining of one coat, this is one of the finest presents the empress can make to an ambassador.

The peninsula of the Crimea has a considerable trade in what is called Morocco leather, of various colours, which is to be had very cheap, and like tain. At Bacziseria there is a great trade of sword-blades, knives, and hangers, many of which are not to be distinguished from such as are made at Damascus.

ISLANDS belonging to TURKEY in EUROPE, being part of Ancient GREECE.

I shall mention these islands chiefly for the use of such readers as are conversant with ancient history, of which they make so distinguished a part.

NEGROPONT, the ancient Eubœa, stretches from the south-east to the north-west, and on the eastern coast of Achæa or Livadia. It is ninety miles long and twenty-five broad, and contains about 1300 square miles. Here the Turkish galleys lie. The tides on its coasts are irregular; and the island itself is very fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle, in such abundance, that all kinds of provisions are extremely cheap. The chief towns in the island are, Negropont, called by the Greeks Egripos, situated on the south-west coast of the island, on the narrowest part of the strait; and Castel Rosso, the ancient Carystus.

LEMNOS, or STALIMENE, lies on the north part of the Ægean sea or Archipelago, and is almost a square of twenty-five miles in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches arise from its mineral earth, much used in medicine, sometimes called *terra Lemnia*, or *sgillata*, because it is sealed up by the Turks, who receive from it a considerable revenue.

TENEDOS is remarkable only for its lying opposite to old Troy, and being mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired, and left the Trojans in a fatal security. It has a town of the same name.

SEYROS is about sixty miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains: about three hundred Greek families inhabit it.

LESBOS, or MITYLENE, is about sixty miles long, and is famous for the number of philosophers and poets it produced. The inhabitants were formerly noted for their prodigality.

SCIO, or CISTOS, lies about eighty miles west of Smyrna, and is about one hundred miles in circumference. This island, though rocky and mountainous, produces excellent wine, but no corn: It is inhabited by 100,000 Greeks, 10,000 Turks, and about 3,000 Latins. It has 30 churches, besides chapels and monasteries; and a Turkish garrison of 7400 men. The inhabitants have manufactures of silk, velvet, gold and silver stuffs. The island likewise produces oil and silk, and the lentil tree, or mastic, from which the government draws its chief revenue. The women of this, and almost all the other Greek islands, have in all ages been celebrated for their beauty, and their persons have been the most perfect models of symmetry to painters and statuaries. A learned traveller, Dr. Richard Chandler, says, "The beautiful Greek girls are the most striking ornaments of Scio. Many of these were

ting at the doors and windows, twisting cotton or silk, or employed in spinning and needle-work, and accosted us with familiarity, bidding us welcome as we passed. The streets on Sundays and holidays are filled with them in groups. They wear short petticoats, reaching only to their knees, with white silk or cotton hose. Their head-dress, which is peculiar to the island, is a kind of turban; the linen so white and thin, it seemed snow. Their slippers are chiefly yellow, with a knot of red fringe at the heel. Some wore them fastened with a thong. Their garments were silk of various colours; and their whole appearance so fantastic and lively as to afford us much entertainment. The Turks inhabit a separate quarter, and their women are concealed." Among the poets and historians said to be born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and show a little square house, which they call Homer's school.

SAMOS lies opposite to Ephesus, on the coast of Lesser Asia, about seven miles from the continent. It is thirty miles long, and fifteen broad. This island gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inhabited by Greek Christians, who are well treated by the Turks, their masters. The muscadine Samian wine is in high request; and the island also produces wool, which they sell to the French; oil, pomegranates, and silk. This island is supposed to have been the native country of Juno; and some travellers think that the ruins of her temple, and of the ancient city Samos, are the finest remains of antiquity in the Levant.

To the south of Samos lies PATMOS, about twenty miles in circumference, but so barren and dreary, that it may be called a rock rather than an island. It has, however, a convenient haven; and the few Greek monks who are upon the island show a cave where St. John is supposed to have written the Apocalypse.

The CYCLADES islands lie like a circle round Delos, the chief of them, which is south of the islands Mycone and Tirse, and almost midway between the continents of Asia and Europe. Though Delos is not above six miles in circumference, it is one of the most celebrated of all the Grecian islands, as being the birth-place of Apollo and Diana, the magnificent ruins of whose temples are still visible. This island is almost destitute of inhabitants.

PAROS lies between the islands of Lnxia and Melos. Like all the other Greek islands, it contains the most striking and magnificent ruins of antiquity; but is chiefly renowned for the beauty and whiteness of its marble.

CERIGO, or CYTHERA, lies south-east of the Morea, and is about fifty miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous, and chiefly remarkable for being the favourite residence of Venus.

SANTORIN is one of the most southernmost islands in the Archipelago, and was formerly called Calista, and afterwards Thera. Though seemingly covered with pumice-stones, yet, through the industry of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000, it produces barley and wine, with some wheat. One-third of the people are of the Latin church, and subject to a popish bishop. Near this island another arose of the same name, from the bottom of the sea, in 1707. At the time of its birth there was an earthquake, attended with most dreadful lightnings and thunders, and boilings of the sea for several days, so that when it arose out of the sea, it was a mere volcano, but the burning soon ceased. It is about 200 feet above the sea; and at the time of its first emerging, it was about a mile broad, and five miles in circumference, but it has since increased. Several other islands of the Archipelago appear to have had the like original; but the sea in their neighbourhood is so deep as not to be fathomed.

The famous island of RHODUS is situated in the twenty-eighth degree

of east longitude, and thirty-six degrees thirty minutes north latitude, about twenty miles south-west of the continent of Lesser Asia, being about sixty miles long, and twenty-five broad. This island is healthful and pleasant, and abounds in wine, and many of the necessaries of life; but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The chief town, which also bears the name of Rhodes, is situated on the side of a hill fronting the sea, and is three miles in circumference, interspersed with gardens, minarets, churches, and towers. The harbour of Rhodes is the grand signor's principal arsenal for shipping; and the place is esteemed among the strongest fortresses belonging to the Turks. The colossus of brass, which anciently stood at the mouth of the harbour, and was fifty fathoms wide, was deservedly accounted one of the wonders of the world: one foot being placed on each side of the harbour, ships passed between its legs; and it held in one hand a light-house for the direction of mariners. The face of the colossus represented the sun, to whom this image was dedicated; and its height was about 135 feet. The inhabitants of this island were formerly masters of the sea; and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St. John of Jerusalem, after losing Palestine, took this island from the Turks in 1308, but lost it to them in 1522, after a brave defence, and afterwards retired to Malta.

CANDIA, the ancient Crete, is still renowned for its hundred cities, for its being the birth-place of Jupiter, the seat of legislature to all Greece, and many other historical and political distinctions. It lies between thirty-five and thirty-six degrees of north latitude, being 200 miles long, and sixty broad, almost equally distant from Europe, Asia, and Africa, and contains 3220 square miles. The famous Mount Ida stands in the middle of the island, and is no better than a barren rock; and Lethe, the river of oblivion; is a torpid stream. Some of the valleys of this island produce wine, fruits, and corn; all of them remarkably excellent in their kind. The siege of Candia, the capital of the island, in modern times, was far more wonderful and bloody than that of Troy. The Turks invested it in the beginning of the year 1645; and its Venetian garrison, after bravely defending itself against fifty-six assaults, till the latter end of September 1669, made, at last, an honourable capitulation. The siege cost the Turks 180,000 men, and the Venetians 80,000.

CYPRUS lies in the Levant sea, about thirty miles distant from the coasts of Syria and Palestine. It is one hundred and fifty miles long, and seventy broad, and lies at almost an equal distance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly famous for the worship of Venus, the Cyprian goddess; and, during the time of the crusades, was a rich flourishing kingdom, inhabited by Christians. Its wine, especially that which grows at the bottom of the celebrated Mount Olympus, is the most palatable, and the richest of all that grows in the Greek islands. Nicosia is the capital, in the mid of the country, and the see of a Greek archbishop; indeed, most part of the inhabitants of the island are Greeks. Famagusta, its ancient capital, has a good harbour; and the natural produce of the island is so rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping consuls residing upon it; but the oppressions of the Turks have depopulated and impoverished it to a surprising degree, so that the revenue they get from it does not exceed 125000 a year. The island produces great quantities of grapes, from which excellent wine is made; and also cotton of a very fine quality is here cultivated, and oil, silk, and turpentine. Its female inhabitants do not degenerate from their ancestors as devotees to Venus; and Paphos, that

ancient seat of pleasure and corruption, is one of the divisions of the island. Richard I. king of England, subdued Cyprus, on account of its king's treachery; and its royal title was transferred to Guy Lusignan, king of Jerusalem, from whence it passed to the Venetians, who still hold that empty honour.

The islands in the Ionian sea are, SAPIENZA, STIVALI, ZANTE, CEPHALONIA, SANTAMAURA, CORFU, FANNU, and others of smaller note, particularly the Isola del Compare, which would not deserve mention, had it not been the ancient Ithaca, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulysses. These islands, in general, are fruitful, and belonged to the Venetians; but, since the late revolution at Venice, have passed into the possession of the French republic.

ZANTE has a populous capital of the same name, and is a place of considerable trade, especially in currants, grapes, and wine. The citadel is erected on the top of a large hill, strong by nature, but now little better than a heap of ruins. Here is a garrison of 500 men, but their chief dependence is on their fleet, and the island of Corfu. The inhabitants of Zante are about 30,000, mostly Greeks, and friendly to strangers. Corfu, which is the capital of that island, and the residence of the governor-general over all the other islands, is a place of great strength, and its circumference about four miles. The Venetians are said to have concerned themselves very little about the welfare or government of these islands, so that the inhabitants, who are generally Greeks, bear a very indifferent character. Their number at Corfu is estimated at 50,000, and their manners more severe than at Zante.

A S I A.

AS Asia exceeds Europe and Africa in the extent of its territories, it is also superior to them in the serenity of its air, the fertility of its soil, the deliciousness of its fruits, the fragrant and balsamic qualities of its plants, spices, and gums; the salubrity of its drugs; the quantity, variety, beauty, and value of its gems; the richness of its metals, and the fineness of its silks and cottons. It was in Asia, according to the sacred records, that the all-wise Creator planted the garden of Eden, in which he formed the first man and first woman, from whom the race of mankind was to spring. Asia became again the nursery of the world after the deluge, whence the descendants of Noah dispersed their various colonies into all the other parts of the globe. It was in Asia, that God placed his once favourite people, the Hebrews, whom he enlightened by revelations delivered by the prophets, and to whom he gave the Oracles of Truth. It was here that the great and merciful work of our redemption was accomplished by his only Son; and it was from hence that the light of his glorious gospel was carried, with amazing rapidity, into all the known nations by his disciples and followers. Here the first Christian churches were founded, and the Christian faith miraculously propagated, and cherished, even with the blood of innumerable martyrs. It was in Asia that the first edifices were reared, and the first empires founded, while the other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. On all these accounts, this quarter claims a superiority over the rest; but it must be observed that a great change hath happened in that part of it called Tur-

key, which has lost much of its ancient splendour; and from the most populous and best cultivated spot in Asia, is become a wild and uncultivated desert. The other parts of Asia continue much in their former condition, the soil being as remarkable for its fertility, as most of the inhabitants for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury. This effeminacy is chiefly owing to the warmth of the climate, though in some measure heightened by custom and education: and the symptoms of it are more or less visible, as the several nations are seated nearer or farther from the north. Hence the Tartars, who live near the same latitudes with us, are as brave, hardy, strong, and vigorous, as any European nation. What is wanting in the robust frame of their bodies, among the Chinese, Mogul-Indians, and all the inhabitants of the most southern regions, is in a great measure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and ingenuity in various kinds of workmanship, which our most skilful mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

This vast extent of territory was successively governed, in past times, by the Assyrians, the Medes, the Persians, and the Greeks; but the immense regions of India and China were little known to Alexander, or the conquerors of the ancient world. Upon the decline of those empires, great part of Asia submitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the successors of Mahomet, or, as they were usually called, Saracens, founded in Asia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extensive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Roman, when in its height of power. The Saracen greatness ended with the death of Tamerlane; and the Turks, conquerors on every side, took possession of the middle regions of Asia, which they still enjoy. Besides the countries possessed by the Turks and Russians, Asia contains, at present, three large empires, the Chinese, the Mogul, and the Persian, upon which the lesser kingdoms and sovereignties of Asia generally depend. The prevailing form of government, in this division of the globe, is absolute monarchy. If any of its inhabitants can be said to enjoy some share of liberty, it is the wandering tribes, as the Tartars and Arabs. Many of the Asiatic nations, when the Dutch first came among them, could not conceive how it was possible for any people to live under any other form of government than that of a despotic monarchy. Turkey, Arabia, Persia, part of Tartary, and part of India profess Mahometanism. The Persian and Indian Mahometans are of the sect of Hali, and the others of that of Omar; but both own Mahomet for their lawgiver, and the Koran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Asiatic islands, they are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found every where in Asia. Christianity, though planted here with wonderful rapidity by the apostles and primitive fathers, suffered an almost total eclipse by the conquests of the Saracens, and afterwards of the Turks; incredible indeed have been the hazards, perils, and sufferings, of the catholic missionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the most distant regions, and among the grossest idolaters; but their labour have hitherto failed of success, owing in a great measure to the avarice, cruelty, and injustice, of the European, who resort thither in search of wealth and dominion.

The principal languages spoken in Asia are, the modern Greek, the Turkish, the Russian, the Tartarian, the Persian, the Arabic, the Malay, the Chinese, and the Japanese. The European languages are also spoken upon the coasts of India and China.

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Turcomani or Armeni	
Georgia *	
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degrees of east longitude, and between the equator and eighty degrees of north latitude. It is about 4740 miles in length, from the Dardanelles on the west, to the eastern shore of Tartary; and about 4380 miles in breadth, from the most southern part of Malacca, to the most northern cape of Nova Zembla. It is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; on the west it is separated from Africa by the Red Sea, and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Hellespont, the sea of Marmora, the Bosphorus, the Black Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and from thence to the river Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean. On the east, it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, which separates it from America; and on the south, by the Indian Ocean; so that it is almost surrounded by the sea. The principal regions which divide this country are as follows:

Nations.	Langt.	Breadt.	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bearing from Lond.	Diff. of time from London.	Religion.	
TARTARY	The bounds of these parts are unlimited, each power pushing on his conquests as far as he can			3,050,000	Tobolsk	2160 N. E.	4 10 bef.	Ch. & Pag.
			644,000	Chynian	4480 N. E.	8 4 bef.	Pagans	
			185,350	Tibet	3780 E.	5 40 bef.	Pagans	
			600,060	Samar. Lassa	1800 E. 4310	4 36 bef.	Pagans	
China	1440	1000	1,205,000	Pekin	4380 S. E.	7 24 bef.	Pagans	
Moguls	2000	1500	1,116,000	Delhi	3720 S. E.	5 16 bef.	Mah. & P.	
Ind. beyond the Ganges	2000	1000	741,500	Siam Pegu	5040 S. E.	1 44 bef.	Pag. & M.	
Persia	1300	1100	800,000	Isfahan	2400 S. E.	3 20 bef.	Mahom.	
Part of Arab.	1300	1200	700,000	Mecca	2640 S. E.	2 52 bef.	Mahom.	
Syria	270	160	29,000	Aleppo	1860 S. E.	2 30 bef.	Ch. & Ma.	
Holy Land	210	90	7,600	Jerusalem	1920 S. E.	2 24 bef.	Ch. & Ma.	
Natolia	750	390	195,000	Bursa or Smyrna	1440 S. E.	1 48 bef.	Mahom.	
Diarbeck or Mesopotam.	240	210	27,000	Diarbeck	2060 S. E.	2 56 bef.	Mahometans with some few Christians.	
Irac or Chaldea	420	240	50,400	Bagdad	2240 S. E.	3 04 bef.		
Turcomania or Armenia	360	300	55,000	Erzerum	1860 S. E.	2 44 bef.		
Georgia *	240	180	25,600	Teflis	1920 E.	3 10 bef.		
Curdistan or Assyria	210	205	23,900	Mouful	2220 E.	3 — bef.	Mahom.	

All the islands of Asia (except Cyprus, already described in the Levant, belonging to the Turks) lie in the Pacific or Eastern Ocean, and

* Georgia has lately put itself under the protection of Russia.

the Indian Seas; of which the principal, where the Europeans trade or have settlements, are,

Islands.	Towns.	S. Miles.	Trade with or owing to	
The Japanese isles	Jeddo, Meaco	138,000	Dutch	
The Ladrones	Guam		Spain	
Formosa	Tai-tuan-fou	17,000	China	
Anian	Kiontcheow	11,000		
The Philippines	Manilla	133,700	Spain	
The Molucca, or Clove isles	Victoria Fort, Ternate		Dutch	
The Banda, or Nutmeg isles	Lantor		Dutch	
Amboyna } surrounding	Amboyna	400	Dutch	
Celebes } the Molucca &	Macaifer	68,400	Dutch	
Gilolo, &c. } Banda isles.	Gilolo	10,400	Dutch	
The Sunda isles	Borneo, Caytongee	118,000	All Nations	
	Sumatra	Achen, Bencoolen	129,000	English and Dutch
	Java, &c.	Satavia, Bantam	38,250	Dutch
The Andaman & Nicobar isles	Andaman, Nicobar		All Nations	
Ceylon	Candy	27,730	Dutch	
The Maldives	Caridon		All Nations	
Bombay	Bombay		English	
The Kurile isles, and those in the sea of Kamtschacka, lately discovered by the Russians			Russia	

TURKEY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length, 1000	between { 27 and 46 east longitude. } { 28 and 45 north latitude. }	520,820.
Breadth, 800		

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the Black Sea and Circassia on the North; by Persia on the East; by Arabia and the Levant Sea, on the South; and by the Archipelago, the Hellespont, and Propontis, which separate it from Europe, on the West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
The eastern provinces are	1. Eyrac Arabia, or Chaldea	Bassora and Bagdad.
	2. Diarbec, or Mesopotamia	Diarbec, Orfa, &c.
	3. Curdistan, or Assyria	Mouful and Belis.
	4. Turcomania, or Armenia	Erzerum and Van.
	5. Georgia, including Mingrelia and Imaretta, and part of Circassia.	Teflia, Armarchia, & Gornie. Burfa, Nici, Smyrna and Ephesus.
Natolia, or the Lesser Asia, on the west.	1. Natolia proper	Amasia, Trapezond, and Sinope.
	2. Amasia	
	3. Aladulia	Ajazzo and Marat.
	4. Caramania	Satalia and Teraflo.
East of the Levant Sea.	Syria, with Palestine, or the Holy Land.	Aleppo, Antioch, Damascus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderon, Jerusalem

MOUNTAINS.] These are famous in sacred as well as profane writings. The most remarkable are, Olympus, Taurus and Anti-taurus; Caucasus and Ararat; Lebanon and Hermon.

RIVERS.] The same may be observed of the rivers, which are the Euphrates, Tigris, Orontes, Mæander, Sarabat, Kara, and Jordan

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Though both are delightful in the utmost degree, and naturally salubrious to the human constitution, yet such is the equality with which the author of nature has dispensed his benefits, that Turkey, both in Europe and Asia, is often visited by the plague; a frightful scourge to mankind wherever it takes place, but here doubly destructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their superstitious belief in a predestination, which prevents them from using the proper precautions to defend themselves against this calamity.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] As this country contains the most fertile provinces of Asia, it is scarcely necessary to inform the reader that it produces all the luxuries of life in the utmost abundance, notwithstanding the indolence of its owners. Raw silk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every species, coffee, myrrh, frankincense, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are natives here almost without culture, which is practised chiefly by Greek and Armenian Christians. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates, produced in these provinces, are highly delicious, and in such plenty, that they cost the inhabitants a mere trifle, and, it is said, in some places nothing. Their asparagus is often as large as a man's leg, and their grapes far exceed those of other countries in largeness. In short, nature has brought all her productions here to the highest perfection.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.} The same may be said of their animals. The breed of the Turkish and Arabian horses, the latter especially, are valuable beyond any in the world, and have considerably improved that of the English. We know of no quadrupeds that are peculiar to these countries, but they contain all that are necessary for the use of mankind. Camels are here in much request, from their strength, their agility, and, above all, their moderation in eating and drinking, which is greater than that of any other known animal. Their manufacture, known by the name of camlets, was originally made by a mixture of camel's hair and silk, though it is now often made with wool and silk. Their kids and sheep are exquisite eating, and are said to surpass, in flavour and taste, those of Europe: but their butchers' meat in general, beef particularly, is not so fine.

As to birds, they have wild fowl in great perfection: their ostriches are well known by their tallness, swiftness in running, and stupidity. The Roman epicures prized no fish, except lampreys, mullets, and oysters, but those that were found in Asia.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This country contains all the metals that are to be found in the richest kingdoms and provinces in Europe; and its medicinal springs and baths exceed those of any in the known world.

OF THE TURKS IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.} THE population of this great country is by no means equal either to its extent or fertility, nor have the best geographers been able to ascertain it, because of the uncertainty of its

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limits. It certainly is not so great as it was before the Christian era, or even under the Roman emperors; owing to various causes, and, above all, to the tyranny under which the natives live, and their polygamy, which is undoubtedly an enemy to population, as may be evinced from many reasons; and particularly, because the Greeks and Armenians, among whom it is not practised, are incomparably more prolific than the Turks, notwithstanding the rigid subjection in which they are kept by the latter. The plague is another cause of depopulation. The Turkish emperor, however, has more subjects than any two European princes.

As to the inhabitants, they are generally well made and robust men: when young, their complexions are fair, and their faces handsome; their hair and eyes are black or dark brown. The women, when young, are commonly handsome, but they generally look old at thirty. In their demeanour, the Turks are rather hypochondriac, grave, sedate, and passive; but when agitated by passion, furious, angry, ungovernable; big with dissimulation, jealous, suspicious, and vindictive beyond conception: in matters of religion, tenacious, superstitious, and morose. Though the generality seem hardly capable of much benevolence, or even humanity, with regard to Jews, Christians, or any who differ from them in religious matters, yet they are far from being devoid of social affections for those of their own religion. But interest is their supreme good; and when that comes in competition, all ties of religion, consanguinity, or friendship, are with the generality speedily dissolved. The morals of the Asiatic Turks are far preferable to those of the European. They are hospitable to strangers; and the vices of avarice and inhumanity reign chiefly among their great men. They are likewise said to be charitable to one another, and punctual in their dealings. Their charity and public spirit is most conspicuous in their building caravanseras, or places of entertainment, on roads that are destitute of accommodations, for the refreshment of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the same laudable view they search out the best springs, and dig wells, which in those countries are a luxury to weary travellers. The Turks sit cross-legged upon mats, not only at their meals, but in company. Their ideas are simple and confined, seldom reaching without the walls of their own houses; where they sit conversing with their women, drinking coffee, smoking tobacco, or chewing opium. They have little curiosity to be informed of the state of their own, or any other country. If a visier, bashaw, or other officer, is turned out, or strangled, they say no more on the occasion, than that there will be a new visier or governor, seldom inquiring into the reason of the disgrace of the former minister. They are perfect strangers to wit and agreeable conversation. They have few printed books, and seldom read any other than the Koran, and the contents upon it. Nothing is negotiated in Turkey without presents; and here justice may commonly be bought and sold.

The Turks dine about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and they sup at five in the winter and six in the summer, and this is their principal meal. Among the great people, their dishes are served up one by one; but they have neither knife nor fork, and they are not permitted by their religion to use gold or silver spoons. Their victuals are always high seasoned. Rice is the common food of the lower sort, and sometimes it is boiled up with gravy; but their chief dish is pilau, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags; and the rice being boiled quite dry, the soup is high seasoned, and poured upon it. They drink water, sherbet, and coffee; and the only debauch they know is in opium, which gives them sensations resembling those of intoxication. Guests

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of high rank sometimes have their beards perfumed by a female slave of the family. They are temperate and sober from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the use of wine; though in private many of them indulge themselves in the use of strong liquors. Their common salutation is by an inclination of the head, and laying their right hand on their breast. They sleep in linen waistcoats and drawers, upon mattresses, and cover themselves with a quilt. Few or none of the considerable inhabitants of this vast empire have any notion of walking or riding either for health or diversion. The most religious among them find, however, sufficient exercise when they conform themselves to the frequent ablutions, prayers, and rites prescribed them by Mahomet.

Their active diversions consist in shooting at a mark, or tilting it with darts, at which they are very expert. Some of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is often done for political purposes, that they may know the strength of their dependents. Within doors, the chess or draught board are their usual amusements: and if they play at chance games, they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Koran.

DRESS.] The men shave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover their heads with a turban, and never put it off but when they sleep. Their shirts are without collar or wristband, and over them they throw a long vest, which they tie with a sash, and over the vest they wear a loose gown somewhat shorter. Their breeches, or draw... are of a piece with their stockings; and instead of shoes they wear slippers, which they put off when they enter a temple or house. They suffer no Christians, or other people, to wear white turbans. The dress of the women differs little from that of the men, only they wear stiffened caps upon their heads, with horns something like a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad, they are so muffled up as not to be known by their nearest relation. Such of the women as are virtuous make no use of paint to heighten their beauty, or to disguise their complexion; but they often tinge their hands and feet with *henna*, which gives them a deep yellow. The men make use of the same expedient to colour their beards.

MARRIAGES.] Marriages in this country are chiefly negotiated by the ladies. When the terms are agreed upon, the bridegroom pays down a sum of money, a licence is taken out from the cadi, or proper magistrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity; and the money is generally employed in furnishing the house of the young couple. They are not allowed by their law more than four wives, but they may have as many concubines as they can maintain. The wealthy Turks, therefore, besides their wives, keep a number of women in their harems, or, as they are improperly called in Europe, their seraglios. But all these indulgences are sometimes insufficient to restrain their unnatural desires.

FUNERALS.] The burials of the Turks are decent. The corpse is attended by the relations, chanting passages from the Koran; and after being deposited in a mosque (so they call their temples), they are buried in a field by the iman or priest, who pronounces a funeral sermon at the time of the interment. The male relations express their sorrow by alms and prayers; the women, by decking the tomb on certain days with flowers and green leaves; and in mourning for a husband.

band, they wear a particular head-dress, and leave off all finery for twelve months.

RELIGION.] The established religion is the Mahometan, so called from Mahomet, the author of it, some account of whom the reader will find in the following history of Arabia, the native country of that impostor. The Turks profess to be of the sect of Omar; but these are split into as many sectaries as their neighbours the Christians. There is no ordination among their clergy; any person may be a priest that pleases to take the habit, and perform the functions of his order, and may lay down his office when he pleases. Their chief priest, or mufti, seems to have great power in the state.

ECCLESIASTICAL INSTITUTIONS.] The Turkish government has } formed these into part of its fi-
OF CHRISTIANS. }
nances, they are tolerated where they are most profitable; but the hardships imposed upon the Greek church are such, as must always dispose that people to favour any revolution of government. Constantinople, Jerusalem, Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchates; and their heads are indulged, according as they pay for their privilege, with a civil as well as an ecclesiastical authority over their votaries. The same may be said of the Nestorian and Armenian patriarchs; and every great city that can pay for the privilege, has its archbishop or bishop. All male Christians pay also a capitation tax from seventeen years old to sixty, according to their stations.

LANGUAGE.] The radical languages of this empire are the Slavonian, which seems to have been the mother-tongue of the ancient Turks; the Greek modernised, but still bearing a relation to the old language; the Arabic and the Syriac, a dialect of which is still spoken. A specimen of the modern Greek follows in their paternoster:

Pater hemas, opios iso ecs to ouranos: hagiasthito to onoma sou: na eriti he bastia sou: to thelma sou na genetex itzon eu to ge, os is ton ouranon: to pisoni hemas doze hemas semoren: ka sichorase hemos ta crimata hemon itzone, ka hemas sichorajomen ekinous opou hemas adikoun: ka meu ternes hemas is to pirasmo, alla sosen hemas apo to kaxo. Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Turks till of late professed a sovereign contempt for our learning. Greece, which was the native country of genius, arts, and sciences, produces at present, besides Turks, numerous bands of Christian bishops, priests, and monks, who in general are as ignorant as the Turks themselves, and are divided into various absurd sects of what they call Christianity. The education of the Turks seldom extends farther than reading the Turkish language, and the Koran, and writing a common letter. Some of them understand astronomy, so far as to calculate the time of an eclipse; but the number of these being very small, they are looked upon as extraordinary persons.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] These are so various, that they }
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } have furnished matter for many voluminous publications, and others are appearing every day. These countries contained all that was rich and magnificent, in architecture and sculpture; and neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the depredations they have suffered from the Europeans, seem to have diminished their number. They are more or less perfect, according to the air, soil, or climate, in which they stand, and all of them bear deplorable marks of neglect. Many of the finest temples are converted into Turkish mosques, or Greek churches, and are more disfigured than

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those which remain in ruins. Amidst such a vast variety of curiosities, we shall select some of the most striking.

Balbec is situated on a rising plain, between Tripoli, in Syria, and Damascus, at the foot of Mount Libanus, and is the Heliopolis of Cælo-Syria. Its remains of antiquity display, according to the best judges, the boldest plan, that ever was attempted in architecture. The portico of the temple of Heliopolis is inexpressibly superb, though disfigured by two Turkish towers. The hexagonal court behind it is now known only by the magnificence of its ruins. The walls were adorned with Corinthian pilasters and statues, and it opens into a quadrangular court of the same taste and grandeur. The great temple to which this leads is now so ruined, that it is known only by an entablature, supported by nine lofty columns, each consisting of three pieces, joined together by iron pins, without cement. Some of those pins are a foot long, and a foot in diameter; and the sordid Turks are daily at work to destroy the columns for the sake of the iron. A small temple is still standing, with a pedestal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, and every where richly ornamented with figures in alto relievo, and the heads of gods, heroes, and emperors. To the west of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corinthian and Ionic order, but disfigured with Turkish mosques and houses. The other parts of this ancient city are proportionably beautiful and stupendous.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of these immense buildings. The inhabitants of Asia ascribe them to Solomon, but some make them so modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different æras; and though that prince and his successors may have rebuilt some part of them, yet the boldness of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the stupendous execution of the whole, seem to fix their foundation to a period before the Christian æra, though we cannot refer them to the ancient times of the Jews, or Phœnicians, who probably knew little of the Greek style in building and ornamenting. Balbec is at present a little city encompassed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are about 5000 in number, chiefly Greeks, live in or near the circular temple, in houses built out of the ancient ruins. A free-stone quarry in the neighbourhood furnished the stones for the body of the temple; and one of the stones, not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 broad, and 14 feet five inches deep: its weight must be 1135 tons. A coarse white marble quarry, at a greater distance, furnished the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or, as it was called by the ancients, Tadmor in the desert, is situated in the wilds of Arabia Petræa, in about 33 deg. of N. lat. and 200 miles to the south-east of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined as it were with the remains of antiquity; and opening all at once, the eye is presented with the most striking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the Sun lies in ruins; but the access to it is through a vast number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be known by the plates of it, which have been drawn and published by Mr. Wood, who, with his friends, visited it some years ago, purposely to preserve some remembrance of such a curiosity. As those drawings, or copies from them, are now common, we must refer the reader to them, especially as he can form no very adequate ideas of the ruins from a printed relation. Superb arches, amazing columns, a co-

Ionnade extending 4000 feet in length, terminated by a noble mausoleum, temples, fine porticos, peristyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the highest style, and finished with the most beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but so dispersed and disjointed, that it is impossible from them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. These striking ruins are contrasted by the miserable huts of the wild Arabs, who reside in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man, that so superb a city, formerly ten miles in circumference, could exist in the midst of what now are tracts of barren uninhabitable sands. Nothing however is more certain than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eastern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans and the western nations, for the merchandises and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its present altered situation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural causes, which have turned the most fertile tracts into barren deserts. The Asiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to Solomon; and in this they receive some countenance from sacred history. In profane history it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Antony; and its most superb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus; Odenathus, the last king of Palmyra, was highly caressed by that emperor, and even declared Augustus. His widow, Zenobia, reigned in great glory for some time; and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her secretary. Not being able to brook the Roman tyranny, she declared war against the emperor Aurelian, who took her prisoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, and among others the excellent Longinus. He afterwards destroyed her city, and massacred its inhabitants, but expended large sums out of Zenobia's treasures in repairing the temple of the Sun, the majestic ruins of which have been mentioned. None of the Palmyrene inscriptions reach above the Christian æra, though there can be no doubt that the city itself is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Justinian made some efforts to restore it to its ancient splendor, but without effect, for it dwindled, by degrees, to its present wretched state. It has been observed, very justly, that its architecture, and the proportions of its columns, are by no means equal in purity to those of Balbec.

Nothing can be more futile than the boasted antiquities shown by the Greek and Armenian priests in and near Jerusalem, which is well known to have been so often razed to the ground, and re-built anew, that no scene of our Saviour's life and sufferings can be ascertained; and yet those ecclesiastics subsist by their forgeries, and pretending to guide travellers to every spot mentioned in the Old and New Testament. They are, it is true, under severe contributions to the Turks, but the trade still goes on, though much diminished in its profits. The church of the Holy Sepulchre, as it is called, said to be built by Helena, mother to Constantine the Great, is still standing, and of tolerable good architecture; but its different divisions, and the dispositions made round it, are chiefly calculated to support the forgeries of its keepers. Other churches built by the same lady are found in Palestine; but the country is so altered in its appearance and qualities, that it is one of the most despicable of any in Asia, and it is in vain for a modern traveller to attempt to trace in it any vestiges of the kingdom of David and Solomon. But the most fertile country, abandoned to tyranny and wild Arabs, must in time become a desert. Thus oppression soon thinned

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the delicious plains of Italy; and the noted countries of Greece and Asia the Less, once the glory of the world, are now nearly destitute of learning, arts, and people.

Mecca and Medina are curiosities only through the superstition of the Mahometans. Their buildings are mean, when compared to European houses or churches; and even the temple of Mecca, in point of architecture, makes but a sorry appearance, though erected on the spot where the great prophet is said to have been born. The same may be said of the mosque at Medina, where that impostor was buried; so that the vast sums spent yearly by Mahometan pilgrims, in visiting those places, are undoubtedly converted to temporal uses. Between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, where some superstitious and visionary people have sought the situation of Paradise, there are some tracts which undoubtedly deserve that name. The different ruins, some of them inexpressibly magnificent, that are to be found in those immense regions, cannot be appropriated with any certainty to their original founders; so great is the ignorance in which they have been buried for these thousand years past. It is, indeed, easy to pronounce whether the style of their buildings be Greek, Roman, or Saracen: but all other information must come from their inscriptions.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now called Ismir) contains many valuable antiquities. The same may be said of Aleppo, and a number of other places, celebrated in antiquity. The site of old Troy cannot be distinguished by the smallest vestige, and is known only by its being opposite to the isle of Tenedos, and the name of a brook which the poets magnified into a wonderful river. A temple of marble, built in honour of Augustus Cæsar, at Milasso, in Caria, and a few structures of the same kind in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are still entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, now Latichea, have suffered very little from time or barbarism; and some travellers think they discern the ruins of the celebrated temple of Diana, near Ephesus.

CHIEF CITIES, MOSQUES, AND } These are very numerous, and, at
OTHER BUILDINGS. } the same time, very insignificant,
because they have little or no trade, and are greatly decayed from their ancient grandeur. Scanderoon stands upon the site of old Alexandria, but it is now almost depopulated. Superb remains of antiquity are found in its neighbourhood. Aleppo, however, preserves a respectable rank among the cities of the Asiatic Turkey. It is still the capital of Syria, and is superior in its buildings and conveniences to most of the Turkish cities. Its houses, as usual in the East, consist of a large court, with a dead wall to the street, an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble, and an elegant fountain of the same in the middle. Aleppo, and its suburbs, are seven miles in compass, standing on eight small hills, on the highest of which, the citadel or castle is erected, but of no great strength. An old wall, and a broad ditch, now in many places turned into gardens, surround the city, which contains 235,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 are Christians, and 5000 are Jews. It is furnished with most of the conveniences of life, excepting good water, within the walls, and even that is supplied by an aqueduct, distant about four miles, said to have been erected by the empress Helena. The streets are narrow, but well paved with large square stones, and are kept very clean. Their gardens are pleasant, being laid out in vineyards, olive, fig, and pistachio trees: but the country round is rough and barren. Foreign merchants are nume-

rous here, and transact their business in caravanferas, or large square buildings, containing their warehousés, lodging rooms, and compting-houses. This city abounds in neat, and some of them magnificent mosques, public bagnios, which are very refreshing, and bazars, or market places, which are formed into long, narrow, arched, or covered streets, with little shops, as in other parts of the East. Their coffee is excellent, and considered by the Turks as a high luxury; and their sweetmeats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater splendour and safety than in any other city of the Turkish empire, which is owing to particular capitulations with the Porte. Coaches or carriages are not used here, but persons of quality ride on horseback, with a number of servants before them, according to their rank. The English, French, and Dutch, have consuls, who are much respected, and appear abroad, the English especially, with marks of distinction.

The heat of the country makes it convenient for the inhabitants to sleep in the open air, here, all over Arabia, and many other parts of the East; for which reason their houses are flat on the top. This practice accounts for the early acquaintance those nations had with astronomy, and the motions of the heavenly bodies, and explains some parts of the scripture. As the Turks are very uniform in their way of living, this account of Aleppo may give the reader an idea of the other Turkish cities.

Bagdad, built upon the Tigris, not far, it is supposed, from the site of ancient Babylon, is the capital of the ancient Chaldea, and was the metropolis of the caliphate, under the Saracens, in the twelfth century. This city retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is in the form of an irregular square, and rudely fortified; but the conveniency of its situation renders it one of the seats of the Turkish government, and it has still a considerable trade, being annually visited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and western caravans. The houses of Bagdad are generally large, built of brick and cement, and arched over to admit the free circulation of the air; many of their windows are made of elegant Venetian glass, and the ceilings ornamented with chequered work. Most of the houses have also a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a small plantation of orange trees. The number of houses is computed at 80,000, each of which pays an annual tribute to the bashaw, which is calculated to produce 300,000l. sterling. Their bazars, in which their tradesmen have their shops, are tolerably handsome, large, and extensive, filled with shops of all kinds of merchandise, to the number of 12,000. These were erected by the Persians, when they were in possession of the place, as were also their bagnios, and almost every thing here worthy the notice of a traveller. In this city are five mosques, two of which are well built, and have handsome domes, covered with varnished tiles of several colours. Two chapels are permitted for those of the Romish and Greek persuasions. On the north-west corner of the city stands the castle, which is built of white stone, and commands the river, consisting of curtains, and bastions, on which some large cannon are mounted, with two mortars in each bastion; but in the year 1779, they were so honey-combed and bad, as to be supposed not to support one firing. Below the castle, by the water side, is the palace of the Turkish governor; and there are several summer-houses on the river, which make a fine appearance. The Arabians who inhabited this city under the caliphs, were remarkable for the purity and elegance of their dialect.

Ancient Assyria is now called the Turkish Curdistan, though part of it is subject to the Persians. The capital is Curdistan, the ancient Nineveh being now a heap of ruins. Curdistan is said to be for the most part, cut out of a mountain, and is the residence of a viceroy, or Beglerbeg. Orsar, formerly Edessa, is the capital of the fine province of Mesopotamia. It is now a mean place, and chiefly supported by a manufacture of Turkey leather. Mousul is also in the same province, a large place, situated on the west shore of the Tigris, opposite where Nineveh formerly stood.

Georgia, or Gurgistan, now no longer subject to the Turks, is chiefly peopled by Christians. The natives of this country are a brave warlike race of men. Their capital, Tefis, is a handsome city, and makes a fine appearance; all the houses are of stone, neat and clean, with flat roofs, which serve as walks for the women, but the streets are dirty and narrow; its inhabitants being about 30,000. It is situated at the foot of a mountain, by the side of the river Kur, and is surrounded by strong walls, except on the side of the river. It has a large fortress on the declivity of the mountain, which is a place of refuge for criminals and debtors, and the garrison consists of native Persians. There are thirteen Greek churches in Tefis, seven Armenian, and one Roman catholic church; the Mahometans who are here have no mosques. In the neighbourhood of the city are many pleasant houses, and fine gardens. The Georgians, in general, are, by some travellers, said to be the handsomest people in the world; and some think that they early received the practice of inoculation for the small-pox. They make no scruple of selling and drinking wines in their capital, and other towns; and their valour has procured them many distinguishing liberties and privileges. Lately they have formed an alliance with Russia, under the brave prince Heraclius; as has the czar or prince Solomon, sovereign of Immeretta, a district between the Caspian and Black Seas, who is distinguished from his subjects (all of the Greek religion) by riding on an ass, and wearing boots.

The ancient cities of Damascus, Tyre, and Sidon, still retain part of their former trade. Damascus is called Sham, and the approach to it by the river is inexpressibly beautiful. It contains a fine mosque, which was formerly a Christian church. It still is famous for its steel works, such as sword-blades, knives, and the like; the excellent temper of which is said to be owing to a quality in the water. The inhabitants manufacture also those beautiful silks, called damasks, from their city, and carry on a considerable traffic in raw and worked silk, rose-water, extracted from the famous damask roses, fruits, and wine. The neighbourhood of this city is still beautiful, especially to the Turks, who delight in verdure and gardens. Sidon, now Said, which likewise lies within the ancient Phœnicia, has still some trade, and a tolerable harbour.

Tyre, now called Sur, about twenty miles distant from Sidon, so famous formerly for its rich dye, is now inhabited by scarcely any but a few miserable fishermen, who live in the ruins of its ancient grandeur. There are strong walls on the land side, of stone, eighteen feet high, and seven broad. The circumference of the place is not more than a mile and a half, and Christians and Mahometans make up the number of about five hundred. Some of the ruins of ancient Tyre are still visible. The pavements of the old city, Mr. Bruce tells us, he saw, and observes that they were seven feet and a half lower than the ground upon which the present city stands. Passing by Tyre (says our author, who deserves

much praise for some happy elucidations of scripture), I came to be a mournful witness of the truth of that prophecy, 'That Tyre, Queen of Nations, should be a rock for fishers to dry their nets on *'. Two wretched fishermen; with miserable nets, having just given over their occupation, with very little success, I engaged them, at the expense of their nets, to drag in those places, where they said shell-fish might be caught, in hopes to have brought out one of the famous purple fish. I did not succeed, but in this I was, I believe, as lucky as the old fishers had ever been. The purple-fish at Tyre seems to have been only a concealment of their knowledge of cochineal, as, had they depended upon the fish for their dye, if the whole city of Tyre applied to nothing else but fishing, they would not have coloured twenty yards of cloth in a year †.

Natolia, or Asia Minor, comprehending the ancient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Pisidia, Lycaonia, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus, or Amasia; all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman history, are now, through the Turkish indolence and tyranny, either forsaken, or a theatre of ruins. The sites of ancient cities are still discernible; and so luxurious is nature in those countries, that in many places she triumphs over her forlorn condition. The selfish Turks cultivate no more land than maintains themselves, and their gardens and summer-houses fill up the circuit of their most flourishing cities. The most judicious travellers, upon an attentive survey of those countries, fully vindicate all that has been said by sacred and profane writers of their beauty, strength, fertility, and population. Even Palestine and Judæa, the most despicable at present of all those countries, lie buried within the luxuries of their own soil. The Turks seem particularly fond of representing it in the most dreadful colours, and have formed a thousand falsehoods concerning it, which being artfully propagated by some among ourselves, have imposed upon weak Christians ‡.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] These objects are little attended to in the Turkish dominions. The nature of their government destroys that happy security which is the mother of arts, industry, and commerce; and such is the debasement of the human mind, when borne down by tyranny and oppression, that all the great advantages of commerce, which nature has as it were thrown under the feet of the inhabitants by their situation, are here totally neglected. The advantages of Tyre, Sidon, Alexandria, and all those countries which carried on the commerce of the ancient world, are overlooked. The Turks command the navigation of the Red Sea, which opens a communication to the southern ocean, and presents them with all the riches of the Indies.

* Ezek. chap. xvi. 5.

† Bruce's Travels, vol. 1. Introduction, p. lix.

‡ The late reverend Dr. Shaw, professor of Greek at Oxford, who seems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the soundest philosophy to make the most just observations, says, that, were the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very best parts of Syria and Phœnicia, because the soil is generally much richer, and, every thing considered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barrenness, says he, of which some authors complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulness of the country, but from the want of the inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who possess it, and the perpetual discords and depredations of the petty princes who share this fine country. Indeed, the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Palestine," says Mr. Wood, "we have often seen the husbandmen sowing, accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the seed." And, after all, whoever sows, is uncertain whether he shall ever reap the harvest.

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Whoever looks on a map of Turkey, must admire the situation of their capital, upon a narrow strait that separates Europe from Asia, and communicates on the south with the Mediterranean sea, thereby opening a passage to all the European nations as well as the coast of Africa. The same strait, communicating northwards with the Black Sea, opens a passage, by means of the Danube and other great rivers, into the interior parts of Germany, Poland, and Russia.

In this extensive empire, where all the commodities necessary for the largest plan of industry and commerce are produced, the Turks content themselves with manufacturing cottons, carpets, leather, and soap. The most valuable of their commodities, such as silk, a variety of drugs, and dying stuffs, they generally export without giving them much additional value from their own labour. The internal commerce of the empire is extremely small, and managed entirely by Jews and Armenians. In their traffic with Europe, the Turks are altogether passive. The English, French, Dutch, and other Europeans, resort hither with their commodities, and bring back those of Turkey in the same bottoms. They seldom attempt any distant voyages, and are possessed of only a few coasting vessels in the Asiatic Turkey, their chief royal navy lying on the side of Europe. The inattention of the Turks to objects of commerce is perhaps the best security to their government. The balance of power established among the princes of Europe, and their jealousies of one another, secure to the Turks the possession of countries which, in the hands of the Russians, or any active state, might endanger the commerce of their neighbours, especially their trade with India.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Turkish government is commonly exhibited as a picture of all that is shocking and unnatural in arbitrary power. But from the late accounts of sir James Porter, who resided at the Porte, in quality of ambassador from his Britannic majesty, it appears, that the rigours of that despotic government are considerably moderated by the power of religion. For though in this empire there is no hereditary succession to property, the rights of individuals may be rendered fixed and secure, by being annexed to the church, which is done at an inconsiderable expense. Even Jews and Christians may in this manner secure the enjoyment of their lands to the latest posterity; and so sacred and inviolable has this law been held, that there is no instance of an attempt on the side of the prince to trespass or reverse it. Neither does the observance of this institution altogether depend on the superstition of the sultan; he knows that any attempt to violate it would shake the foundations of his throne, which is solely supported by the laws of religion. Were he to transgress these laws, he would become an infidel, and cease to be the lawful sovereign. The same observation extends to all the rules laid down in the Koran, which was designed by Mahomet both as a political code and as a religious system. The laws there enacted, having all the force of religious prejudices to support them, are inviolable; and by them the civil rights of the Mahometans are regulated. Even the comments on this book, which explain the law where it is obscure, or extend and complete what Mahomet had left imperfect, are conceived to be of equal validity with the first institutions of the prophet: and no member of the society, however powerful, can transgress them without censure, or violate them without punishment.

The Asiatic Turks, or rather subjects of the Turkish empire, who hold their possessions by a kind of military tenure, on condition of their serving in the field with a particular number of men, think themselves,

while they perform that agreement, almost independent of the emperor, who seldom calls for the head or the estate of a subject, who is not an immediate servant of the court. The most unhappy subjects of the Turkish government are those who approach the highest dignities of state, and whose fortunes are constantly exposed to sudden alterations, and depend on the breath of their master. There is a gradation of great officers in Turkey, of whom the visier, or prime minister; the *chiaja*, second in power to the visier; the *reis-essendi*, or secretary of state, and the *aga* of the janfaries, are the most considerable. These, as well as the *mufti*, or high priest, the *bashaws* or governors of provinces, the civil judges, and many others, are commonly raised, by their application and assiduity, from the meanest stations in life, and are often the children of Tartar or Christian slaves taken in war. Tutored in the school of adversity, and arriving at pre-eminence through a thousand difficulties and dangers, these men are generally as distinguished for abilities, as deficient in virtue. They possess all the dissimulation, intrigue, and corruption, which often accompanies ambition in a humble rank, and they have a farther reason for plundering the people, because they are uncertain how long they may possess the dignities to which they have attained. The administration of justice, therefore, is extremely corrupt over the whole empire; but this proceeds from the manners of the judges, and not from the laws of the kingdom, which are founded upon very equitable principles.

REVENUES.] The riches drawn from the various provinces of this empire must be immense. The revenues arise from the customs, and a variety of taxes which fall chiefly on the Christians, and other subjects, not of the Mahometan religion. The rich pay a capitation tax of thirty shillings a year; tradesmen fifteen shillings, and common labourers six shillings and ten-pence halfpenny. Another branch of the revenue arises from the annual tribute paid by the Tartars, and other nations bordering upon Turkey, but governed by their own princes and laws. All these, however, are trifling, when compared with the vast sums extorted from the governors of provinces, and officers of state, under the name of *resents*. These harpies, to indemnify themselves, as we have already observed, exercise every species of oppression that their avarice can suggest, till, becoming wealthy from the vitals of the countries and people they are sent to govern, their riches frequently give rise to a pretended suspicion of disloyalty or misconduct, and the whole fortune of the offender devolves to the crown. The devoted victim is seldom acquainted with the nature of the offence, or the names of his accusers; but, without giving him the least opportunity of making a defence, an officer is dispatched, with an imperial decree, to take off his head. The unhappy *bashaw* receives it with the highest respect, putting it on his head, and after he has read it, says, "*The will of God and the emperor be done,*" or some such expression, testifying his entire resignation to the will of his prince. Then he takes the silken cord, which the officer has ready in his bosom, and having tied it about his own neck, and said a short prayer, the officer's servants throw him on the floor, and drawing the cord tight, soon dispatch him; after which his head is cut off, and carried to court.

FORCES.] The militia of the Turkish empire is of two sorts: the first have certain lands appointed for their maintenance, and the other is paid out of the treasury. Those that have certain lands, amount to about 268,000 effective men. Besides these, there are also certain auxiliary forces raised by the tributary countries of this empire; as the

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Tartars, Walachians, Moldavians, and, till of late, the Georgians, who are commanded by their respective princes. The Khan of the Crimean Tartars, before his country was subjected to Russia, was obliged to furnish 100,000 men, and to serve in person, when the grand signor took the field. In every war, besides the above forces, there are great numbers of volunteers, who live at their own charge, in expectation of succeeding the officers. These adventurers do not only promise themselves an estate if they survive, but are taught, that if they die in war against the Christians, they shall go immediately to Paradise. The forces, which receive their pay from the treasury, are called the spahis, or horse-guards, and are in number about 12,000; and the janisaries, or foot-guards, who are esteemed the best soldiers in the Turkish armies, and on whom they principally depend in an engagement. These amount to about 25,000 men, who are quartered in and near Constantinople. They frequently grow mutinous, and have proceeded so far sometimes as to depose the sultan. They are educated in the seraglio, and trained up to the exercise of arms from their infancy; and there are not less than 100,000 foot soldiers, scattered over every province of the empire, who procure themselves to be registered in this body, to enjoy the privileges of janisaries, which are very great, being subject to no jurisdiction but that of their aga, or chief commander.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The emperor's titles are swelled with all the pomp of eastern magnificence. He is styled by his subjects, *the Shadow of God, a God on earth, Brother to the Sun and Moon, Disposer of all earthly Crowns, &c.* The grand signor's arms are, vert, a crescent, argent, crested with a turban, charged with three black plumes of heron's quills, with this motto, *Donec totum impleat orbem.*

COURT AND SERAGLIO.] Great care is taken in the education of the youths, who are designed for the state, the army, or the navy; but they are seldom preferred till about forty years of age, and they rise by their merit. They are generally the children of Christian parents, either taken in war, purchased, or presents from the viceroys and governors of distant provinces, the most beautiful, well made, and sprightly children that can be met with, and are always reviewed and approved of by the grand signor, before they are sent to the colleges or seminaries, where they are educated for employments according to their genius or abilities.

The ladies of the seraglio are a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly sent as presents from the provinces and the Greek islands, most of them the children of Christian parents. The brave prince Heraclius, some years since, abolished the infamous tribute of children of both sexes, which Georgia formerly paid every year to the Porte. The number of women in the harem depends on the taste of the reigning monarch. Sultan Selim had two thousand. Achmet had but three hundred, and the present sultan has nearly 1600. On their admission, they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught to sew and embroider, music, dancing, and other accomplishments, and furnished with the best clothes and ornaments. They all sleep in separate beds, and between every fifth there is a preceptress. Their chief governess is called *Katn Kiaja*, or governess of the noble young ladies. There is one servant among them, for they are obliged to wait on one another by rotation: the last that is entered, serves her who preceded her, herself. These ladies are scarcely ever suffered to go abroad, except when the grand signor removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats, which are enclosed

with lattices and linen curtains; and when they go by land, they are put into close chariots, and signals are made at certain distances, to give notice that none approach the roads through which they march. Among the emperor's attendants are a number of mutes, who act and converse by signs with great quickness; and some dwarfs, who are exhibited for the diversion of his majesty.

ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF THE TURKS. It has been the fate of the more southern and fertile parts of Asia, at different periods, to be conquered by that warlike and hardy race of men, who inhabit the vast country, known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary. One tribe of these people, called Turks or Turcomans, which name signifies *wanderers*, extended its conquests under various leaders and during several centuries, from the shore of the Caspian, to the straits of the Dardanelles. Being long resident, in the capacity of body-guards, about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrine of Mahomet, and acted for a long time as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief residence was in the neighbourhood of mount Caucasus, from whence they removed to Armenia Major, and after being employed as mercenaries by the sultans of Persia, they seized that kingdom, about the year 1037, and spread their ravages over all the neighbouring countries. Bound by their religion to make converts to Mahometanism, they never were without a pretence for invading and ravaging the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were sometimes commanded by very able generals. Upon the declension of the Caliphate or empire of the Saracens, they made themselves masters of Palestine; and the visiting of the holy city of Jerusalem being then part of the Christian exercises, in which they had been tolerated by the Saracens, the Turks laid the European pilgrims under such heavy contributions, and exercised such horrible cruelties upon the Christian inhabitants of the country, as gave rise to the famous crusades, which we have mentioned more fully in the introduction.

It unfortunately happened, that the Greek emperors were generally more jealous of the progress of the Christians than the Turks; and though, after oceans of blood were spilt, a Christian kingdom was erected at Jerusalem, under Godfrey of Boulogne, neither he nor his successors were possessed of any real power of maintaining it. The Turks about the year 1229, had extended their dominions on every side, and possessed themselves, under Othman, of some of the finest provinces in Asia, of Nice, and Prusa in Bithynia, which Othman made his capital, and, as it were, first embodied them into a nation; hence they took the name of Othmans from that leader; the appellation of Turks, as signifies in the original, *wanderers*, or *banished men*, being considered by them as a term of reproach. Othman is to be styled the founder of the Turkish empire, and was succeeded by a race of the most warlike princes that are mentioned in history. About the year 1357, they passed the Hellespont, and got a footing in Europe, and Amurath settled the seat of his empire at Adrianople, which he took in the year 1369, under him the order of janisaries was established. Such were the conquests, that Bajazet I. after conquering Bulgaria, and defeating the Greek emperor Sigismund, laid siege to Constantinople, in hopes of subjecting all the Greek empire. His greatness and insolence provoked Tamerlane, a Tartarian prince, who was just then returned from his eastern conquests, to declare war against him. A decisive battle was fought between those rival conquerors, in Natolia, in the plain which

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Pompey defeated Mithridates, when Bajazet's army was cut in pieces, and he himself taken prisoner, and shut up in an iron cage, where he ended his life.

The successors of Tamerlane, by declaring war against one another, left the Turks more powerful than ever; and though their career was checked by the valour of the Venetians, Hungarians, and the famous Scanderbeg, a prince of Epirus, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; and, after a long siege, Mahomet II. took Constantinople, in 1453. Thus, after an existence of ten centuries, from its first commencement under Constantine the Great, ended the Greek empire: an event which had been long foreseen, and was owing to many causes; the chief was the total degeneracy of the Greek emperors themselves, their courts and families; and the dislike their subjects had to the popes, and the western church; one of the patriarchs declaring publicly to a Romish legate, "that he would rather see a turban than the pope's tiara upon the great altar of Constantinople." But as the Turks, when they extended their conquests, did not exterminate, but reduced the nations to subjection, the remains of the ancient Greeks still exist, as we have already observed, particularly in Constantinople, and the neighbouring islands, where, though under grievous oppressions, they profess Christianity under their own patriarchs of Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem; and the Armenians have three patriarchs, who are richer than those of the Greek church, on account of their people being richer and more conversant in trade. It is said that the modern Greeks, though pining under the tyrannical yoke of the Turkish government, still preserve somewhat of the exterior appearance, though nothing of the internal principles, which distinguished their ancestors.

The conquest of Constantinople was followed by the submission of all Greece: and from this time the Turks have been looked upon as an European power.

Mahomet died in 1481, and was succeeded by Bajazet II. who carried on war against the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as the Persians and Egyptians. Bajazet falling ill of the gout, became indolent, was harassed by family differences, and at last, by order of his second son, Selim, he was poisoned by a Jew physician. Selim afterwards ordered his eldest brother, Achmet, to be strangled, with many other princes of the Othman race. He defeated the Persians and the prince of Mount Taurus; but being unable to penetrate into Persia, he turned his arms against Egypt, which, after many bloody battles, he annexed to his own dominions, in the year 1517, as he did Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damascus, Gaza, and many other towns.

He was succeeded in 1520, by his son, Soliman the Magnificent; who, taking advantage of the differences which prevailed among the Christian powers, took Rhodes, and drove the knights from that island, to Malta, which was given them by the emperor, Charles V. The reign of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the Christian powers, and generally successful, both by sea and land. He took Buda, the metropolis of Hungary at that time, and Belgrade, and carried off near 200,000 captives, A. D. 1526, and two years afterwards advanced into Austria, and besieged Vienna, but retired on the approach of Charles V. He miscarried also in an attempt he made to take the isle of Malta. This Soliman is looked upon as the greatest prince that ever filled the throne of Othman.

He was succeeded, in 1566, by his son Selim II. In his reign, the

Turkish marine received an irrecoverable blow from the Christians, in the battle of Lepanto. This defeat might have proved fatal to the Turkish power, had the blow been pursued by the Christians, especially the Spaniards. Selim, however, took Cyprus from the Venetians, and Tunis in Africa, from the Moors; he was succeeded, in 1557, by his son, Amurath III. who forced the Persians to cede Tauris, Teflis, and many other cities, to the Turks. He likewise took the important fortress of Raab, in Hungary; and in 1593, he was succeeded by Mahomet III. The memory of this prince is distinguished by his ordering nineteen of his brothers to be strangled, and ten of his father's concubines, who were supposed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the sea. He was often unsuccessful in his wars with the Christians, and died of the plague in 1604. Though his successor, Achmet, was beaten by the Persians, yet he forced the Austrians to a treaty in 1606, and to consent that he should keep what he was possessed of in Hungary. Osman, a prince of great spirit, but no more than sixteen years of age, being unsuccessful against the Poles, was put to death by the janisaries, whose power he intended to have reduced. Morad IV. succeeded in 1623, and took Bagdad from the Persians. His brother, Ibrahim, succeeded him in 1640; a worthless inactive prince, and strangled by the janisaries in 1648. His successor, Mahomet IV. was excellently well served by his grand visier, Cuperli. He took Candia from the Venetians, after it had been besieged for thirty years. This conquest cost the Venetians, and their allies, 80,000 men, and the Turks, it is said, 180,000. A bloody war succeeded between the Imperialists and the Turks, in which the latter were so successful, that they laid siege to Vienna, but were forced (as has been already mentioned) to raise it with great loss, by John Sobieski, king of Poland, and other Christian generals. Mahomet was, in 1687, shut up in prison by his subjects, and succeeded by his brother, Soliman II.

The Turks continued unsuccessful in their wars during his reign, and that of his brother and successor, Achmet I. but Mustapha II. who mounted the throne in 1694, headed his armies in person. After some brisk campaigns, he was defeated by prince Eugene; and the peace of Carlowitz, between the Imperialists and Turks, was concluded in 1699. Soon after, Mustapha was deposed, his musti was beheaded, and his brother, Achmet III. mounted the throne. He was the prince who gave shelter at Bender, to Charles XII. of Sweden; and ended a war with the Russians, by a peace concluded at Pruth. When the Russian army was surrounded without hopes of escape, the czarina inclined the grand visier to the peace, by a present of all the money, plate, and jewels, that were in the army; but the Russians delivered up to the Turks Asoph, Kamineck, and Taiganrog, and agreed to evacuate Poland. He had afterwards a war with the Venetians, which alarmed all the Christian powers. The scene of action was transferred to Hungary, where the Imperial general, prince Eugene, gave so many repeated defeats to the infidels, that they were forced to conclude a disgraceful peace at Passarowitz, in 1718. An unfortunate war with the Persians, under Kouli Khan, succeeding, the populace demanded the heads of the visier, the chief admiral, and secretary, which were accordingly struck off; but the sultan also was deposed, and Mahomet V. advanced to the throne. He was unsuccessful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at last obliged to recognise that usurper as king of Persia. He was, after that, engaged in a war with the Imperialists and Russians; against the former he was victorious; but the successes of the latter, which three

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ened Constantinople itself, forced him to agree to a hasty treaty with the emperor, and after that, another with the Russians, which was greatly to his advantage. Mahomet died 1754.

He was succeeded by his brother, Osman III. who died in 1757, and was succeeded by his brother Mustapha III. who died on the 21st of January, 1774, whilst engaged in an unsuccessful war with the Russians, of which some account has been already given in the history of that country. In the course of this war, a considerable Russian fleet was fitted out, which set sail from the Baltic, with a view of attacking the remote parts of the Archipelago. This fleet having arrived at Minorca, departed from thence in the beginning of February, 1770, and shaped its course for the Morea. Count Orlov having debarked such land forces as he had with him at Malva, which lies a little to the westward of cape Metapan, and about 50 miles to the south west of Mistra, the ancient Sparta; the Mainotes, the descendants of the Lacedæmonians, and who still possessed the country of their ancestors, under subjection to the grand signor, immediately flew to their arms in every quarter, and joined the Russians by thousands, from their aversion to the tyranny of the Turks. The other Greeks immediately followed their example, or rather only waited to hear of the arrival of the Russians, to do what they had long intended; and the whole Morea seemed every where in motion. The open country was quickly overrun, and Mistra, Arcadia, and several other places, as speedily taken, while the Russian ships, that had been separated, or that put into Italy, arrived successively, and landed their men in different quarters, where every small detachment soon swelled into a little army, and the Turks were every where attacked or intercepted. In the mean time, the Greeks gave the utmost loose to their revenge; and every where slaughtered the Turks without mercy; and the rage and fury with which the inhabitants of the continent were seized, extended itself to the islands; where also the Turks were massacred in great numbers. They were, indeed, unable to make head against the Russians and Greeks in the field; their only protection was found within the fortresses. The malcontents had so much increased since the first debarkation of the Russians, that they invested Napoli di Romania, Corinth, and the castle of Patras, with several other places of less note. But whilst they were employed in these enterprises, an army of thirty thousand men, composed chiefly of Albanians, and Epirotes, entered the Morea, commanded by Seraskier, Bakhaw of Bosnia. This Turkish general recovered all the northern part of the peninsula as soon as he appeared in it; and all the Greeks that were found in arms or out of their villages, were instantly put to death. The Russians were now driven back to their ships; but about the same time, another Russian squadron, commanded by admiral Elphinstone, arrived from England to re-inforce count Orlov's armament. The Turkish fleet also appeared, and an obstinate engagement was fought in the channel of Scio, which divides that island from Natolia, or the Lesser Asia. The Turkish fleet was considerably superior in force, consisting of fifteen ships of the line, from sixty to ninety guns, besides a number of chebeques and galleys, amounting in the whole to near thirty sail; the Russians had only ten ships of the line, and five frigates. Some of the ships engaged with great resolution, while others on both sides found various causes for not approaching sufficiently near. But Spiritoz, a Russian admiral, encountered the captain Pacha, the Sultana, of ninety guns, yard arm and yard arm; they fought with the greatest fury, and at length ran so close, that they locked

themselves together, with grappling-irons and other tackling. In this situation, the Russians, by throwing hand-grenades from the tops, set the Turkish ship on fire, and as they could not now be disentangled, both ships were in a little time equally in flames. Thus dreadfully circumstanced without a possibility of succour, they both at length blew up with a most terrible explosion. The commanders and principal officers on both sides were mostly saved; but the crews were almost totally lost. The dreadful fate of those ships, as well as the danger to those that were near them, produced a kind of pause on both sides; after which the action was renewed, and continued till night without any material advantage on either side. When it became dark, the Turkish fleet cut their cables, and ran into a bay on the coast of Natolia; the Russians surrounded them thus closely pent up, and in the night some fire-ships were successfully conveyed among the Turkish fleet, by the intrepid behaviour of lieutenant Dugdale, an Englishman in the Russian service, who, though abandoned by his crew, himself directed the operations of the fire-ships. The fire took place so effectually, that in five hours the whole fleet, except one man of war and a few galleys, that were towed off by the Russians, was totally destroyed; after which they entered the harbour, and bombarded and cannonaded the town, and a castle that protected it, with such success, that a shot having blown up the powder-magazine in the latter, both were reduced to a heap of rubbish. Thus was there scarcely a vestige left, at nine o'clock, of a town, a castle, and a fine fleet, which had been all in existence at one the same morning.

Some of the principal military transactions by land, in the war between Russia and Turkey, having been already noticed in our account of the former empire, we shall here only add, that after a most unfortunate war on the side of the Turks, peace was at length concluded between them and the Russians, on the 21st of July, 1774, a few months after the accession of Achmet IV. The emperor, Mustapha III. left a son, then only in his 13th year; but as he was too young to manage the reins of government in the then critical situation of the Turkish affairs, Mustapha appointed his brother, the late emperor, to succeed him in the throne; and to this prince, under the strongest terms of recommendation, he confided the care of his infant son.

The perseverance of the Turks, supplied by their numerous Asiatic armies, and their implicit submission to their officers, rather than an excellency in military discipline or courage in war, have been the great springs of those successes which have rendered their empire so formidable. The extension, as well as duration of their empire, may indeed be in some measure owing to the military institution of the janisaries, a corps originally composed of children of such Christian parents as could not pay their taxes. These being collected together, were formed to the exercise of arms under the eyes of their officers in the seraglio. They were generally in number about 40,000; and so excellent was their discipline, that they were deemed to be invincible; and they still continue the flower of the Turkish armies; but the Ottoman power is in a declining state. The political state of Europe, and the jealousies that subsist among its princes, is now the surest basis of this empire, and the principal reason why the finest provinces in the world are suffered to remain any longer in the possession of these haughty infidels.

Notwithstanding the peace which was established in 1774, between Russia and the Porte, various sources of discord having been left open,

very little tranquillity could subsist between them. For an account of these we refer our readers to our historical narrative of the former empire. Towards the latter end of the year 1786, the Turks seem to have adopted a regular system of indirect hostility against Russia, who was continually making such encroachments, as made the Turks resolve to tempt again the fortune of war. Scarcely had the empress returned from the splendid journey which she made to Constantinople, before a declaration of Turkish hostilities was announced at Petersburg. What part the emperor of Germany would take in this war was not at first known. The capriciousness of his character kept the spirit of curiosity in suspense for some little time; but he soon declared himself determined to support all the claims which Russia had upon the Porte.

Instead of being disheartened at the formidableness of the confederacy that had broken out against them, the Turks applied themselves with redoubled ardour to prepare for resistance. But an event that seems greatly to have contributed to the bad success experienced by the crescent in the year 1789, was the death of Achmet the Fourth, grand signor, on the 7th of April.

This prince, if we make suitable allowances for the disadvantages under which he laboured as a despotic monarch, and the prejudices of his country, may be allowed to possess some claim to our esteem. He filled the throne of Constantinople without reflecting disgrace upon human nature. His temper appears to have been mild and humane. He not only permitted Selim, his nephew, son of the late emperor, to live, but even publicly acknowledged him for his successor. His reign was not stained with so many arbitrary murders as those of his predecessors; nor did he think it at all necessary that a disgraced minister should part at once with his office and his life. He suffered his countrymen to improve by the arts and military discipline of Europe. Yssof, his prime minister, during the last three years of his life, though by no means consistently great, must be allowed to deserve our applause, and will be better known to posterity as the patron of the Turkish translation of the Encyclopædie, than as the victorious and skilful rival of the Austrian arms in the Bannat of Transylvania.

Achmet died at the unenterprising age of sixty-four, and Selim the Third succeeded, at twenty-eight. In the vigour of youth, he thought it necessary to distinguish himself by something extraordinary, and at first purposed to put himself at the head of his forces. He was easily, as might be expected from his effeminate education, dissuaded from this rash and ridiculous project. But he conceived that at least it became him to discountenance the ministers of his predecessor, to confound their plans, and reverse all their proceedings. These ministers had acquired in some degree the confidence of those who acted under their command; and it appeared in the sequel that the fantastic splendour of a new and juvenile sovereign could not compensate for the capricious and arbitrary changes with which his accession was accompanied.

In the year 1788 Choczim and Oczakow surrendered to the arms of Russia, as will be found in the history of that country; and on the 12th of September, 1789, the Austrian forces sat down before Belgrade, and with that good fortune which seemed almost constantly to attend their commander, marshal Laudohn. The place, together with its numerous garrison, surrendered, after a vigorous resistance, on the 8th of October. The rest of the campaign was little else than a succession of the most important successes; and a circumstance that did not a little contribute to this, was the system adopted by the Austrians and Russians,

of suffering the Turkish troops to march, but of the several places they garrisoned without molestation. Bucharest, the capital of Wallachia, fell without opposition into the hands of prince Cobourg; while Akerman, on the Black Sea, was reduced by the Russians; and Bender surrendered to prince Potomkin, not without insinuation of sinister practices, on the 13th of November. One only check presented itself to the allied arms. The garrison of Orsova displayed the most inflexible constancy; and marshal Laudohn was obliged to raise the siege of this place in the middle of December, after having sat down before it for a period of six weeks. In a short time after, the siege was renewed, and Orsova was reduced the 16th of April, 1790.

After the reduction of Orsova, the war was carried on with languor on the part of Austria; and in the month of June a conference was agreed upon at Reichenbach, at which the ministers of Prussia, Austria, England, and the United Provinces assisted; and at which also an envoy from Poland was occasionally present. After a negotiation, which continued till the 17th of August, it was agreed that a peace should be concluded between the king of Hungary and the Ottoman Porte; that the basis of this treaty should be a general surrender of all the conquests made by the former, retaining only Choczim as a security till the Porte should accede to the terms of the agreement, when it was also to be restored. On the other hand, the king of Prussia gave up the Belgic provinces, and even promised his assistance in reducing them to the Austrian dominions.

The king of Prussia was less successful in his mediation with Russia. Catharine had not, like Leopold, an imperial crown at stake, which, unsubstantial as it is, has always its charms with those who are educated in the habitual adoration of rank and dignities. Her conquests also, on the side of Turkey, were too important to be easily relinquished; and she considered her dignity attacked by the insolent style of Prussian mediation. The substance of her answer to the Prussian memorial was therefore, "The empress of Russia would make peace and war with whom she pleased, without the interference of any foreign power."

The campaign of 1791 opened, on the part of Russia, with the taking of Maczin, on the 4th of April, by prince Gallitzin; and in a subsequent victory, on the 12th, by the same general, in the neighbourhood of Brailow, the Turks lost not less than 4000 men, and upwards of 100 officers, besides many pieces of cannon. On the 14th the Russian arms experienced a check, by which they lost about 700 men, and were obliged to relinquish their intention of besieging Brailow. After re-inforcing this place, the visier proceeded to the banks of the Danube, near Silistria; and by means of a bridge, which he threw across the river, his advanced posts were enabled to make incursions on the opposite side. The ability of the visier, and the valour of the Turks, were however exerted in vain against the discipline and experience of European armies. In the month of June, 15,000 Turks were defeated by a party of cavalry under general Kutufow. On the 3d of July, the fortress of Anapæ was taken by general Gudowitsch; and the garrison, to the amount of 6,300 men, made prisoners. This event was followed on the 9th of the same month by a signal victory which prince Repnin obtained near Maczin over a body of 70,000 men, the flower of the Turkish army. The Ottomans left upwards of 4000 dead upon the field of battle, and lost their entire camp, equipage, colours, and 30

pieces of cannon: The Russians are said to have lost only 130 men killed, and between 200 and 300 wounded. While the war was thus vigorously carried on, the mediating powers were not inactive: Great Britain and Prussia, in particular, declared themselves determined to support the balance of Europe, and to force the empress to peace upon the basis of *status quo*. Of the interference of Britain in this dispute, we have treated more largely in another place. To the first applications of the English minister, the empress answered in nearly the same terms in which she had before replied to the memorial of Prussia — "That the British court would not be permitted to dictate the terms of peace." In the course of the negotiation, however, her demands became more moderate: and as the northern powers, and particularly Denmark, began to exert themselves for the prevention of hostilities, she confined her views to the possession of Oczakow, with the district extending from the Bog to the Neister, and even then providing for the free navigation of the latter river. The negotiation was protracted to the 11th of August, when at length peace was concluded between the czarina and the Porte, nearly upon these terms — terms which, considering the ill success of the war, cannot be accounted very disadvantageous to the Turks, who have lost a fortress more useful for the purpose of annoying Russia, than for defending their own territories; but certainly of considerable importance to Russia, which, by this cession, has secured the peaceable possession of the Crimea.

It is computed that in the last war Turkey lost 200,000 soldiers; Russia, 100,000; the Austrians, who fell in battle, or in the unhealthy marshes, are supposed to exceed 130,000. Selim III. grand signor, born in 1761, succeeded to the throne of Turkey, on the death of his uncle, the late sultan, April 7, 1789.

TARTARY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Degrees.

Length 4000

Breadth 2400

between

{ 50 and 150 east longitude.

{ 30 and 72 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] It would be deceiving the reader to desire him to depend upon the accounts given us by geographers, of the extent, limits, and situation of these vast regions. Even the empress of Russia and her ministry are ignorant of her precise limits with the Chinese, the Persians, and other nations. Tartary, taken in its fullest extent, is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the North; by the Pacific Ocean on the East; by China, India, Persia, and the Caspian Sea, on the South; and by Muscovy on the West.

Grand divisions. Subdivisions. Chief towns.

North-east division

{ Kamtschatka Tartars }
{ Jakutskoi Tartars }

{ Kamtschatka }
{ Jakutskoi }

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Grand divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
South-east division	Pratki	Pratki	985,386
	Thibet and Mogul	Thibet	
	Tartars	Poion	
North-west division	Samoieda	Mangafia	
	Ostiak	Kortskoi	
South-west division	Circassian and Astracan Tartary	Astracan	
	Siberia	Tobolsk	
Middle division	Kalmuc Tartary	Bocharia	850,000
	Uzbek Tartary	Samarcand	339,840

Kamtshatka is a great peninsula, which extends from north to south about seven degrees thirty minutes. It is divided into four districts, Bolcheresk, Tigilskaja Krepost, Verchnei or Upper Kamtshatkoi Ostrog, and Nishnei or Lower Kamtshatkoi Ostrog.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains are Caucasus in Circassia, and the mountains of Taurus and Ararat, so contiguous to it, that they appear like a continuation of the same mountain, which crosses all Asia from Mongolia to the Indies; and the mountains of Stolp, in the North.

SEAS.] These are the Frozen Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, and the Caspian Sea.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a course of two thousand miles; the Oby, which divides Asia from Europe; the Tobol, Irtis, Geneva or Jenksa; the Burrumpooter; the Lena, and the Argun, which divides the Russian and Chinese empires.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this country is very different, by reason of its vast extent from north to south; the northern parts reaching beyond the arctic polar circle, and the southern being in the same latitude with Spain, France, Italy, and part of Turkey.

Nova Zembla and Russian Lapland are most uncomfortable regions; the earth, which is covered with snow nine months in the year, being extremely barren, and every where incumbered with unwholesome marshes, uninhabited mountains, and impenetrable thickneses. The climate of Siberia is cold, but the air is pure and wholesome; and Mr. Took observes, that its inhabitants, in all probability, would live to an extreme old age, if they were not so much addicted to an immoderate use of intoxicating liquors. Siberia produces rye, oats, and barley, almost to the both degree of northern latitude. Cabbages, radishes, turnips, and cucumbers, thrive here tolerably well; but scarcely any other greens. All experiments to bring fruit-trees to bear have hitherto been in vain: but there is reason to believe that industry and patience may at length overcome the rudeness of the climate. Currants and strawberries of several sorts are said to grow here in as great perfection as in the English gardens. Herbs, as well medicinal as common, together with various edible roots, are found very generally here: but there are no bees in all Siberia. Astracan, and the southern parts of Tartary, are extremely fertile, owing more to nature than industry. The parts that are cultivated produce excellent fruits of almost all the kinds known in Europe, especially grapes, which are reckoned the largest and finest in the world. The summers are very dry, and from

the end of July to the beginning of October, the air is pestered, and the soil sometimes ruined, by incredible quantities of locusts. Mr. Bell, who travelled with the Russian ambassador to China, represents some parts of Tartary as desirable and fertile countries, the grass growing spontaneously to an amazing height. The country of Thibet is the highest in Asia, and is a part of that elevated tract which gives rise to the rivers of India and China, and those of Siberia, and other parts of Tartary.

METALS AND MINERALS.] It is said that Siberia contains mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, jasper, lapis lazuli, and loadstones; a sort of large teeth found here, have occasioned dispute among naturalists, whether they belong to elephants, or fishes.

ANIMALS.] These are camels, dromedaries, bears, wolves, and all the other land and amphibious animals that are common in the northern parts of Europe. Their horses are of a good size for the saddle, and very hardy: as they run wild till they are five or six years old, they are generally headstrong. Near Astracan, there is a bird called by the Russians baba, of a grey colour, and something larger than a swan: he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart, or more; he wades near the edge of a river, and on seeing a shoal or fry of small fishes, spreads his wings and drives them to a shallow, where he gobbles as many of them as he can into his bag, and then going ashore, eats them, or carries them to his young. Some travellers take this bird to be the pelican.

The forests of Siberia are well stocked with a variety of animals, some of which are not to be found in other countries. These supply the inhabitants with food and clothes; and, at the same time, furnish them with commodities for an advantageous trade. Siberia may be considered as the native country of black foxes, sables, and ermines, the skins of which are here superior to those of any part of the world. Horses and cattle are in great plenty, and sold at low prices. The bos grunniens of Linnæus, or grunting ox, which inhabits Tartary and Thibet, has a tail of uncommon beauty, full and flowing, of a glossy and silky texture. These tails are a considerable article of exportation from Thibet. The Indians fasten small bundles of the hair to a handle, which they use for fly-flaps; the Chinese dye tufts of it with a beautiful scarlet, to decorate their caps, and the Turks employ it as ornaments to their standards, by some erroneously called horse-tails.

PEOPLE, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, RECREATIONS, AND DRESS.] We can form no probable conjecture as to the number of the inhabitants in Tartary; but from many circumstances we must conclude, that they are far from being proportioned to the extent of their country. They are in general strong-made stout men; their faces broad, their noses flattish, their eyes small and black, but very quick; their beards are scarcely visible, as they continually thin them by pulling up the hairs by the roots. The beauty of the Circassian women is a kind of staple commodity in that country; for parents there make no scruple of selling their daughters to recruit the seraglios of the great men of Turkey and Persia. They are purchased when young, by merchants, and taught such accomplishments as suit their capacities, to render them more valuable against the day of sale. The Tartars are, in general, a wandering sort of people. In their peregrinations they set out in the spring, their number in one body being frequently 10,000, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they come to an inviting spot, they live upon it till all its grass and verdure

is eaten up. They have little money, except what they get from their neighbours the Russians, Persians, or Turks, in exchange for cattle; with this they purchase cloth, silks, stuffs, and other apparel for their women. They have few mechanics, except those who make arms. They avoid all labour, as the greatest slavery; their only employment is tending their flocks, hunting, and managing their horses. If they are angry with a person, they wish he may live in one fixed place, and work like a Russian. Among themselves, they are very hospitable, and wonderfully so to the strangers and travellers who confidentially put themselves under their protection. They are naturally of an easy, cheerful temper, always disposed to laughter, and seldom depressed by care or melancholy. There is a strong resemblance between the northern and independent Tartars, and some nations of Canada, in North America; particularly, when any of their people are infirm through great age, or seized with distempers reckoned incurable, they make a small hut for the patient near some river, in which they leave him with some provisions, and seldom or never return to visit him. On such occasions, they say they do their parents a good office in sending them to a better world. Notwithstanding this behaviour, many nations of the Tartars, especially towards the South, are tractable, humane, and are susceptible of pious and virtuous sentiments. Their affection for their fathers, and their submission to their authority, cannot be exceeded; and this noble quality of filial love has distinguished them in all ages. History tells us, that Darius, king of Persia, having invaded them with all the forces of his empire, and the Scythians retiring by little and little, Darius sent an ambassador to demand where it was they proposed to conclude their retreat, and when they intended to begin fighting. They returned for answer, with a spirit so peculiar to that people, "That they had no cities or cultivated fields, for the defence of which they should give him battle: but when once he was come to the place of their fathers' monuments, he should then understand in what manner the Scythians used to fight."

The Tartars are inured to horsemanship from their infancy; they seldom appear on foot. They are dexterous in shooting at a mark, inasmuch that a Tartar, while at full gallop, will split a pole with an arrow, though at a considerable distance. The dress of the men is very simple, and fit for action; it generally consists of a short jacket, with narrow sleeves, made of deer's skin, having the fur outward; trowsers and hose of the same kind of skin, both of one piece, and tight to the limbs. The Tartars live in huts half sunk under ground; they have a fire in the middle, with a hole in the top to let out the smoke, and benches round the fire to sit or lie upon. This seems to be the common method of living among all the northern nations, from Lapland eastward, to the Japanese Ocean. In the extreme northern provinces, during the winter, every family burrows itself, as it were, underground; and we are told, that so sociable are they in their dispositions, that they make subterraneous communications with each other, so that they may be said to live in an invisible city. The Tartars are immoderately fond of horse-flesh, especially if it be young, and a little tainted; which makes their cabbins extremely nauseous. Though horse-flesh be preferred, raw by some northern tribes, the general way of eating it is after it has been smoked and dried. The Tartars purchase their wives with cattle. In their marriages they are not very delicate. Little or no difference is made between the child of a concubine or slave, and that of the wife; but among the heads of tribes, the wife's

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son is always preferred to the succession. After a wife is turned of forty, she is employed in menial duties, as another servant, and as such must attend the young wives who succeed to her place; nor is it uncommon, in some of the more barbarous tribes, for a father to marry his own daughter.

The descendants of the old inhabitants of Siberia are still most of them idolaters. They consist of many nations, entirely different from each other in their manner of living, religion, language, and countenances. But in this they agree, that none of them follow agriculture, which is carried on by some Tartars, and such as are converted to Christianity. A few of them breed cattle, and others follow hunting. The population of Siberia has been much increased since it became a Russian province; for the Russians have founded there a number of towns, fortresses, and villages. Notwithstanding which, it presents but a void and desert view; since, by its extent, it is capable of supporting several millions more than it at present contains. For the manners and customs of the other Tartars belonging to the Russian empire, we refer to our account of that country.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Tartars somewhat resembles their civil government, and is commonly accommodated to that of their neighbours; for it partakes of the Mahometan, the Gentoo, the Greek, and even popish religions. Some of them are the grossest idolaters, and worship little rude images, dressed up in rags. Each has his own deity, with whom they make very free in case of disappointment in any pursuit.

But the religion and government of the kingdom of Thibet and Lassa, a large tract of Tartary, bordering upon China, are the most remarkable, and the most worthy of attention. The Thibetians are governed by the Grand Lama, or Dalai Lama, who is not only submitted to, and adored by them, but is also the great object of adoration among the various tribes of heathen Tartars, who roam through the vast tract of continent which stretches from the banks of the Wolga, to Corea, on the sea of Japan. He is not only the sovereign pontiff, the vicergerent of the Deity on earth; but as superstition is ever the strongest where it is most removed from its object, the more remote Tartars absolutely regard him as the Deity himself. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year they come up from different parts, to worship and make rich offerings at his shrine: even the emperor of China, who is a Manchou Tartar, does not fail in acknowledgements to him in his religious capacity, though the Lama is tributary to him, and actually entertains, at a great expense, in the palace of Peking, an inferior Lama, deputed, as his nuncio, from Thibet. The opinion of those who are reputed the most orthodox among the Thibetians is, that when the Grand Lama seems to die, either of old age or of infirmity, his soul in fact only quits a crazy habitation, to look for another younger or better, and it is discovered again in the body of some child; by certain tokens, known only to the lamas or priests, in which order he always appears. In 1774, the Grand Lama was an infant, which had been discovered some time before by the Tayshoo Lama, who, in authority and sanctity of character, is next to the Grand Lama, and, during his minority, acts as chief. The lamas, who form the most numerous, as well as the most powerful body in the state, have the priesthood entirely in their hands; and, besides, fill up many monastic orders, which are held in great veneration among them. The residence of the Grand Lama is at Patoli, a vast palace on a moun-

tain, near the banks of the Burrumpooter, about seven miles from Lahassa. The English East India company made a treaty with the Lama in 1774. The religion of Thibet, though in many respects it differs from that of the Indian Bramins, yet in others it has a great affinity to it. The Thibetians have a great veneration for the cow, and also highly respect the waters of the Ganges, the source of which they believe to be in heaven. The Sunniassees, or Indian pilgrims, often visit Thibet as a holy place, and the Lama always entertains a body of two or three hundred, in his pay. Besides his religious influence and authority, the Grand Lama is possessed of unlimited power throughout his dominions, which are very extensive, and border on Bengal.

Another religion, which is very prevalent among the Tartars, is that of Schamanism. The professors of this religious sect believe in one Supreme God, the creator of all things. They believe that he loves his creation, and all his creatures; that he knows every thing, and is all-powerful; but that he pays no attention to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend him, or to do any thing that can be meritorious in his sight. But they also maintain that the Supreme Being has divided the government of the world, and the destiny of men, among a great number of subaltern divinities, under his command and control, but who, nevertheless, generally act according to their own fancies; and therefore mankind cannot dispense with using all the means in their power for obtaining their favour. They likewise suppose, that, for the most part, these inferior deities abominate and punish premeditated villany, fraud, and cruelty. They are all firmly persuaded of a future existence; but they have many superstitious notions and practices. Among all the Schamanes, women are considered as being vastly inferior to men, and are thought to have been created only for their sensual pleasure, to people the world, and to look after household affairs; and, in consequence of these principles, they are treated with much severity and contempt.

[LEARNING.] The reader may be surpris'd to find this article in an account of the Tartars; yet nothing is more certain, than that under Zingis Khan and Tamerlane, and their early descendants, Afracan and the neighbouring countries were the seats of learning and politeness, as well as empire and magnificence. Modern luxury, be it ever so splendid, falls short of that of those princes; and some remains of their taste in architecture are still extant, but in spots so desolate, that they are almost inaccessible. The encouragement of learning was the first care of the prince, and it was generally cultivated by his own relations or principal grandees. They wrote in the Persian and Arabic tongues; and their histories, many of which are still extant in manuscript, carry with them the strongest marks of authenticity.

[CURIOSITIES.] These are comprehended in the remains of the buildings, left by the above-mentioned great conquerors and their successors. Remains of ditches and ramparts are frequently met with, which heretofore either surrounded small towns, now quite demolished, or were designed for the defence of camps, forts, or castles, the vestiges of which are often to be discovered. Many of them are still in tolerable preservation. The Slabode, or Tartarian suburb of Kasimof, on the Oha, seems to have been the residence of some khan. In the midst of the ruins of that city, is a round and elevated tower, called, in their language, *Misquir*, a sort of temple, or building, dedicated to devotion. Here are also the remains of the walls of a palace: and in one of the mafarets, or burial places, is a very considerable mausoleum: all which

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califices are built of hewn stone and bricks. From an Arabic inscription we learn, that the khan of Schagali was buried there in the 962d year of the Hegira, or the 1520th of the Christian era. Near mount Caucasus are still very considerable remains of Madchat, a celebrated city of former times. Near Derbent are numerous tombs covered with cylindrical stones, exceeding the usual stature of men, with Arabic inscriptions. In the environs of Astracan the ruins of ancient Astracan are very visible; and the rubbish and ramparts of another respectable town still exist near Tzaritzin, on the left shore of the Wolga. A little below the mouth of the Kama, which empties itself into the above-mentioned river, are many superb monuments of the ancient city Bulgaria, consisting of towers, mosques, houses, and sepulchres, all built of stone or brick. The oldest epitaphs have been there more than eleven centuries, and the most modern at least four hundred years. Not far from hence, on the Tscheremtschan, a little river that runs into the Wolga, are found ruins somewhat more injured by the depredations of time: they are those of Boulmer, an ancient and very considerable city of the Bulgarians. The Tartars have erected upon its ruins the small town of Bilyairik. In the fortress of Kafan is a monument of the ancient Tartarian kingdom of that name. Its lofty walls are so broad, that they serve at present for ramparts; the turrets of which, as well as the old palace of the khan, are built of hewn stone. Ascending the river Kasanha, we meet with epitaphs, and the strong ramparts of the old Kafan. Near the Oufa are cemeteries full of innumerable inscriptions, and several sepulchral vaults. The ramparts of Sibir, the ancient capital of Tartary, are still seen about Tobolsk upon the Irtysh. The lofty walls of Tontoura appear yet in the Baraba, a little gulf in the river Om; and near the mouth of the Oural are the ditches of the city Saratschik. There are a great number of other ruins in Siberia; and the desert of Kirguis abounds in the relics of opulent cities. Some gold and silver coins have likewise been found, with several manuscripts neatly written, which have been carried to Petersburg. In 1720, there were found in Calmuc Tartary a subterraneous house of stone, some urns, lamps, and ear-rings; an equestrian statue; an image of an oriental prince with a diadem on his head, two women seated on thrones, and a roll of manuscripts, which was sent by Peter the Great to the Academy of Inscriptions at Paris, and proved to be in the language of Thibet. The quantity of gold ornaments found in the tombs of Siberia, and of elegant workmanship, as bracelets, collars in the shape of serpents, vases, crowns, rings, bucklers, sabres, figures of animals, Tartar idols, &c. is surprising. It is supposed that these burial places were made about the time of Zingis Khan, and that the superstition prevailed in those parts, of departed souls following the same kind of life they did in this world, and therefore on the death of a prince, they sacrificed his favourite wife, &c. and buried with him his arms and other valuable things.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Of these we know little but the names, and that they are in general no better than fixed hordes. They may be said to be places of abode, rather than towns or cities, for we do not find that they are under any regular government, or that they can make a defence against an enemy. The few places, however, that are mentioned in the preceding divisions of this country, merit notice. Tobolsk and Astracan are considerable cities, the first containing 15,000, and the latter 70,000 inhabitants. Forts, villages, and towns, have also lately been

erected in different parts of Siberia, for civilising the inhabitants, and rendering them obedient to the Russian government.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This head makes no figure in the history of Tartary, their chief traffic consisting in cattle, fine ox-tails, skins, beavers, rhubarb, musk, and fish. The Astracans, notwithstanding their interruptions by the wild Tartars, carry on a considerable traffic into Persia, to which they export red leather, woollen and linen cloth, and some European manufactures. The Bucharians also are a very commercial people; their caravans travel through a great part of Asia, and traffic with Thibet, China, India, Persia, and Russia. Their principal marts are Tomsk and Orenburg. Gold-dust is often found in the sand of the rivers of Bucharia.

HISTORY.] Though it is certain that Tartary, formerly known by the name of Scythia, peopled the northern parts of Europe, and furnished those amazing numbers, who, under various names, destroyed the Roman empire, yet it is now but very thinly inhabited; and those fine provinces, where learning and the arts resided, are now scenes of horror and barbarity. This must have been owing to the dreadful massacres made among the nations by the two above-mentioned conquerors and their descendants; for nothing is more common in their histories, than their putting to the sword three or four hundred thousand people in a few days.

The country of Ubec Tartary was once the seat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite residence of Zingis or Jenghis Khan, and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the spoils of India and the eastern world.

The former, about the year 1200, made himself master of those regions which form at this day the Asiatic part of the Russian empire; and his son, Batou Sagin, conquered Southern Russia and peopled it with Tartar colonies, which are now confounded or blended with the Russians. It was not until the time of Ivan III. who ascended the Russian throne in 1462, that the Russians were able to throw off the galling yoke of the Tartars. Ivan repeatedly defeated them, subdued the kingdom of Kasan, and other provinces, and made his name respected through all the neighbouring countries.

The same of Tamerlane has been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan: his defeat of the Turkish emperor Bajazet has been noticed in the history of that nation. The honour of being descended from him, is claimed not only by all the khans and petty princes of Tartary but by the emperor of Indostan himself. The capital of this country is Bokharia, which was known to the ancients by the name of Bucharia; situated in the latitude of 32 degrees 15 minutes, and 13 miles distant from the once famous city of Samarcand; the birth-place of Tamerlane the Great.

The present inhabitants of this immense common compose innumerable tribes, who range at pleasure with their flocks and their herds, in the old patriarchal manner. Their tribes are commanded by separate khans or leaders, who, upon particular emergencies, elect a great khan, who claims a paramount power over strangers as well as natives, and who can frequently bring into the field 100,000 horsemen. His chief residence is a kind of military station; which is moved and shifted according to the chance of war and other occasions. When the vast dominions of Zingis Khan fell to pieces, under his successors in the 16th

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century, the Mogul and Tartar hordes who had formed one empire, again separated; and have since continued distinct. They are bounded on every side by the Russian, the Chinese, the Mogul, the Persian, or the Turkish empires: each of whom are pushing on their conquests in this extensive, and in some places fertile country. The khans pay a tribute, or acknowledgement of their dependency upon one or other of their powerful neighbours, who treat them with caution and lenity; as the friendship of these barbarians is of the utmost consequence to the powers with whom they are allied. Some tribes, however, affect independency: and when united they form a powerful body, and of late have been very formidable to their neighbours, particularly to the Chinese.

The method of carrying on war by wasting the country, is very ancient among the Tartars, and practised by all of them from the Danube eastward. This circumstance renders them a dreadful enemy to regular troops, who must thereby be deprived of all subsistence; while the Tartars, having always many spare horses to kill and eat, are at no loss for provisions.

THE EMPIRE OF CHINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1450 } Breadth 1260 }	between { 20 and 42 north latitude. 98 and 123 east longitude. }	1,298,000
Chinese Tartary.		

BOUNDARIES.] CHINA is bounded by Tartary, and an amazing stone wall of five hundred leagues in length, on the North; by the Pacific Ocean, which divides it from North America, on the East; by the Chinese Sea, South; and by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries and mountains of Thibet and Russia, on the West.

Chinese Tartary is bounded on the North by Siberia; on the East by the gulf of Kamtschatka and the Eastern Sea; on the South by China; and on the West by the country of the Calmonks, who are established between the Caspian Sea and Casgar.

Eastern Tartary extends north and south from the 47th to the 55th degree of north latitude, and east and west from about the 137th degree of longitude to the Eastern Sea. It is bounded on the North by Siberia; on the South by the gulf of Lea-tong and Corea; on the East by the Eastern Sea; and on the West by the country of the Moguls. The country is divided into three grand departments, the provinces of Chensing, Kirin, and Tritcicar; of which the chief towns are Mougdou, Kirin, and Tritcicar.

DIVISION AND POPULATION.] The empire of China is divided into fifteen provinces, each of which might, for its extent, fertility, populousness, and opulence, rank as a distinct kingdom. The following is a statement of the division, population, and extent of China proper, was

delivered to Lord Macartney, at his request, by Chow-ta-Zhin, a Chinese mandarin, and is founded on authentic documents, taken from one of the public offices in Peking.

Provinces.	Population.	Sq. Miles.	Acres.
Peeche-lee	38,000,000	58,949	37,727,360
Kiang-nan } 2 provinces }	32,000,000	92,961	59,491,040
Kiang-fee	19,000,000	72,176	46,192,640
Tche-kiang	21,000,000	39,150	25,056,000
Fo-chen	15,000,000	53,480	34,427,200
Hou-pe } Hou-nan } Hou-quang }	14,000,000 } 13,000,000 }	144,770	92,652,800
Ho-nan	25,000,000	65,104	41,666,560
Shang-tung	24,000,000	65,104	41,666,560
Shan-fee	27,000,000	55,268	35,371,520
Shen-fee	18,000,000	154,008	98,565,120
Kan-fore	12,000,000	166,800	106,752,000
Se-chuen	27,000,000	79,456	50,851,840
Canton	21,000,000	78,250	50,080,000
Quang-fee	8,000,000	107,969	69,100,160
Yu-nan	9,000,000	64,554	41,314,560
Koei-cheou			
Total	333,000,000	1,297,999	830,719,360

With respect to this statement, Sir George Staunton, who compiled the judicious and authentic account of the late English embassy to China, observes, that "the extent of the provinces is ascertained by astronomical observations, as well as by admeasurement. The number of individuals is regularly taken in each division of a district by a tything-man, or every tenth master of a family. Those returns are collected by officers resident so near as to be capable of correcting any gross mistake; and all the returns are lodged in the great register at Peking. Though the general statement is strictly the result of those returns added to each other, which seem little liable to error, or, taken separately, to doubt; yet the amount of the whole is so prodigious as to stagger belief. It must, however, be recollected that population in China is not subject to be materially diminished by war. No private soldiers, and a few officers only, natives of the ancient provinces of China, were engaged in the conquest of Western Tartary, or in the Thibet war. Celibacy is rare, even in the military profession, among the Chinese. The number of manufacturers whose occupations are not always favourable to health, whose constant confinement to particular spots, and sometimes in a close or tainted atmosphere, must be injurious, and whose residence in towns exposes them to irregularities, bears but a very small proportion to that of husbandmen in China. In general there seem to be no other bounds to Chinese populousness, than those which the necessity of subsistence may put to it. These boundaries are certainly more enlarged than in other countries. The whole surface of the empire is, with trifling exceptions, dedicated to the production of food for man alone. There is no meadow, and very little pasture, nor are fields cultivated in oats, beans, or turnips for the support of cattle of any kind. Few parks or pleasure grounds are free, excepting those belonging to the emperor. Little land is taken up for roads, the chief communication being by water. There are no commons or lands suffered to lie waste by the neglect, or the caprice, or

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830,719,360

the sport, of great proprietors. No arable land lies fallow. The soil under a hot and fertilising sun yields double crops. In consequence of adapting the culture to the soil, and supplying its defects by mixture with other earths, by manure, watering, and careful and useful industry of every kind. The labour of man is little diverted from that industry, to minister to the luxuries of the opulent and powerful, or in employments of no real use. Even the soldiers of the Chinese army, except during the short intervals of the guards which they are called to mount, or the exercises or other occasional services which they perform, are mostly employed in agriculture. The quantity of subsistence is increased also, by converting more species of animals and vegetables to that purpose than is usual in other countries. From a consideration of the influence of all these causes, the great population of China, asserted in this statement, will not, perhaps, appear surprising, though it appears from it that every square mile in that vast empire contains, upon an average, about one third more inhabitants, being upwards of three hundred, than are found upon an equal quantity of land, also upon an average, in the most populous country in Europe."

NAME.] It is probably owing to a Chinese word, signifying middle, from a notion the natives had, that their country lay in the middle of the world.

MOUNTAINS.] China, excepting to the north, is a plain country, and contains no remarkable mountains.

RIVERS AND WATER.] The chief are the Yamour and the Argun, which are the boundary between the Russian and Chinese Tartary; the Croceus, or Whambo, or the Yellow River; the Kiam, or the Blue River; and the Tay. Common water in China is very indifferent, and is in some places boiled to make it fit for use.

BAYS.] The chief are those of Nankin and Canton.

CANALS.] These are sufficient to entitle the ancient Chinese to the character of a most wise and industrious people. The commodiousness and length of their canals are incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn stone on the sides, and they are so deep, that they carry large vessels, and sometimes extend above 1000 miles in length. Those vessels are fitted up for all the conveniences of life; and it has been thought by some, that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. They are furnished with stone quays, and sometimes with bridges of an amazing construction. The navigation is slow, and the vessels sometimes drawn by men. No precautions are wanting, that could be formed by art or perseverance, for the safety of the passengers, in case a canal is crossed by a rapid river, or exposed to torrents from the mountains. These canals, and the variety that is seen upon their borders, render China delightful in a very high degree, as well as fertile, in places that are not so by nature.

FORESTS.] Such is the industry of the Chinese, that they are not encumbered with forests or woods, though no country is better fitted for producing timber of all kinds. They suffer, however, none to grow up for ornament and use, or on the sides of mountains, from whence the trees, when cut down, can be conveyed to any place by water.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this empire is according to the situation of the places. Towards the north it is sharp, in the middle mild, and in the south hot. The soil is, either by nature or art, fruitful of every thing that can minister to the necessities, conveniences, and luxuries of life. The culture of the cotton, and the rice fields, from which the bulk of the inhabitants are clothed and fed, is ingenious al-

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most beyond description. The rare trees, and aromatic productions, either ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in China, and some are peculiar to itself.

The tallow-tree has a short trunk, a smooth bark, crooked branches, red leaves, shaped like a heart, and is about the height of a common cherry-tree. The fruit it produces has all the qualities of our tallow, and when manufactured with oil serves the natives as candles; but they smell strong, nor is their light clear. Of the other trees peculiar to China, are some which yield a kind of flour; some partake of the nature of pepper. The gum of some is poisonous, but affords the finest varnish in the world. After all that can be said of these, and many other beautiful and useful trees, the Chinese, notwithstanding their industry, are so wedded to their ancient customs, that they are very little, if at all, meliorated by cultivation. The same may be said of their richest fruits, which, in general, are far from being so delicious as those of Europe, and indeed of America. This is owing to the Chinese never practising grafting or inoculation of trees, and knowing nothing of experimental gardening.

It would be unpardonable here not to mention the raw silk, which so much abounds in China, and, above all, the *tea-plant*, or shrub. It is planted in rows, and pruned to prevent luxuriance. "Vast tracts of hilly land (says Sir George Staunton) are planted with it, particularly in the province of Fochén. Its perpendicular growth is impeded for the convenience of collecting its leaves, which is done first in spring, and twice afterwards in the course of the summer. Its long and tender branches spring up almost from the root without any intervening naked trunk. It is bushy like a rose-tree, and the expanded petals of the flower bear some resemblance to that of the rose. Every information received concerning the tea-plant concurred in affirming that its quality depended both upon the soil in which it grew, and the age at which the leaves were plucked off the tree, as well as upon the management of them afterwards. The largest and oldest leaves, which are the least esteemed, and destined for the use of the lowest classes of the people, are often exposed to sale with little previous manipulation, and still retaining that kind of vegetable taste which is common to most fresh plants, but which vanishes in a little time, whilst the more essential flavour, characteristic of each particular vegetable, remains long without diminution. The young leaves undergo no inconsiderable preparation before they are delivered to the purchaser. Every leaf passes through the fingers of a female, who rolls it up almost to the form it had assumed before it became expanded in the progress of its growth. It is afterwards placed upon thin plates of earthen-ware or iron, made much thinner than can be executed by artists out of China. It is confidently said in the country, that no plates of copper are ever employed for that purpose. Indeed, scarcely any utensil used in China is of that metal, the chief application of which is for coin. The earthen or iron plates are placed over a charcoal fire, which draws all remaining moisture from the leaves, rendering them dry and crisp. The colour and astringency of green tea is thought to be derived from the early period at which the leaves are plucked, and which, like unripe fruit, are generally green and acid.

The Portuguese had the use of tea long before the English, but it was introduced among the latter before the Restoration, as mention is made of it in the first act of parliament that settled the excise on the king's life, in 1660. Catharine, of Lisbon, wife to Charles II. rendered the

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use of it common at his court. The *ginseug*, so famous among the Chinese as the universal remedy, and monopolised even by their emperor, is now found to be but a common root, and is plentiful in British America. When brought to Europe, it is little distinguished for its healing qualities; and this instance alone ought to teach us with what caution the former accounts of China are to be read. The *ginseug*, however, is a native of the Chinese Tartary.

[METALS AND MINERALS.] China (if we are to believe some naturalists) produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. White copper is peculiar to itself, but we know of no extraordinary quality it possesses. One of the fundamental maxims of the Chinese government is that of not introducing a superabundance of gold and silver, for fear of hurting industry. Their gold mines, therefore, are but slightly worked, and the currency of that metal is supplied by the grains the people pick up in the sand of rivers and mountains. The silver specie is furnished from the mines of Honan.

[PERSONS, MANNERS, AND CHARACTER.] Parents who cannot support their female children, are allowed to cast them into the river; but they fasten a gourd to the child, that it may float on the water; and there are often compassionate people of fortune, who are moved by the cries of the children to save them from death. The Chinese, in their persons, are middle-sized, their faces broad, their eyes black and small, their noses blunt, and turned upwards; they have high cheek-bones, and large lips. The Chinese have particular ideas of beauty. They pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces by the roots with tweezers, leaving a few straggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and, like Mahometans, wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexion, towards the north, is fair, but towards the south, swarthy; corpulence is esteemed a beauty in a man, but considered as a palpable blemish in the fair sex, who aim at preserving a slimmess and delicacy of shape. Men of quality and learning, who are not much exposed to the sun, are delicately complexioned; and they who are bred to letters let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to show that they are not employed in manual labour.

The women have little eyes, plump, rosy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate though florid complexion. The smallness of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no swathing is omitted, when they are young, to give them that accomplishment, so that when they grow up, they may be said to totter rather than to walk. Of most of the women we saw (says sir George Staunton), even in the middle and inferior classes, the feet were unnaturally small, or rather truncated. They appeared as if the fore part of the foot had been accidentally cut off leaving the remainder of the usual size, and bandaged like the stump of an amputated limb. They undergo, indeed, much torment, and cripple themselves in a great measure, in imitation of ladies of higher rank, among whom it is the custom to stop by pressure the growth of the ancle as well as foot from the earliest infancy; and leaving the great toe in its natural position, forcibly to bend the others, and retain them under the foot, till at length they adhere to, as if buried in the sole, and can no more be separated. It is said, indeed, that this practice is now less frequent than formerly, at least among the lower sort in the northern provinces.

The exterior demeanour of the Chinese (observes the same writer) is very ceremonious. It consists of various evolutions of the body, and

inclinations of the head, in bending or stiffening the knee, and in joining or disengaging the hands; all which are considered as the perfection of good breeding and deportment; while the nations who are not expert in such discipline are thought to be little better than barbarians. When, however, those Chinese ceremonies are once shown off, the performers of them relapse into ease and familiarity. In their address to strangers, they are not restrained by any bashfulness; but present themselves with an easy confident air, as if they considered themselves as the superiors, and as if nothing in their manners or appearance could be deficient or inaccurate."

The Chinese, in general, have been represented as the most dishonest, low, thieving set in the world; employing their natural quickness only to improve the arts of cheating the nations they deal with, especially the Europeans, whom they cheat with great ease, particularly the English; but they observe that none but a Chinese can cheat a Chinese. They are fond of law disputes beyond any people in the world. Their hypocrisy is without bounds; and the men of property among them practise the most avowed bribery, and the lowest rascalities to obtain preferment. It should, however, be remembered, that some of the late accounts of China have been drawn up by those who were little acquainted with any parts of that empire, but the sea-port towns; in which they probably met with many knavish and designing people. But it seems not just to attempt to characterise a great nation by a few instances of this kind, though well attested; and we appear not to be sufficiently acquainted with the interior parts of China to form an accurate judgment of the manners and character of the inhabitants. By some of the Jesuit missionaries, the Chinese seem to have been too much extolled, and by later writers too much degraded.

DRESS.] This varies according to the distinction of ranks, and is entirely under the regulation of the law, which has even fixed the colours that distinguish the different conditions. The emperor, and princes of the blood, have alone a right to wear yellow; certain mandarines are entitled to wear satin of a red ground, but only upon days of ceremony; in general, they are clothed in black, blue, or violet. White is only worn for mourning, and cannot be too much soiled for the occasion, to avoid every appearance of personal care and ornament. The colour to which the common people are confined, is blue or black; and their dress is always composed of plain cotton cloth. The men wear caps on their heads, of the fashion of a skull; those of quality are ornamented with jewels. The rest of their dress is easy and loose, consisting of a vest and sash, a coat or gown thrown over them, silk boots quilted with cotton, and a pair of drawers. Dress is seldom altered in China from fancy or fashion. Even among the ladies there is little variety in their dresses, except, perhaps, in the disposition of the flowers or other ornaments of the head. They generally wear over a silk netting, which is in lieu of linnen; a waistcoat and drawers of silk, trimmed or lined in cold weather with furs. Above this is worn a long satin robe, which is gracefully gathered round the waist, and confined with a sash. These different parts of their apparel are usually each of a different colour, in the selection and contrast of which the wearers chiefly display their taste. They suffer their nails to grow, but reduce their eye-brows to an arch-like line.

MARRIAGES.] The parties never see each other, in China, till the bargain is concluded by the parents, and that is generally when the parties are perfect children. When the nuptials are celebrated, the lady is

carried (as yet unseen by the bridegroom) in a gilt and gaudy chair hung round with festoons of artificial flowers, and followed by relations, attendants, and servants, bearing the paraphernalia, being the only portion given with a daughter in marriage by her parents. Next to being barren, the greatest scandal is to bring females into the world; and if a woman of poor family happens to have three or four girls successively, it not unfrequently happens that she will expose them on the high roads, or cast them into a river.

FUNERALS.] The Chinese, among other superstitions, are particularly scrupulous about the time and place of burying their dead. The delay occasioned before these difficult points are ascertained, has often long detained the coffins of the rich from their last repository; many are seen in houses and gardens under temporary roofs, to preserve them in the mean time from the weather; but necessity forces the poor to overcome many of their scruples in this respect, and to deposit at once, and with little ceremony, the remains of their relations in their final abode.

The following is the description of a Chinese funeral procession observed by sir George Staunton, passing out of one of the gates of Peking. "The procession was preceded by several performers on solemn music; then followed a variety of insignia, some of silken colours, and painted boards with devices and characters, displaying the rank and office of him who was no more. Immediately before the corpse the male relations walked, each supported by friends, occupied in preventing them from giving way to the excesses and extravagance of grief, to which the appearance of their countenance implied that they were prone. Over the mourners were carried umbrellas with deep curtains hanging from the edges. Several persons were employed to burn circular pieces of paper, covered chiefly with tin-foil, as they passed by burying-grounds and temples. These pieces, in the popular opinion, like the coin to Charon for being conveyed to the Elysian fields, are understood to be convertible in the next stage of existence into the means of providing the necessaries of life."

The public burying-grounds are extremely extensive, owing to that respect paid to the dead by the Chinese, which prevents them from opening a new grave upon any spot where the traces of a former one remain upon the surface.

Every Chinese keeps in his house a table, upon which are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great grandfather, before which they frequently burn incense, and prostrate themselves; and when the father of a family dies, the name of the great grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceased is added.

LANGUAGE.] The Chinese language contains only three hundred and thirty words, all of one syllable; but then each word is pronounced with such various modulations, and each with a different meaning, that it becomes more copious than could be easily imagined. The missionaries, who adapt the European characters as well as they can to the expression of Chinese words, have devised eleven different, and some of them very compounded, marks and aspirations, to signify the various modulations, elevations, and depressions of the voice, which distinguish the several meanings of the same monosyllable. The Chinese oral language being thus barren and contracted, is unfit for literature; and, therefore, their literature is all comprised in arbitrary characters, which are amazingly complicated and numerous, amounting to about eighty thousand. This language being wholly addressed to the eye, and having no affinity with their tongue, as spoken, the latter has still continued in

its original, rude, uncultivated state, while the former has received all possible improvement.

GENIUS AND LEARNING.] The genius of the Chinese is peculiar to themselves: they have no conception of what is beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural in painting; and yet, in their gardening and planning their grounds, they exhibit the true sublime and beautiful. They perform all the operations of arithmetic with prodigious quickness, but differently from the Europeans. Till the latter came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning, and all its depending arts. They had no proper apparatus for astronomical observations; and the metaphysical learning which existed among them, was only known to their philosophers; but even the arts introduced by the Jesuits were of very short duration among them, and lasted very little longer than the reign of Canghi, who was contemporary with our Charles II. nor is it very probable they will ever be revived. It has been generally said, that they understood printing before the Europeans; but that can only be applied to block-printing; for the fusile and moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventions. The Chinese, however, had almanacks, which were stamped from plates or blocks, many hundred years before printing was discovered in Europe.

The difficulty of mastering and retaining such a number of arbitrary marks and characters as there are in what may be called the Chinese written language, greatly retards the progress of their erudition. But there is no part of the globe where learning is attended with such honours and rewards, and where there are more powerful inducements to cultivate and pursue it. The literati are revered as another species, and are the only nobility known in China. If their birth be ever so mean and low, they become mandarins of the highest rank, in proportion to the extent of their learning. On the other hand, however exalted their birth may be, they quickly sink into poverty and obscurity, if they neglect those studies which raised their fathers. It has been observed, that there is no nation in the world where the first honours of the state lie so open to the lowest of the people, and where there is less of hereditary greatness. The Chinese range all their works of literature into four classes. The first is the class of *King*, or the sacred books, which contain the principles of the Chinese religion, morality, and government, and several curious and obscure records, relative to these important subjects. History forms a separate class: yet, in this first class, there are placed some historical monuments on account of their relation to religion and government, and among others the *Tekun iscou*, a work of Confucius, which contains the annals of twelve kings of Low, the native country of that illustrious sage. The second class is that of the *Su*, or *Che*; that is, of history and the historians. The third class, called *Tsu*, or *Tse*, comprehends philosophy and the philosophers, and contains all the works of the Chinese literati, the productions also of foreign sects and religions, which the Chinese consider only in the light of philosophical opinions, and all books relative to mathematics, astronomy, physic, military science, the art of divination, agriculture, and the arts and sciences in general. The fourth is called *Tse*, or *Miscellanies*, and contains all the poetical books of the Chinese, their pieces of eloquence, their songs, romances, tragedies, and comedies. The Chinese literati, in all the periods of their monarchy, have applied themselves less to the study of nature, and to the researches of natural philosophy, than to moral inquiries, the practical science of life, and internal polity and manners.

It is said that it was not before the dynasty of the Song in the 10th and 11th centuries after Christ, that the Chinese philosophers formed hypotheses concerning the system of the universe, and entered into discussions of a scholastic kind. In consequence, perhaps, of the intercourse they had long kept up with the Arabians, who studied with ardour the works of Aristotle. And since the Chinese have begun to pay some attention to natural philosophy, their progress in it has been much inferior to that of the Europeans.

The invention of gunpowder is justly claimed by the Chinese, who made use of it against Zinghis Khan and Tamerlane. They seem to have known nothing of small fire arms, and to have been acquainted only with the cannon, which they call the fire-pan. Their industry in their manufactures of stuffs, porcelain, japanning, and the like sedentary trades, is amazing, and can be equalled only by their labours in the field, in making canals, levelling mountains, raising gardens, and navigating their junks and boats.

[ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] Few natural curiosities present themselves in China, that have not been comprehended under preceding articles. Some volcanos, and rivers and lakes of particular qualities, are to be found in different parts of the empire. The Volcano of Linfung is said sometimes to make so furious a discharge of fire and ashes, as to occasion a tempest in the air: and some of their lakes are said to petrify fishes when put into them. The great wall separating China from Tartary, to prevent the incursions of the Tartars, is supposed to extend from 1200 to 1500 miles. It is carried over mountains and valleys, and reaches, according to M. Grosier, from the province of the Shensee to the Whang-Hay, or Yellow-Sea. It is in most places built of brick and mortar, which is so well tempered, that though it has stood more than 2000 years, it is but little decayed. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of stone raised in the sea, in the province of Petcheleé, to the east of Peking, and almost in the same latitude: it is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being terraced and cased with bricks, and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high. *M. Regis* and the other gentleman who took a map of these provinces, often stretched a line on the top, to measure the basis of triangles, and to take distant points with an instrument. They always found it paved wide enough for five or six horsemen to travel abreast with ease. Mention has been already made of the prodigious canals and roads that are cut through this empire.

The artificial mountains present on their tops, temples, monasteries, and other edifices. The Chinese bridges cannot be sufficiently admired. They are built sometimes upon barges strongly chained together, yet so as to be parted, and to let the vessels pass that sail up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and consist only of one arch; that over the river Saffrany is 400 cubits long and 300 high, though a single arch, and joins two mountains; and some in the interior parts of the empire are said to be still more stupendous. The triumphal arches of this country form the next species of artificial curiosities. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman style of architecture, yet they are superb and beautiful, and erected to the memory of their great men, with vast labour and expense. They are said in the whole to be eleven hundred, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent. Their sepulchral monuments make likewise a great figure. Their towers, the models of which are now so common in Europe, under the name of pagodas, are vast embellishments to the face of their

country. They seem to be constructed by a regular order, and all of them are finished with exquisite carvings and gildings, and other ornaments. That at Nanking, which is 200 feet high, and 40 in diameter, is the most admired. It is called the Porcelain Tower, because it is lined with Chinese tiles. Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the fanciful taste in which they are built, for their capaciousness, their whimsical ornaments, and the ugliness of the idols they contain. The Chinese are remarkably fond of bells, which give name to one of their principal festivals. A bell of Peking weighs 120,000 pounds, but its sound is said to be disagreeable. The last curiosity I shall mention, is their fire-works, which in China exceed those of all other nations. In short, every province in China is a scene of curiosities. Their buildings, except the pagodas, being confined to no order, and susceptible of all kinds of ornaments, have a wild variety, and a pleasing elegance, not void of magnificence, agreeable to the eye and the imagination, and present a diversity of objects not to be found in European architecture.

[**CHIEF CITIES.**] The empire is said to contain 4400 walled cities; the chief of which are Peking, Nanking, and Canton. Peking, the capital of the whole empire of China, and the ordinary residence of the emperors, is situated in a very fertile plain twenty leagues distant from the great wall. It is an oblong square, and is divided into two cities: that which contains the emperor's palace is called the Tartar city, because the houses were given to the Tartars, when the present family came to the throne; and they refusing to suffer the Chinese to inhabit it, forced them to live without the walls, where they in a short time built a new city; which by being joined to the other, renders the whole of an irregular form, six leagues in compass. The walls and gates of Peking are of the surprising height of fifty cubits, so that they hide the whole city; and are so broad, that centinels are placed upon them on horseback; for there are slopes within the city of considerable length, by which horsemen may ascend the walls; and in several places there are houses built for the guards. The gates, which are nine in number, are neither embellished with statues, nor other carving, all their beauty consisting in their prodigious height, which at a distance gives them a noble appearance. The arches of the gates are built of marble, and the rest with large bricks, cemented with excellent mortar. Most of the streets are built in a direct line; the largest are about 120 feet broad, and a league in length. The shops where they sell silks and china-ware generally take up the whole street, and afford a very agreeable prospect. Each shop-keeper places before his shop, on a small kind of pedestal, a board about twenty feet high, painted, varnished, and often gilt, on which are written in large characters the names of the several commodities he sells. These being placed on each side of the street, at nearly an equal distance from each other, have a very pretty appearance; but the houses are poorly built in front, and very low, most of them having only a ground floor, and none exceeding one story above it. Of all the buildings in this great city, the most remarkable is the imperial palace, the grandeur of which does not consist so much in the nobleness and elegance of the architecture, as the multitude of its buildings, courts, and gardens, all regularly disposed; for within the walls are not only the emperor's house, but a little town, inhabited by the officers of the court, and a multitude of artificers employed and kept by the emperor; but the houses of the courtiers and artificers are low and ill contrived. F. Artier, a French Jesuit, who was indulged with a sight of the palace

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and gardens, says, that the palace is more than three miles in circum-
ference, and that the front of the building shines with gilding, paint,
and varnish, while the inside is set off and furnished with every thing
that is most beautiful and precious in China, the Indies, and Europe.
The gardens of this palace are large tracts of ground, in which are raised,
at proper distances, artificial mountains, from twenty to sixty feet high,
which form a number of small valleys, plentifully watered by canals,
which uniting, form lakes and meres. Beautiful and magnificent barks
sail on these pieces of water, and the banks are ornamented with ranges
of buildings, not any two of which are said to have any resemblance to
each other; which diversity produces a very pleasing effect. Every val-
ley has its house of pleasure, large enough to lodge one of our greatest
lords in Europe with all his retinue: many of these houses are built with
cedar, brought, at a vast expense, the distance of 500 leagues. Of these
palaces, or houses of pleasure, there are more than 200 in this vast in-
closure. In the middle of a lake, which is near half a league in diame-
ter every way, is a rocky island, on which is built a palace, containing
more than a hundred apartments. It has four fronts, and is a very ele-
gant and magnificent structure. The mountains and hills are covered
with trees, particularly such as produce beautiful and aromatic flowers;
and the canals are edged with rustic pieces of rock, disposed with such
art, as exactly to resemble the wildness of nature.

The estimated population of Peking was carried in the last century
by the Jesuit Grimaldi, as quoted by Gemelli Carreri, to sixteen millions.
Another missionary reduces, at least that of the Tartar city, to one mil-
lion and a quarter. According to the best information given to the late
English embassy, the whole was about three millions. The low houses
of Peking seem scarcely sufficient for so vast a population; but very lit-
tle room is occupied by a Chinese family, at least in the middling and
lower classes of life. A Chinese dwelling is generally surrounded by a
wall six or seven feet high. Within this inclosure a whole family of
three generations, with all their respective wives and children, will fre-
quently be found. One small room is made to serve for the individuals
of each branch of the family, sleeping in different beds, divided only by
mats hanging from the ceiling. One common room is used for eating.

Nanking is said to be still more extensive and populous than Peking;
but Canton is the greatest port in China, and the only port that has been
much frequented by Europeans. The city wall is above five miles in
circumference, with very pleasant walks around it. From the top of
some adjacent hills, on which forts are built, you have a fine prospect
of the country. It is beautifully interspersed with mountains, little hills,
and valleys, all green; and these again pleasantly diversified with small
towns, villages, high towers, temples, the seats of mandarins and other
great men, which are watered with delightful lakes, canals, and small
branches from the river Ta; on which are numberless boats and junks,
sailing different ways through the most fertile parts of the country. The
city is entered by several iron gates, and within side of each there is a
guard-house. The streets of Canton are very straight, but generally
narrow, paved with flag stones. There are many pretty buildings in
this city, great numbers of triumphal arches, and temples well stocked
with images. The streets of Canton are so crowded, that it is difficult
to walk in them; yet a woman of any fashion is seldom to be seen, un-
less by chance when coming out of her chair. There are great numbers
of market-places for fish, fesh, poultry, vegetables, and all kinds of
provisions, which are sold very cheap. There are many private walks

about the skirts of the town, where those of the better sort have their houses, which are very little frequented by Europeans, whose business lies chiefly in the trading part of the city, where there are only shops and warehouses. Few of the Chinese traders of any substance keep their families in houses where they do business, but either in the city, in the more remote suburbs, or farther up in the country. They have all such a regard to privacy, that no windows are made towards the streets, but in shops and places of public business, nor do any of their windows look towards those of their neighbours. The shops of those that deal in silk are very neat, make a fine show, and are all in one place; for tradesmen, or dealers in one kind of goods, herd together in the same street. It is computed that there are in this city, and its suburbs, 1,200,000 people; and there are often 5000 trading vessels lying before the city.

[TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] China is so happily situated, and produces such a variety of materials for manufactures, that it may be said to be the native land of industry; but it is an industry without taste or elegance, though carried on with great art and neatness. They make paper of the bark of bamboo and other trees, as well as of cotton, but not comparable, for records or printing, to the European. Their ink for the use of drawing is well known in England, and is said to be made of oil and lampblack. The antiquity of their printing, which they still perform by cutting their characters on blocks of wood, has already been mentioned. The manufacture of that earthen-ware generally known by the name of China was long a secret in Europe, and brought immense sums to that country. Though the Chinese affect to keep that manufacture still a secret, yet it is well known that the principal material is a prepared pulverised earth, and that several European countries far exceed the Chinese in manufacturing this commodity. The Chinese silks are generally plain and flowered gauzes, and they are said to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing silk-worms was first discovered. They manufacture silks likewise of a more durable kind; and their cotton and other cloths are famous for furnishing a light warm wear.

Their trade, it is well known, is open to all the European nations, with whom they deal for ready money; for such is the pride and avarice of the Chinese, that they think no manufactures equal to their own. But it is certain, that since the discovery of the porcelain manufacture, and the vast improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branches, the Chinese commerce has been on the decline.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The original plan of the Chinese government was patriarchal, almost in the strictest sense of the word. Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended and enforced in the most rigorous manner; but, at the same time, the emperor was considered as the father of the whole. His mandarins, or great officers of state, were looked upon as his substitutes, and the degrees of submission which were due from the inferior ranks to the superior, were settled and observed with the most scrupulous precision, and in a manner that to us seems highly ridiculous. This simple claim of obedience required great address and knowledge of human nature to render it effectual; and the Chinese legislators,

The English in particular have carried this branch to a high degree of perfection, as appears from the commissions which have been received of late from several princes of Europe; and we hope that a manufacture so generally useful, will meet with encouragement from every true patriot among ourselves.

Confucius particularly, appear to have been men of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their dictates in a number of mystical appearances, so as to strike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarins had modes of speaking and writing different from those of other subjects, and the people were taught to believe that the princes partook of divinity; so that they were seldom seen, and more seldom approached. "In the great palace of Peking, (says sir George Staunton) all the mandarins resident in the capital, assembled, about noon, on his imperial majesty's birth-day, and dressed in their robes of ceremony, made the usual prostrations before the throne; incense of sandal and rose woods burning upon it at the same time, and offerings being made of viands and liquors, as if, though absent, he were capable of enjoying them. Mr. Barrow (a gentleman of the embassy) was present while the same ceremonies were observed at Yuen-min-yuen, and he was informed that they likewise took place on that day in every part of the empire, the prostrators being every where attentive to turn their faces towards the capital. On all the days of new and full moon, similar incense is burnt, and offerings are made before the throne by the officers of the household in the several palaces of the emperor."

Though this system preserved the public tranquillity for an incredible number of years, yet it had a fundamental defect; that often convulsed, and at last proved fatal to the state, because the same attention was not paid to the military as the civil duties. The Chinese had passions like other men; and sometimes a weak or wicked administration drove them to arms, and a revolution easily succeeded, which they justified by saying that their sovereign had ceased to be their father. During those commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours, the Tartars, to their assistance, who, possessing great sagacity, became acquainted with the weak side of their constitution, and availed themselves accordingly, by invading and conquering the empire, and conforming to the Chinese institutions.

Besides the great doctrine of patriarchal obedience, the Chinese had sumptuary laws and regulations for the expenses of all degrees of subjects, which were very useful in preserving the public tranquillity, and preventing the effects of ambition. By their institutions likewise, the mandarins might remonstrate to the emperor, but in the most submissive manner, upon the errors of his government; and when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the most salutary effects. No country in the world is so well provided with magistrates for the discharge of justice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China; but they are often ineffectual through want of public virtue in the execution. The emperor is styled "*Holy Son of Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People.*"

[RELIGION.] There is in China no state religion. None is paid, preferred, or encouraged by it. The Chinese have no Sunday, nor even such a division as a week; the temples are, however, open every day for the visits of devotees. Persons of that description have from time to time made grants, though to no great amount, for the maintenance of their clergy, but no lands are subject to ecclesiastical tithes. The emperor is of one faith; many of the mandarins of another; and the majority of the common people of a third, which is that of Fo. No people are in fact more superstitious than the common Chinese. Beside the habitual offices of devotion on the part of the priests and females, the temples are particularly frequented by the disciples of Fo,

previously to any undertaking of importance; whether to marry, or go a journey, or conclude a bargain, or change situation, or any other material event in life, it is necessary first to consult the superintendant deity. This is performed by various methods. Some place a parcel of consecrated sticks, differently marked and numbered, which the consultant, kneeling before the altar, shakes in a hollow bamboo, until one of them falls on the ground; its mark is examined, and referred to a correspondent mark in a book which the priest holds open, and sometimes even it is written upon a piece of paper pasted upon the inside of the temple. Polygonal pieces of wood are by others thrown into the air. Each side has its particular mark; the side that is uppermost when fallen on the floor, is in like manner referred to its correspondent mark in the book or sheet of fate. If the first throw be favourable, the person who made it prostrates himself in gratitude, and undertakes afterwards with confidence the business in agitation. But if the throw should be adverse, he tries a second time, and the third throw determines, at any rate, the question. In other respects the people of the present time seem to pay little attention to their priests. The temples are, however, always open for such as choose to consult the decrees of heaven. They return thanks when the oracle proves propitious to their wishes. Yet they oftener cast lots to know the issue of a projected enterprise, than supplicate for its being favourable, and their worship consists more in thanksgiving than in prayer.

The temples of Fo abound with more images than are found in most Christian churches, some of which, as one of the missionaries has observed, exhibit so strong a likeness to those in churches of the Roman faith, that a Chinese conveyed into one of the latter might imagine the votaries he saw, were adoring the deities of his own country. On the altar of a Chinese temple, behind a screen, is frequently a representation which might answer for that of the Virgin Mary, in the person of *Shiu-moo*, or the sacred mother, sitting in an alcove with a child in her arms, and rays proceeding from a circle, which are called a glory, round her head; with tapers burning constantly before her. The resemblance of the worship of the Chinese to the forms of the Catholic church, in some other particulars, has been, indeed, thought so striking, that some of the missionaries have conjectured that the Chinese had formerly received a glimpse of Christianity from the Nestorians, by the way of Tartary; others that St. Thomas the apostle had been among them: but the missionary Prémare could account for it no otherwise than by supposing it to have been a trick of the devil to mortify the Jesuits.

There are other images, however, in these temples, which bear a greater analogy to the ancient than to the present worship of the Romans. A figure, representing a female, appears to be something similar to *Lucina*, and is particularly addressed by unmarried women wanting husbands, and married women wanting children. The doctrine of Fo, admitting of a subordinate deity particularly propitious to every wish which can be formed in the human mind, could scarcely fail to spread among those classes of the people who are not satisfied with their prospects as resulting from the natural causes of events. Its progress is not obstructed by any measures of the government of the country, which does not interfere with mere opinions. It prohibits no belief, which is not supposed to affect the tranquillity of society.

The temples of Peking are not very sumptuous. The religion of

the emperor is new in China, and its worship is performed with most magnificence in Tartary. The mandarins, the men of letters, from whom are selected the magistrates who govern the empire, and possess the upper ranks of life, venerate rather than adore Confucius, and meet to honour and celebrate his memory in halls of a simple but neat construction. The numerous and lower classes of the people are less able than inclined to contribute much towards the erection of large and costly edifices for public worship. Their religious attention is much engaged besides with their household gods. Every house has its altar and its deities. The books of their mythology contain representations of those who preside over their persons and properties, as well as over exterior objects likely to affect them. Few of the Chinese, however, carry the objects to be obtained by their devotion, beyond the benefits of this life. Yet the religion of Fo professes the doctrine of the transmigration of souls, and promises happiness to the people on conditions, which were, no doubt, originally intended to consist in the performance of moral duties; but in lieu of which, are too frequently substituted those of contributions towards the erection or repair of temples, the maintenance of priests, and a strict attention to particular observances. The neglect of these is announced as punishable by the souls of the defaulters passing into the bodies of the meanest animals, in which the sufferings are to be proportioned to the transgression committed in the human form.

PUBLIC ROADS.] The security of travellers, and an easy mode of conveyance for passengers and merchandise of every kind, are objects to which particular attention seems to have been paid by administration in China. The manner in which the public roads are managed, greatly contributed to the former.

These roads are paved in all the southern provinces, and some of the northern. Valleys have been filled up, and passages have been cut through rocks and mountains, in order to make commodious highways, and to preserve them as nearly as possible on a level. They are generally bordered with very lofty trees, and sometimes with walls eight or ten feet in height, to prevent travellers from entering into the fields. Openings are left in them at certain intervals, which give a passage into cross roads that conduct to different villages. On all the great roads, covered seats are erected at proper distances, where the traveller may shelter himself from the inclemency of the winter, or the excessive heats of the summer.

There is no want of inns on the principal highways, and even on the cross roads. The former are very spacious, but they are badly supplied with provisions. People are even obliged to carry beds with them, or to sleep on a plain mat. Government requires of those who inhabit them, to give lodging only to those who ask and pay for it.

We meet with many turrets (says Mr. Bell) called post-houses, erected at certain distances one from another, with a flag-staff, on which is hoisted the imperial pendant. These places are guarded by soldiers, who run from one post to another with great speed, carrying letters which concern the emperor. The turrets are in sight of one another, and by signals they can convey intelligence of any remarkable event. By these means the court is informed in the speediest manner of whatever disturbance may happen in the most remote parts of the empire.

REVENUES.] The public revenues of China proper (says Staunton) are said to be little less than two hundred millions of ounces of silver.

which may be equal to about sixty-six millions of pounds sterling, or about four times those of Great Britain, and three times those of France before the late subversion. From the produce of the taxes, all the civil and military expenses, and the incidental and extraordinary charges, are first paid upon the spot, out of the treasuries of the respective provinces where such expenses are incurred; and the remainder is remitted to the imperial treasury at Peking. This surplus amounted in the year 1792, according to an account taken from a statement furnished by Chow-ta-Zhin, to the sum of 36,614,328 ounces of silver, or 12,204,776*l*. A land-tax was substituted in the last reign to the poll tax, as better proportioned to the faculties of individuals. Most imports, and all luxuries, are likewise taxed; but the duty being added to the original price of the article is seldom distinguished from it by the consumer. A transit duty is laid likewise on goods passing from one province to another. Each province in China, which may be compared to a European kingdom, is noted chiefly for the production of some particular article, the conveyance of which, to supply the demand for it in the others, raises this duty to a considerable sum, and forms the great internal commerce of the empire. Presents from the tributaries and subjects of the emperor; and the confiscations of opulent criminals, are not overlooked in enumerating the revenues of the public treasury. Taxes, such as upon rice, are received in kind. The several species of grain, on which many of the poorer classes of the people principally subsist, are exempted from taxation: so is wheat, to which rice is always preferred by the Chinese.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] China is at this time a far more powerful empire than it was before its conquest by the eastern Tartars, in 1644. This is owing to the consummate policy of Chuntchi, the first Tartarian emperor of China, who obliged his hereditary subjects to conform themselves to the Chinese manners and policy, and the Chinese to wear the Tartar dress and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chinese were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Peking the seat of his government, and the Tartars quietly submitted to a change of their country and condition, which was so much in their favour.

According to the information given to the gentlemen of the English embassy by Van-ta-Zhin, who was himself a distinguished officer, and appeared to give his account with candour, though not always, perhaps, with sufficient care and accuracy, the total of the army in the pay of China, including Tartars, amounted to one million infantry, and eight hundred thousand cavalry. From the observations made by the embassy, in the course of their travels through the empire, of the garrisons in the cities of the several orders, and of the military posts at small distances from each other, there appeared nothing improbable in the calculation of the infantry: but they met few cavalry. If the number mentioned really do exist, a great proportion of them must be in Tartary, or on some service distant from the route of the embassy. As to the marine force, it is composed chiefly of the junks we have already mentioned, and other small ships, that trade coast-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or to prevent sudden descents.

A treatise on the military art, translated from the Chinese into the French language, was published at Paris, in 1772, from which it appears that the Chinese are well versed in the theory of the art of war.

but caution, and care, and circumspection, are much recommended to their generals; and one of their maxims is, never to fight with enemies either more numerous or better armed than themselves.

[HISTORY.] The Chinese pretend, as a nation, to an antiquity beyond all measure of credibility, and their annals have been carried beyond the period to which the Scripture chronology assigns the creation of the world. Poan Kou is said by them to have been the first man, and the interval of time betwixt him and the death of their celebrated Confucius, which was in the year before Christ, 479, has been reckoned from 276,000 to 96,961,740 years. But upon an accurate investigation of this subject, it appears, that all the Chinese historical relations of events prior to the reign of the emperor Yao, who lived 2057 years before Christ, are entirely fabulous, composed in modern times, unsupported by authentic records, and full of contradictions. It appears also, that the origin of the Chinese empire cannot be placed higher than two or three generations before Yao. But even this is carrying the empire of China to a very high antiquity, and it is certain that the materials for the Chinese history are extremely ample. The grand annals of the empire of China are comprehended in 668 volumes, and consist of the pieces that have been composed by the tribunal or department of history, established in China; for transmitting to posterity the public events of the empire, and the lives, characters, and transactions of its sovereigns. It is said, that all the facts which concern the monarchy since its foundation, have been deposited in this department, and from age to age have been arranged according to the order of times under the inspection of government, and with all the precautions against illusion or partiality that could be suggested: These precautions have been carried so far, that the history of the reign of each Imperial family has only been published after the extinction of that family, and was kept a profound secret during the dynasty, that neither fear nor flattery might adulterate the truth. It is asserted, that many of the Chinese historians exposed themselves to exile, and even to death, rather than disguise the defects and vices of the sovereign. But the emperor Chi-hoang-ti; at whose command the great wall was built, in the year 213 before the Christian æra, ordered all the historical books and records, which contained the fundamental laws and principles of the ancient government, to be burnt, that they might not be employed by the learned to oppose his authority, and the changes he proposed to introduce into the monarchy. Four hundred literati were burnt, with their books; yet this barbarous edict had not its full effect; several books were concealed, and escaped the general ruin: After this period, strict search was made for the ancient books and records that yet remained; but though much industry was employed for this purpose, it appears that the authentic historical sources of the Chinese; for the times anterior to the year 200 before Christ, are very few, and that they are still in smaller numbers for more remote periods. But notwithstanding the depredations that have been made upon the Chinese history, it is still immensely voluminous, and has been judged by some writers superior to that of all other nations. Of the grand annals before mentioned, which amount to 668 volumes, a copy is preserved in the library of the French nation. A chronological abridgement of this great work, in one hundred volumes, was published in the 10th year of the reign of Kang-hi; that is, in the year 1703. This work is generally called Kam-mo, or the abridgement. From these materials the abbé Grosier proposed to publish at Paris, in the French

language, a General History of China, in 12 volumes 4to. some of which have been printed; and a smaller work in 12 volumes 8vo. by the late Father de Mailla, missionary at Peking, has lately been published.

But the limits to which our work is confined will not permit us to enlarge upon so copious a subject as that of the Chinese history; and which, indeed, would be very uninteresting to the generality of European readers. A succession of excellent princes, and a duration of domestic tranquillity, united legislation with philosophy, and produced their Fo-hi, whose history is enveloped in mysteries, their Li-Laokum, and, above all, their Confucius, at once the Solon and the Socrates of China. After all, the internal revolutions of the empire, though rare, produced the most dreadful effects, in proportion as its constitution was pacific, and they were attended with the most bloody exterminations in some provinces: so that though the Chinese empire is hereditary, the imperial succession was more than once broken into, and altered. Upwards of twenty dynasties or different tribes and families of succession, are enumerated in their annals.

Neither the great Zinghis Khan, nor Tamerlane, though they often defeated the Chinese, could subdue their empire, and neither of them could keep the conquests they made there. Their celebrated wall proved but a feeble barrier against the arms of those famous Tartars. After their invasions were over, the Chinese went to war with the Manchew Tartars, while an indolent worthless emperor, Tsong-tching, was upon the throne. In the mean while, a bold rebel, named Li-cong-tse, in the province of Se-tchuen, dethroned the emperor, who hanged himself, as did most of his courtiers and women. Ou-san-quey, the Chinese general, on the frontiers of Tartary, refused to recognise the usurper, and made a peace with Tsongate, or Chun-teli, the Manchew prince, who drove the usurper from the throne, and took possession of it himself, about the year 1644. The Tartar maintained himself in his authority, and, as has been already mentioned, wisely incorporated his hereditary subjects with the Chinese, so that in effect Tartary became an acquisition to China. He was succeeded by a prince of great natural and acquired abilities, who was the patron of the Jesuits, but knew how to check them when he found them intermeddling with the affairs of his government. About the year 1661, the Chinese, under this Tartar family, drove the Dutch out of the island of Formosa, which the latter had taken from the Portuguese.

In the year 1771, all the Tartars which composed the nation of the Tourgouths, left the settlements which they had under the Russian government on the banks of the Wolga, and the Iaick, at a small distance from the Caspian sea, and in a vast body of fifty thousand families, they passed through the country of the Haskaks; after a march of eight months, in which they surmounted innumerable difficulties and dangers, they arrived in the plains that lie on the frontier of Carapen, not far from the banks of the river Ily, and offered themselves as subjects to Chen-Lung, emperor of China, who was then in the thirty-sixth year of his reign. He received them graciously, furnished them with provisions, clothes, and money, and allotted to each family a portion of land for agriculture and pasturage. The year following there was a second emigration of about thirty thousand other Tartar families, who also quitted the settlements which they enjoyed under the Russian government, and submitted to the Chinese sceptre. The emperor caused the history of these emigrations to be engraven upon stone in four different languages.

The hopes which were lately indulged of the great and manifold advantages to be derived from the embassy of lord Macartney to the court of Peking have ended in disappointment. Never, perhaps, was there a character better qualified for the management of an embassy of such delicacy and importance than lord Macartney: but, notwithstanding his lordship's adroitness, he found it utterly impossible to obtain permission for the residence of an Englishman at the capital of China, as ambassador, consul, or in any other character, or any exclusive settlement for the English within the Chinese dominions, even on a temporary grant, and solely for the purposes of trade. According to a fundamental principle in Chinese politics, innovation, of whatever kind, is held to be inevitably pregnant with ruin; and on this principle the emperor declined to admit a foreign resident at the court of Peking, or to expand the principles on which our commercial intercourse with this country are at present regulated and confined.

The embassy arrived in the river Pei-ho, in the gulf of Peking, the beginning of August 1793, and on the 21st of the same month reached the city of Peking. They remained here till the beginning of September, when they were conducted to Zhe-hol, or Jehol, one of the emperor's country residences in Tartary, distant about forty or fifty leagues from Peking. Here they had their audience of the emperor, who accepted the presents they had brought in the most gracious manner, and returned others of great value, of which two are so singular as to claim particular notice. The one is a poem addressed to his Britannic majesty, the composition of the emperor himself, and in his own handwriting; it is lodged in a black, wooden, carved box, of no great value, but as an antique, to which character it has a just claim, having been two thousand years in the possession of the imperial family of China. The other present is a mass of costly agate, of unequalled size and beauty. It has always been the practice with the emperor to hold this agate in his hand, and to fix his eyes upon it, whenever he spoke to a mandarin, or any of his ministers; as to look upon a subject is considered as not only derogatory to the imperial dignity, but to confer too much honour on the individual addressed.

Chen-Lung, the present emperor of China, appeared, at the time he gave audience to the embassy, to be perfectly unreserved, cheerful, and unaffected; his eyes were full and clear, and his countenance open. He was clad in plain dark silk, with a velvet bonnet, in form not much different from the bonnet of Scotch Highlanders; on the front of it was placed a large pearl, which was the only jewel or ornament he appeared to have about him.

Chen-Lung ascended the throne of China in the year 1736. He is only the fourth sovereign of the Tartar dynasty, which took possession of the throne of China about the year 1644. He has given public notice to his subjects, that in the sixtieth year of his reign (1796) he should retire from the cares of government, and appoint a successor; but whether his abdication has actually taken place, seems not yet to be known with certainty in Europe, though reports which affirm it have been received.

INDIA IN GENERAL.

SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES. } THIS vast country is situated between the 66th and 100th degrees of East longitude, and between 1 and 40 of North latitude. It is bounded on the North, by the countries of Ubec Tartary and Thibet; on the South, by the Indian Ocean; on the East, by China and the Chinese Sea; and on the West, by Persia and the Indian Sea,

DIVISIONS. } I shall divide, as others have done, India at large into three greater parts: first, the Peninsula of India beyond the Ganges, called the Farther Peninsula; secondly, the main land, or the Mogul's empire; thirdly, the Peninsula within or on this side the Ganges; all of them vast, populous, and extended empires. But it is necessary, in order to save many repetitions, to premise an account of some particulars that are in common to those numerous nations, which shall be extracted from the most enlightened of our modern writers who have visited the country in the service of the East India company.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, RELIGION, AND GOVERNMENT. } Mr. Orme, an excellent and authentic historian, comprehends the two latter divisions under the title of Indostan. The Mahometans (says he), who are called Moors, of Indostan, are computed to be about ten millions, and the Indians about a hundred millions. Above half the empire is subject to rajahs or kings, who derive their descent from the old princes of India, and exercise all rights of sovereignty, only paying a tribute to the Great Mogul, and observing the treaties by which their ancestors recognised his superiority. In other respects, the government of Indostan is full of wise checks upon the overgrowing greatness of any subject; but (as all precautions of that kind depend upon the administration) the indolence and barbarity of the Moguls or emperors, and their great viceroys, have rendered them fruitless.

The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos; or, as others call them, Hindoos, and the country Hindoostan. They pretend that Brumma, who was their legislator both in politics and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he existed many thousand years before our account of the creation. This Brumma, probably, was some great and good man, whose beneficence, like that of the pagan legislators, led his people and their posterity to pay him divine honours. The Brahmins (for so the Gentoos priests are called) pretend, that he bequeathed to them a book called the Vedam, containing his doctrines and institutions; and that though the original is lost, they are still possessed of a commentary upon it, called the Shahstah, which is wrote in the Shanscrit, now a dead language, and known only to the Brahmins.

The foundation of Brumma's doctrine consisted in the belief of a Supreme Being, who has created a regular gradation of beings, some superior, and some inferior to man; and in the immortality of the soul, and a future state of rewards and punishments, which is to consist of a transmigration into different bodies, according to the lives they have led in their pre-existent state. From this it appears more than probable, that the Pythagorean metempsychosis took its rise in India. The necessity of inculcating this sublime, but otherwise complicated doctrine, in

the lower ranks, induced the Brahmins, who are by no means unanimous in their doctrines, to have recourse to sensible representations of the Deity and his attributes; so that the original doctrines of Brumma have degenerated into idolatry, in the worship of different animals, and various images, of the most hideous figures, delineated or carved.

The Hindoos have, from time immemorial, been divided into four great tribes. The first and most noble tribe are the Brahmins, who alone can officiate in the priesthood, like the Levites among the Jews. They are not, however, excluded from government, trade, or agriculture, though they are strictly prohibited from all menial offices, by their laws. The second in order is the Sitti tribe, who, according to their original institution, ought to be all military men; but they frequently follow other professions. The third is the tribe of Beise, who are chiefly merchants, bankers, and banias or shop-keepers. The fourth tribe is that of Sudder, who ought to be menial servants, and they are incapable of raising themselves to any superior rank. If any one of them should be excommunicated from any of the four tribes, he and his posterity are for ever shut out from the society of every person in the nation, excepting that of the Harri cast, who are held in utter detestation by all the other tribes, and are employed only in the meanest and vilest offices. This circumstance renders excommunication so dreadful, that any Hindoo will suffer the torture, and even death itself, rather than deviate from one article of his faith.

Besides this division into tribes, the Gentoos are also subdivided into casts or small classes and tribes; and it has been computed that there are eighty-four of these casts, though some have supposed there was a greater number. The order of pre-eminence of all the casts, in a particular city or province, is generally indisputably decided. The Indian of an inferior would think himself honoured by adopting the customs of a superior cast: but this latter would give battle sooner than not vindicate its prerogatives: the inferior receives the victuals prepared by a superior cast with respect, but the superior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior cast. Their marriages are circumscribed by the same barriers as the rest of their intercourse, and hence, besides the national physiognomy, the members of each cast preserve an air of still greater resemblance to one another. There are some casts remarkable for their beauty, and others as remarked for their ugliness.

The members of each cast, says Dr. Robertson, adhere invariably to the profession of their forefathers. From generation to generation, the same families have followed, and will always continue to follow, one uniform line of life. To this may be ascribed that high degree of perfection conspicuous in many of the Indian manufactures; and though veneration for the practices of their ancestors may check the spirit of invention, yet, by adhering to these, they acquire such an expertness and delicacy of hand, that Europeans, with all the advantages of superior science, and the aid of more complete instruments, have never been able to equal the exquisite execution of their workmanship. While this high improvement of their more curious manufactures excited the admiration, and attracted the commerce of other nations, the separation of professions in India, and the early distribution of the people into classes attached to particular kinds of labour, secured such abundance of the more common and useful commodities, as not

only supplied their own wants, but ministered to those of the countries around them.

To this early division of the people into casts, we must likewise ascribe a striking peculiarity in the state of India; the permanence of its institutions, and the immutability in the manners of its inhabitants. What now is in India, always was there, and is still likely to continue; neither the ferocious violence and illiberal fanaticism of its Mahomedan conquerors, nor the power of its European masters, have effected any considerable alteration. The same distinctions of condition take place, the same arrangements in civil and domestic society remain, the same maxims of religion are held in veneration, and the same sciences and arts are cultivated. Hence, in all ages, the trade with India has been the same; gold and silver have uniformly been carried thither in order to purchase the same commodities with which it now supplies all nations; and from the age of Pliny to the present times, it has always been considered and execrated as a gulf which swallows up the wealth of every other country, that flows incessantly towards it, and from which it never returns*.

All these casts acknowledge the Brahmins for their priests, and from them derive their belief of the transmigration; which leads many of them to afflict themselves even at the death of a fly, although occasioned by inadvertence. But the greater number of casts are less scrupulous, and eat, although very sparingly, both of fish and flesh; but, like the Jews, not of all kinds indifferently. Their diet is chiefly rice and vegetables, dressed with ginger, turmeric, and other hotter spices, which grow almost spontaneously in their gardens. They esteem milk the purest of foods, because they think it partakes of some of the properties of the nectar of their gods, and because they esteem the cow itself almost like a divinity.

Their manners are gentle; their happiness consists in the solaces of a domestic life; and they are taught by their religion, that matrimony is an indispensable duty in every man, who does not entirely separate himself from the world from a principle of devotion. Their religion also permits them to have several wives; but they seldom have more than one; and it has been observed, that their wives are distinguished by a decency of demeanour, a solicitude in their families, and a fidelity to their vows, which might do honour to human nature in the most civilised countries. The amusements of the Hindoos consist in going to their pagodas, in assisting at religious shows, and in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies prescribed to them by the Brahmins. Their religion forbids them to quit their own shores†; nor do they want any thing from

* Dr. Robertson's Historical Disquisition concerning India, Appendix, p. 261, 262.

† The Gentoos are persuaded, that the waters of the three great rivers, Ganges, Kistna, and Indus, have the sacred virtue of purifying those who bathe in them from all pollutions and sins. This religious idea seems to be founded on a principle of policy, and intended to restrain the natives from migrating into distant countries: for it is remarkable, that the sacred rivers are so situated, that there is not any part of India where the inhabitants may not have an opportunity of washing away their sins. The Ganges, which rises in the mountains of Thibet, with its different branches, runs through the kingdoms of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, and the upper provinces of Oude, Rohilcunde, Agra, Delhi, and Lahore. The Kistna divides the Carnatic from Golconda, and runs through the Visapore into the interior parts of the Deccan. And the Indus, bounding the Guzurat provinces, separates Indostan from the dominions of Persia.

abroad. They might, therefore, have lived in much tranquillity and happiness, if others had looked on them with the same indifference with which they regard the rest of the world.

The soldiers are commonly called Rajah-poots, or persons descended from Rajahs, and reside chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair-complexioned than the people of the southern provinces, who are quite black. These rajah-poots are a robust, brave, faithful people, and enter into the service of those who will pay them; but when their leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finished, and they run off the field without any stain upon their reputation.

The custom of women burning themselves upon the death of their husbands, still continues to be practised, though much less frequently than formerly. The Gentoos are as careful of the cultivation of their lands, and their public works and conveniences, as the Chinese; and there scarcely is an instance of a robbery in all Indostan, though the diamond merchants travel without defensive weapons.

RELIGION.] The institutions of religion, publicly established in all the extensive countries stretching from the banks of the Indus to Cape Comorin, present to view an aspect nearly similar. They form a regular and complete system of superstition, strengthened and upheld by every thing which can excite the reverence and secure the attachment of the people. The temples consecrated to their deities, are magnificent, and adorned not only with rich offerings, but with the most exquisite works in painting and sculpture, which the artists highest in estimation among them were capable of executing. The rites and ceremonies of their worship are pompous and splendid, and the performance of them not only mingles in all the transactions of common life, but constitutes an essential part of them. The Brahmins, who, as ministers of religion, preside in all its functions, are elevated above every other order of men, by an origin deemed not only more noble, but acknowledged to be sacred. They have established among themselves a regular hierarchy and gradation of ranks, which, by securing subordination in their own order, adds weight to their authority, and gives them a more absolute dominion in the minds of the people. This dominion they support by the command of the immense revenues with which the liberality of princes, and the zeal of pilgrims and devotees, have enriched their pagodas.

The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos are stupendous but disgusting stone buildings, erected in every capital, and under the direction of the Brahmins. To this, however, there are some exceptions; for in proportion to the progress of the different countries of India in opulence and refinement, the structure of their temples gradually improved. From plain buildings they became highly ornamented fabrics, and, both by their extent and magnificence, are monuments of the power and taste of the people by whom they were erected. In this highly finished style there are pagodas of great antiquity in different parts of Indostan, particularly in the southern provinces, which were not exposed to the destructive violence of Mahomedan zeal. In order to assist my readers in forming a proper idea of these buildings, I shall briefly describe two, of which we have the most accurate accounts. The entry to the pagoda of Chillambrum, near Porto Novo, on the Coromandel coast, held in high veneration on account of its antiquity, is by a stately gate under a pyramid, a hundred and twenty two feet in height, built with large stones above forty feet long, and more than five feet square, and

covered with plates of copper, adorned with an immense variety of figures, neatly executed. The whole structure extends one thousand, three hundred, and thirty-two feet in one direction, and nine hundred and thirty-six in another. Some of the ornamental parts are finished with an elegance entitled to admiration.

The pagoda of Seringham, superior in sanctity to that of Chillambrum, surpasses it as much in grandeur. This pagoda is situated about a mile from the western extremity of the island of Seringham, formed by the division of the great river Caveri into two channels. "It is composed of seven square inclosures, one within the other, the walls of which are twenty-five feet high, and four thick. These inclosures are three hundred and fifty feet distant from one another, and each has four large gates with a square tower; which are placed one in the middle of each side of the inclosures, and opposite to the four cardinal points. The outward wall is near four miles in circumference, and its gateway to the south is ornamented with pillars, several of which are single stones thirty-three feet long, and nearly five in diameter; and those which form the roof are still larger: in the inmost inclosures are the chapels. Here, as in all the other great pagodas of India, the Brahmins live in a subordination which knows no resistance, and slumber in a voluptuousness which knows no wants *."

If the Brahmins are masters of any uncommon art or science, they frequently turn it to the purposes of profit from their ignorant votaries. Mr. Scrafton says, that they know how to calculate eclipses; and that judicial astrology is so prevalent among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head astrologer being always consulted in their councils. The Mahometans likewise encourage those superstitions, and look upon all the fruits of the Gentoos industry as belonging to themselves. Though the Gentoos are entirely passive under all their oppressions, and, by their state of existence, the practice of their religion, and the scantiness of their food, have nothing of that resentment in their nature that animates the rest of mankind; yet they are susceptible of avarice, and sometimes bury their money, and, rather than discover it, put themselves to death by poison or otherwise. This practice, which it seems is not uncommon, accounts for the vast scarcity of silver that, till of late, prevailed in Indostan.

The reasons above mentioned account likewise for their being less under the influence of their passions than the inhabitants of other countries. The perpetual use of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nourishment; and their marrying early, the males before fourteen, and their women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their persons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the beauty of their women is on decay at eighteen: at twenty-five they have all the marks of old age. We are, therefore, not to wonder at their being soon strangers to all personal exertion and vigour of mind; and it is with them a frequent saying, that it is better to sit than to walk, to lie down than to sit, to sleep than to wake, and death is the best of all.

The Mahometans, who, in Indostan, are called Moors, are of Persian, Turkish, Arabic, and other extractions. They early began, in the reigns of the caliphs of Bagdad, to invade Indostan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They settled colonies in several places, whose descendants are called Tytans; but their em-

* Orme's Hist. of Milit. Transact. of Indostan, vol. i. p. 178.

pire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government, which still subsists. Those princes being strict Mahometans, received under their protection all that professed the same religion, and who being a brave active people, counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. They are said to have introduced the division of provinces, over which they appointed soubahs; and those provinces, each of which might be styled an empire, were subdivided into nabobships; each nabob being immediately accountable to his soubah, who, in process of time, became almost independent on the emperor, or, as he is called, the Great Mogul, upon their paying him an annual tribute. The vast resort of Persian and Tartar tribes has likewise strengthened the Mahometan government; but it is observable, that in two or three generations, the progeny of all those adventurers, who brought nothing with them but their horses and their swords, degenerated into eastern indolence and sensuality.

Of all those tribes, the Marattas at present make the greatest figure. They are a kind of mercenaries, who live on the mountains between Indostan and Persia. They commonly serve on horseback, and, when well commanded, they have been known to give law even to the court of Delhi. Though they are originally Gentoos, yet they are of bold active spirits, and pay no great respect to the principles of their religion. Mr. Scrafton says, that the Mahometans or Moors are void of every principle, even of their own religion; and if they have a virtue, it is an appearance of hospitality, but it is an appearance only, for while they are drinking with, and embracing a friend, they will stab him to the heart. But it is probable, that these representations of their moral depravity are carried beyond the bounds of truth.

The people of Indostan are governed by no written laws; nor is there a lawyer in their whole empire; and their courts of justice are directed by precedents. The Mahometan institutes prevail only in their great towns and their neighbourhood. The empire is hereditary, and the emperor is heir only to his own officers. All lands go in the hereditary line, and continue in that state even down to the subtenants, while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latter their rent, both which are immutably fixed in the public books of each district. The imperial demesne lands are those of the great rajah families, which fell to Tamerlane and his successors. Certain portions of them are called jaghire lands, and are bestowed by the crown on the great lords or omrahs, and, upon their death, revert to the emperor; but the rights of the subtenants, even of those lands, are indefeasible.

Such are the outlines of the government by which this great empire long subsisted, without almost the semblance of virtue among its great officers, either civil or military. It was shaken, however, after the invasion of Mahomet Shah, by Kouli Khan, which was attended by so great a diminution of the imperial authority, that the soubahs and nabobs became absolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they invented new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their armies and support their power; so that many of the people, a few years ago, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and tax-masters, were left to perish through want. To sum up the misery of the inhabitants, those soubahs and nabobs, and other Mahometan governors, employ the Gentoos themselves, and some even of the Brahmins, as the ministers of their rapaciousness and cruelties. Upon the whole, ever since the invasion of Kouli Khan, Indostan, from being a well-regulated government, is

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become a scene of mere anarchy or stratocracy; every great man protects himself in his tyranny by his soldiers, whose pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government. As private assassinations and other murders are here committed with impunity, the people, who know they can be in no worse state, concern themselves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above causes are owing the late successes of the English in Indostan.

The complexion of the Gentoos is black, their hair long, and the features of both sexes regular. At court, however, the great families are ambitious of intermarrying with Persians and Tartars, on account of the fairness of their complexion, resembling that of their conqueror Tamerlane, and his great generals.

The PENINSULA of INDIA beyond the GANGES, called the FARTHER PENINSULA.

		DETERMINATION AND EXTENT.		
	Miles.	Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	2000	between 1 and 30 north latitude.	}	741,500
Breadth	1000	92 and 109 east longitude.		

BOUNDARIES.] THIS peninsula is bounded by Thibet and China, on the North; by China and the Chinese Sea, on the East; by the same sea and the Straits of Malacca, on the South; and by the Bay of Bengal and the Hither India, on the West. The space between Bengal and China is now called the province of Mecklus, and other districts subject to the king of Ava, or Burmah.

G. divis. subdivis.		Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
On the north-west,	{ Acham	{ Chamdara	180,000
	{ Aia	{ Ava	
	{ Aracan	{ Aracan	
On the south-west,	{ Pegu	{ Pegu, E. long. 97. N. lat. 17-30	50,000
	{ Martaban	{ Martaban	170,000
	{ Siam	{ Siam, E. long. 100-55. N. lat. 14-18	
On the north-east,	{ Malacca	{ Malacca, E. long. 101. N. lat. 2-12	48,000
	{ Tonquin	{ Cachao, or Keccio, E. long. 105. N. lat. 21-30	112,000
On the south-east,	{ Laos	{ Lanchang	59,400
	{ C. China	{ Thoanoa	61,900
	{ Cambod.	{ Cambodia	
	{ Chiampa	{ Padram	60,200

NAME.] The name of India is taken from the river Indus, which of all others was the best known to the Persians. The whole of this peninsula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly so to the moderns.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] The air of the southern parts of this country is hot and dry, but in some places moist, and consequently unhealthy. The climate is subject to hurricanes, lightnings, and inundations, so

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that the people build their houses upon high pillars, to defend them from floods; and they have no other idea of seasons, but wet and dry. Easterly and westerly *monsoons*, or trade winds, prevail in this country. These run from North to South almost the whole length of the country; but the lands near the sea are low, and annually overflowed in the rainy season.

RIVERS.] The chief are Sampoo or Burrampooter, Domea, Mecon, Menan, and Ava, or the great river *Nou Kian*.

Of these, the Burrampooter, called Sampoo in the upper part of its course, is by far the most considerable. This rival filter of the Ganges issues from the same mountains that give birth to that river; but taking a contrary, i. e. an easterly direction, through Thibet, winds to the south-west through Assam; and entering Indostan, flows to the south, assumes the name of Megna, and joins the western branch of the Ganges with an immense body of water, equal, if not superior, to the Ganges itself.

These two noble rivers, when they approach the sea, divide into such a multitude of channels, and receive such a number of navigable streams, that a tract of country, nearly equal to Great Britain in extent, enjoys by their means the finest inland navigation that can be conceived, and which gives constant employment to 30,000 boatmen. These channels are so numerous that very few places in this tract are, even in the dry season, 25 miles from a navigable stream; and in the season of the periodical rains, they overflow their banks to the depth of 30 feet, and form an inundation that fertilises the soil to the extent of more than 100 miles*.

BAYS AND STRAITS.] The bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochin-China. The straits of Malacca and Sincapora. The promontories of Siam, Romana, and Banfac.

SOIL, AND PRODUCT OF THE } DIFFERENT NATIONS. The soil of this peninsula is fruitful in general, and produces all the delightful fruits that are found in other countries contiguous to the Ganges, as well as roots and vegetables; also saltpetre, and the best teek timber, or Indian oak, which for ship-building in warm climates is superior to any European oak. It abounds likewise in silks, elephants, and quadrupeds both domestic and wild, that are common in the southern kingdoms of Asia. The natives drive a great trade in gold, diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethysts, and other precious stones. Tonquin produces little or no corn or wine, but is the most healthful country of all the peninsula. In some places, especially towards the north, the inhabitants have swellings in their throats, said to be owing to the badness of their water.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, } AND DIVERSIONS. The Tonquinese are excellent mechanics, and fair traders; but greatly oppressed by their king and great lords. The king engrosses the trade, and his factors sell by retail to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquinese are fond of lacker houses, which are unwholesome and poisonous. The people in the south are a savage race, and go almost naked, with large silver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or shell bracelets. In Tonquin and Cochin-China, the two sexes are scarcely distinguishable by their dress, which resembles that of the Persians. The people of quality are fond of English broad-cloth, red or green; and others wear a dark-coloured cotton cloth. In Azem, which is

* Major Rennell's Memoir, p. 255

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thought one of the best countries in Asia, the inhabitants prefer dog's-flesh to all other animal food. The people of that kingdom pay no taxes, because the king is sole proprietor of all the gold and silver and other metals found in his kingdom. They live, however, easily and comfortably. Almost every housekeeper has an elephant for the convenience of his wives and women; polygamy being practised all over India.

It is unquestionable, that those Indians, as well as the Chinese, had the use of gunpowder before it was known in Europe; and the invention is generally ascribed to the Azimese. The inhabitants of the southern division of this peninsula go under the name of Malayans, from the neighbouring country of Malacca.

Though the religious superstitions that prevail in this peninsula are extremely gross, yet the people believe in a future state; and when their kings are interred, a number of animals are buried with them, and such vessels of gold and silver as they think can be of use to them in their future life. The people of this peninsula are commonly very fond of show, and often make an appearance beyond their circumstances. They are delicate in no part of their dress but in their hair, which they buckle up in a very agreeable manner. In their food they are loathsome, for besides dogs, they eat rats, mice, serpents, and stinking fish. The people of Aracan are equally indelicate in their amours, for they hire Dutch and other foreigners to consummate the nuptials with their virgins, and value their women most when in a state of pregnancy. Their treatment of the sick is ridiculous, beyond belief; and in many places, when a patient is judged to be incurable, he is exposed on the bank of some river, where he is either drowned, or devoured by birds or beasts of prey.

The diversions common in this country are fishing and hunting, the celebrating of festivals, and acting comedies, by torch-light, from evening to morning.

[LANGUAGE.] The language of the court of Delhi is Persian, but in this peninsula it is chiefly Malayan, as we have already observed, interspersed with other dialects.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Brahmins, who are the tribe of the priesthood, descend from those Brachmans who are mentioned to us with so much reverence by antiquity; and although much inferior, either as philosophers or men of learning, to the reputation of their ancestors; as priests, their religious doctrines are still implicitly followed by the whole nation; and as preceptors, they are the source of all the knowledge which exists in Indostan. But the utmost stretch of their mathematical knowledge seems to be the calculation of eclipses. They have a good idea of logic; but it does not appear that they have any treatises on rhetoric; their ideas of music, if we may judge from their practice, are barbarous; and in medicine, they derive no assistance from the knowledge of anatomy, since dissections are repugnant to their religion.

The poetry of the Asiatics is too turgid, and full of conceits, and the diction of their historians very diffuse and verbose: but though the manner of eastern compositions differs from the correct taste of Europe, there are many things in the writings of Asiatic authors worthy the attention of literary men. Mr. Dow observes, that in the Shanscrit, or learned language of the Brahmins, which is the grand repository of the religion, philosophy, and history of the Hindoos, there are in particular many hundred volumes in prose, which treat of the ancient Indians and their history. The same writer also remarks, that the Shanscrit records

certain accounts of the affairs of the Western Asia very different from what any tribe of the Arabians have transmitted to posterity; and that it is more than probable, that, upon examination, the former will appear to bear the marks of more authenticity, and of greater antiquity, than the latter. The Arabian writers have been generally so much prejudiced against the Hindoos, that their accounts of them are by no means to be implicitly relied on.

Mr. Dow observes, that the small progress, which correctness and elegance of sentiment and diction have made in the East, did not proceed from a want of encouragement to literature. On the contrary, it appears, that no princes in the world patronised men of letters with more generosity and respect, than the Mahometan emperors of Indostan. A literary genius was not only the certain means to acquire a degree of wealth which must astonish Europeans, but an infallible road for rising to the first offices of the state. The character of the learned was at the same time so sacred, that tyrants, who made a pastime of embroiling their hands in the blood of their other subjects, not only abstained from offering violence to men of genius, but stood in fear of their pens.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] These vary in the different countries of this peninsula; but the chief branches have been already mentioned. The inhabitants, in some parts, are obliged to manufacture their salt out of ashes. In all handicraft trades that they understand, the people are more industrious, and better workmen, than most of the Europeans; and in weaving, sewing, embroidering, and some other manufactures, it is said, that the Indians do as much work with their feet as their hands. Their painting, though they are ignorant of drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. The fineness of their linen, and their fillagree work in gold and silver, are beyond any thing of those kinds to be found in other parts of the world. The commerce of India, in short, is courted by all trading nations in the world, and probably has been so from the earliest ages: it was not unknown even in Solomon's time; and the Greeks and Romans drew from thence their highest materials of luxury. The greatest share of it, through events foreign to this part of our work, is now centred in England, though that of the Dutch is still very considerable; that of the French has for some time declined; nor is that of the Swedes and Danes of much importance.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, } This article is so extensive, that
RARIETIES, AND CITIES. } it requires a slight review of the kingdoms that form this peninsula. In Azem, it has been already observed, the king is proprietor of all the gold and silver; he pays little or nothing to the Great Mogul; his capital is Ghergong, or Kirganu. We know very little of the kingdom of Tipra, but that it was anciently subject to the kings of Aracan; and that they send to the Chinese gold and silk, for which they receive silver in return. Aracan lies to the south of Tipra, and is governed by twelve princes, subject to the chief king, who resides in his capital. His palace is very large, and contains, as we are told, seven idols cast in gold, of two inches thick, each of a man's height, and covered over with diamonds and other precious stones. Pegu is about 350 English miles in length, and almost the same in breadth. In the year 1754, Pegu was reduced to the state of a dependent province by the king of Ava. Macao is the great mart of trade in Pegu. We know little of the kingdom of Ava. It is said the honours the King assumes are next to divine. His subjects

trade chiefly in musk and jewels, rubies and sapphires. In other particulars, the inhabitants resemble those of Pegu. In those kingdoms, and indeed in the greatest part of this peninsula, the doctrines of the Grand Lama of Thibet prevail, as well as those of the Brahmins.

The kingdom of Laos or Lahos formerly included that of Jangoma or Jangomay; but that is now subject to Ava; we know few particulars of it that can be depended upon. It is said to be immensely populous, to abound in all the rich commodities, as well as the gross superstitions of the East, and to be divided into a number of petty kingdoms, all of them holding of one sovereign, who, like his oriental brethren, is absolutely despotic, and lives in inexpressible pomp and magnificence; but is of the Lama religion, and often the slave of his priests and ministers.

The kingdom of Siam is rich and flourishing, and approaches, in its government, policy, and the quickness and acuteness of its inhabitants, very near to the Chinese. It is surrounded by high mountains, which, on the east side, separate it from the kingdoms of Camboja and Laos; on the west, from Pegu; and on the north, from Ava, or more properly, from Jangoma; on the south it is washed by the river Siam, and joins the peninsula of Malacca, the north-west part of which is under its dominion. The extent of the country, however, is very uncertain, and it is but indifferently peopled. The inhabitants of both sexes are more modest than any found in the rest of this peninsula. Great care is taken of the education of their children. Their marriages are simple, and performed by their talapoins, or priests, sprinkling holy water upon the couple, and repeating some prayers. The government is despotic: servants must appear before their masters in a kneeling posture; and the mandarins are prostrate before the king. Siam, the capital, is represented as a large city, but scarcely one sixth part of it is inhabited; and the palace is about a mile and a half in circuit. Bangkok, which stands about 18 leagues to the south of Siam, and 12 miles from the sea, is the only place towards the coast that is fortified with walls, batteries, and brass cannon; and the Dutch have a factory at Ligor, which stands on the east side of the peninsula of Malacca, but belonging to Siam.

The peninsula of Malacca is a large country, and contains several kingdoms or provinces. The Dutch, however, are said to be real masters and sovereigns of the whole peninsula, being in possession of the capital (Malacca). The inhabitants differ but little from others in their manner of living; and yet the Malayan language is reckoned the purest of any spoken in all the Indies. We are told by the latest travellers, that its chief produce is tin, pepper, elephants' teeth, canes, and gums. Some missionaries pretend that it is the Golden Chersonesus or peninsula of the ancients, and that the inhabitants used to measure their riches by bars of gold. The truth is, that the excellent situation of this country admits of a trade with India; so that when it was first discovered by the Portuguese, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, Malacca was the richest city in the East, next to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, the Japan, the Moluccas, and the Sunda trade. The country, however, at present, is chiefly valuable for its trade with the Chinese. This degeneracy of the Malayans, who were formerly an industrious ingenious people, is easily accounted for, by the tyranny of the Dutch, whose interest it is that they should never recover from their present state of ignorance and slavery.

The English carry on a smuggling kind of trade in their country

ships, from the coast of Coromandel and the Bay of Bengal, to Malacca. This commerce is connived at by the Dutch governor and council, who little regard the orders of their superiors, provided they can enrich themselves.

Cambodia, or Camboja, is a country little known to the Europeans; but according to the best information, its greatest length, from north to south, is about 520 English miles: and its greatest breadth, from west to east, about 398 miles. This kingdom has a spacious river running through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the country, on account of its sultry air, and the pestiferous gnats, serpents, and other animals bred in the woods. Its soil, commodities, trade, animals, and products by sea and land, are much the same with the other kingdoms of this vast peninsula. The betel, a creeping plant of a particular flavour, and, as they say, an excellent remedy for all those diseases that are common to the inhabitants of the East Indies, is the highest luxury of the Cambodians, from the king to the peasant; but it is very unpalatable and disagreeable to the Europeans. The same barbarous magnificence, despotism of the king, and ignorance of the people, prevail here as throughout the rest of the peninsula. Between Cambodia and Cochinchina, lies the little kingdom of Chiampa, the inhabitants of which trade with the Chinese, and seem therefore to be somewhat more civilised than their neighbours.

Cochinchina, or the western China, is situated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to some authors, about 500 miles in length; but it is much less extensive in its breadth from east to west. Laos, Cambodia, and Chiampa, as well as some other smaller kingdoms, are said to be tributary to Cochinchina. The manners and religion of the people seem to be originally Chinese; and they are much given to trade. Their king is said to be immensely rich, and his kingdom enjoys all the advantages of commerce that are found in the other parts of the East Indies; but this mighty prince, as well as the kings of Tonquin, are subject to the Chinese emperor.

The government of Tonquin is particular. The Tonquinese had revolted from the Chinese, which was attended by a civil war. A compromise at last took place between the chief of the revolt and the representative of the ancient kings, by which the former was to have all the executive powers of the government, under the name of Chouah: but that the Bua, or real king, should retain the royal titles, and be permitted some inconsiderable civil prerogatives within his palace, from which neither he nor any of his family can stir without permission of the chouah.

The chouah resides generally in the capital, Cachao, which is situated near the centre of the kingdom. The bua's palace is a vast structure, and has a fine arsenal. The English have a very flourishing factory on the north side of the city.

INDIA within the GANGES, or the Empire of the GREAT MOOUL.

SITUATION and EXTENT, including the Peninsula West of the Ganges.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2000 } Breadth 1500 }	between { 7 and 46 north latitude. } { 66 and 92 east longitude. }	870,910

BOUNDARIES.] THIS empire is bounded by Usbec Tartary and Thibet, on the North; by Thibet and the Bay of Bengal, on the East; by the Indian Ocean, on the South; by the same and Persia, on the West. The main land being the Mogul empire, or Indostan properly so called.

Grand Divisions:	Provinces.	Chief Towns:
The north-east division of India, containing the provinces of Bengal on the mouths of the Ganges, and those of the mountains of Naugracut.	Bengal proper	Calcutta Fort William } English Hoogley } Dacca } Malda, English, and Dutch Chatigan Cassumbazar
	Naugracut	Naugracut
	Jesuar	Rajapour
	Patna	Patna
	Necbal	Necbal
	Gore	Gore
	Rotas	Rotas
	Soret	Jaganal
	Jesselmere	Jesselmere
	Tata, or Sinda	Tata
	Bucknor	Bucknor
	Moultan	Moultan
	Haican	Haican
	Cabul	Cabul
	Candish	Medipour
Berar	Berar	
Chitor	Chitor	
Ratipor	Ratipor	
Navar	Navar	
Gualeor	Gualeor	
Agra	Agra	
Delhi	DELHI, E. long. 77.40. N. lat. 29	
Lahor, or Pencah	Lahor	
Hendowns	Hendowns	
Cassimere	Cassimere	
Jengapour	Jengapour	
Asmer, or Bando	Asmer	

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Bengal, and the greatest part of Bahar; in Orissa, or Orixia, only the district of Midnapour. The whole of the British possessions in this part of Indostan, contain about 150,000 square British miles of land; to which if we add the district of Benares, the whole will be 162,000; that is 30,000 more than are contained in Great Britain and Ireland; and near eleven millions of inhabitants. The total net revenue, including Benares, is about 287 lacks of Sicca rupees, which may be reckoned equal to 3,050,000l *. With their allies and tributaries, they now occupy the whole navigable course of the Ganges, from its entry on the plains to the sea, which by the winding course is more than 1350 miles.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The winds in this climate generally blow for six months from the south, and six from the north. April, May, and the beginning of June, are excessively hot, but refreshed by sea breezes; and in some dry seasons, the hurricanes, which tear up the sands, and let them fall in dry showers, are excessively disagreeable. The English, and consequently the Europeans in general, who arrive at Indostan, are commonly seized with some illness, such as flux, or fever, in their different appearances; but when properly treated, especially if the patients are abstemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy.

MOUNTAINS.] The most remarkable mountains are those of Caucasus and Naugracut, which divide India from Persia, Usbec Tartary, and Thibet; and are inhabited by Mahrattas, Afghans, or Patans, and other people more warlike than the Gentoos. The mountains of Balagant, which run almost the whole length of India, from north to south, are so high as to stop the western monsoon; the rains beginning sooner on the Malabar, than they do on the Coromandel coast.

RIVERS.] These are the Indus, called by the natives Sinda and Sindch; and the Ganges, both of them known to the ancients, and held in the highest esteem, and even veneration, by the modern inhabitants. Besides those rivers, many others water this country.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] These are the Indian Ocean; the Bay of Bengal; the Gulf of Cambaya; the Straits of Ramanakoel; Cape Comorin; and Diu.

INHABITANTS.] To what has been said of their religions and sects, in the general review of this great empire, it may be added, that the fakirs are a kind of Mahometan mendicants or beggars, who travel about, practising the greatest austerities; but many of them are impostors. Their number is said to be 800,000. Another set of mendicants are the joghis, who are idolaters, and much more numerous, but most of them are vagabonds and impostors, who live by amusing the credulous Gentoos with foolish fictions. The Banians, who are so called from their affected innocence of life, serve as brokers, and profess the Gentoos religion.

The Persees, or Parses of Indostan, are originally the Gaurs, described in Persia, but are a most industrious people, particularly in weaving, and architecture of every kind. They pretend to be possessed of the works of Zoroaster, whom they call by various names. They are known as paying divine adoration to fire, but it is said only as an emblem of the divinity.

The nobility and people of rank delight in hunting with the bow as well as the gun, and often train the leopards to the sports of the field.

* A considerable addition both to the territory and revenue of the East India company was obtained by the cessions in the late treaty of peace with Tippoo Sultan to the amount of 15,374 square miles, affording a revenue of 1,316,765 Coontary pagodas, equal to 411,450l.

They affect shady walks and cool fountains, like other people in hot countries. They are fond of tumblers, mountebanks, and jugglers; of barbarous music, both in wind and string instruments, and play at cards in their private parties. Their houses make no appearance, and those of the commonalty are poor and mean, and generally thatched, which renders them subject to fire; but the manufacturers choose to work in the open air; and the insides of houses belonging to principal persons are commonly neat, commodious, and pleasant, and many of them magnificent.

COMMERCE OF INDOSTAN.] The commerce and manufactures of India have already been mentioned; but the Mahometan merchants here carry on a trade that has not been described, which is that with Mecca, in Arabia, from the western parts of this empire, up the Red Sea. This trade is carried on in a particular species of vessels called junks, the largest of which, we are told, besides the cargoes, will carry 1700 Mahometan pilgrims to visit the tomb of their prophet. At Mecca they meet with Abyssinian, Egyptian, and other traders, to whom they dispose of their cargoes for gold and silver; so that a Mahometan junk returning from this voyage is often worth 200,000*l*.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } The province of Agra is the largest in all Indostan, containing 40 large towns and 340 villages. Agra is the greatest city, and its castle the largest fortification, in all the Indies. The Dutch have a factory there, but the English have not.

The city of Delhi, which is the capital of that province, is likewise the capital of Indostan. It is described as being a fine city, and containing the imperial palace, which is adorned with the usual magnificence of the East. Its stables formerly contained 12,000 horses, brought from Arabia, Persia, and Tartary; and 500 elephants. When the forage is burnt up by the heats of the season, as is often the case, these horses are said to be fed in the morning with bread, butter, and sugar, and in the evening with rice-milk properly prepared.

Tatta, the capital of Sindhia, is a large city; and it is said that a plague which happened there in 1699, carried off above 80,000 of its manufacturers in silk and cotton. It is still famous for its manufacture of palanquins, which are a kind of canopied couches, on which the great men all over India, Europeans as well as natives, repose when they appear abroad. They are carried by four men, who will trot along, morning and evening, forty miles a day; ten being usually hired, who carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time. Though a palanquin is dear at first cost, yet the porters may be hired for nine or ten shillings a month each, out of which they maintain themselves. The Indus, at Tatta, is about a mile broad, and famous for its fine carp.

Though the province of Moultan is not very fruitful, it yields excellent iron and canes; and the inhabitants, by their situation, are enabled to deal with the Persians and Tartars yearly for above 60,000 horses.

The province of Cassimere being surrounded with mountains, is difficult of access, but when entered, it appears to be the paradise of the Indies. It is said to contain 100,000 villages, to be stored with cattle and game, without any beasts of prey. The capital (Cassimere) stands by a large lake; and both sexes, the women especially, are almost as fair as the Europeans, and are said to be witty, dextrous, and ingenious.

The province and city of Labor formerly made a great figure in the Indian history, and is still one of the largest and finest provinces in the Indies, producing the best sugars of any in Indostan. Its capital was once about nine miles long, but is now much decayed. We know little

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tle of the provinces of Ayud, Varad, Bekar, Hallabas, that is not in common with the other provinces of Indostan, excepting that they are inhabited by a hardy race of men, who seem never to have been conquered, and though they submit to the Moguls, live in an easy, independent state. In some of those provinces many of the European fruits, plants, and flowers, thrive as in their native soil.

Bengal, of all the Indian provinces, is perhaps the most interesting to an English reader. It is esteemed the storehouse of the East Indies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile; and the produce of its soil consists of rice, sugar-canes, corn, sesamum, small mulberry and other trees. Its calicoes, silks, salt petre, lakka, opium, wax, and civet, go all over the world; and provisions here are in vast plenty, and incredibly cheap, especially pullets, ducks, and geese. The country is intersected by canals cut out of the Ganges for the benefit of commerce, and extends near 100 leagues on both sides the Ganges, full of cities, towns, castles, and villages.

In Bengal, the worship of the Gentoos is practised in its greatest purity, and their sacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with their magnificent pagodas or temples. The women, notwithstanding their religion, are said by some to be lascivious and enticing.

The principal English factory in Bengal is at Calcutta, and is called Fort William: it is situated on the river Hoogley, the most westerly branch of the Ganges. It is about 100 miles from the sea; and the river is navigable up to the town, for the largest ships that visit India. The fort itself is said to be irregular, and untenable against disciplined troops; but the servants of the company have provided themselves with an excellent house, and most convenient apartments for their own accommodation. As the town itself has been in fact for some time in possession of the company, an English civil government, by a mayor and aldermen, was introduced into it. This was immediately under the authority of the company. But, in 1773, an act of parliament was passed to regulate the affairs of the East India company, as well in India as in Europe. By this act, a governor-general and four counsellors were appointed, and chosen by the parliament, with whom was vested the whole civil and military government of the presidency of Fort William; and the ordering, management, and government of all the territorial acquisitions and revenues in the kingdom of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, so long as the company should remain possessed of them. The governor-general and council so appointed, are invested with the power of superintending and controlling the government and management of the presidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Bencoolen. The governor-general and council to pay obedience to the orders of the court of directors, and to correspond with them. The governor-general and counsellors are likewise empowered to establish a court of judicature at Fort William: to consist of a chief justice and three other judges, to be named from time to time by his majesty; they are to exercise all criminal, admiralty, and ecclesiastical jurisdiction: to be a court of record, and a court of oyer and terminer for the town of Calcutta, and factory at Fort William, and its limits; and the factories subordinate thereto. But the establishment of this supreme court does not appear to have promoted either the interests of the East India company, or the felicity of the people of the country. No proper attention has been paid to the manners and customs of the natives; acts of great oppression and injustice have been committed; and the supreme court has been a source of great dissatisfaction, disorder, and confusion. For the subsequent regulations

of the East India territories and company, we refer to our account in the History of England.

In 1756, an unhappy event took place at Calcutta, which is too remarkable to be omitted. The Indian nabob, or viceroy, quarrelled with the company, and invested Calcutta with a large body of black troops. The governor, and some of the principal persons of the place, threw themselves, with their chief effects, on board the ships in the river; they who remained, for some hours bravely defended the place; but their ammunition being expended, they surrendered upon terms. The foubah, a capricious unfeeling tyrant, instead of observing the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwel, the governor's chief servant, and 145 British subjects, into a little but secure prison, called the black-hole; a place about eighteen feet square, and shut up from almost all communication of free air. Their miseries during the night were inexpressible, and before morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the rest dying of suffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible phrensy. Among those saved was Mr. Holwel himself, who has written a most affecting account of the catastrophe. The insensible nabob returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had routed the English out of his dominions; but the seasonable arrival of admiral Watson, and colonel (afterwards lord) Clive, put them once more, with some difficulty, in possession of Calcutta; and the war was concluded by the battle of Plassey, gained by the colonel, and the death of the tyrant Surajah Dowla, in whose place Mhir Jaffer, one of his generals, who had previously signed a secret treaty with Clive to desert his master, and amply reward the English, was advanced of course to the foubahship.

The capital of Bengal, where the nabob keeps his court, is Patna, or Moorshedabad; and Benares, lying in the same province, is the Gentoo university, and celebrated for its sanctity.

Chandernagore is the principal place possessed by the French in Bengal; it lies higher up the river than Calcutta. But though strongly fortified, furnished with a garrison of 500 Europeans, and 1200 Indians, and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken by the English admirals Watson and Pococke, and colonel Clive; and also was taken the last war, but restored by the peace. Hoogley, which lies fifty miles to the north of Calcutta, upon the Ganges, is a place of prodigious trade for the richest of all Indian commodities. The Dutch have here a well-fortified factory. The search for diamonds is carried on by about 10,000 people, from Saumelpour, which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hoogley, for about fifty miles farther. Decca is said to be the largest city of Bengal, and the tide comes up to its walls. It contains an English and a Dutch factory. The other chief towns are Casfumbazar, Chiuchura, Barnagua, and Maldo; besides a number of other places of less note, but all of them rich in the Indian manufactures.

We know little concerning the province or foubah of Malva, which lies to the west of Bengal, but that it is as fertile as the other provinces; and that its chief cities are Ratipor, Ougein, and Indoor. The province of Candish includes that of Berar and part of Orixa, and its capital is Brampur, or Burhampoor, a flourishing city, which carries on a vast trade in chintzes, calicoes, and embroidered stuffs. Cattac is the capital of Orixa.

The above are the provinces belonging to the Mogul's empire, to the north of what is properly called the Peninsula within the Ganges. Those that lie to the southward fall into the description of the peninsula itself.

[HISTORY.] The first invader of this country, India, whose expedition is authentically recorded, was the famous Alexander of Macedon.

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Zinghis Khan also directed his force there in the year 1221, and made the emperor forsake his capital; he is said to have given the name of Mogul to India. Long before Tamerlane, descended in the female line from that conqueror, Mahometan princes had entered, made conquests, and established themselves in India. Walid, the sixth of the caliphs, named Ommiades, who ascended the throne in the 708th year of the Christian era, and in the 90th of the hegra, made conquests in India; so that the Koran was introduced very early into this country. Mahmoud, son of Sebategchin, prince of Gazna, the capital of a province separated by mountains from the north-west parts of India, and situated near Kandahar, carried the Koran with the sword into Indostan, in the year 1000 or 1002 of the Christian era. He treated the Indians with all the rigour of a conqueror, and all the fury of a zealot, plundering treasures, demolishing temples, and murdering idolaters throughout his route. The wealth found by him in Indostan is represented to be immense. The successors of this Mahmoud are called the dynasty of the Gaznavides, and maintained themselves in a great part of the countries which he had conquered in India until the year 1155, or 1157, when Kosron Schah, the 13th and last prince of the Gaznavide race, was deposed by Kussain Gauri, who founded the dynasty of the Gaurides, which furnished five princes, who possessed nearly the same dominions as their predecessors the Gaznavides. Scheabbedin, the fourth of the Gauride emperors, during the life of his brother and predecessor, Gatheddin, conquered the kingdoms of Moultan and Delhi, and drew thence prodigious treasures. But an Indian, who had been rendered desperate by the pollutions and insults to which he saw his gods and temples exposed, made a vow to assassinate Scheabbedin, and executed it. The race of Gaurides finished in the year 1212, in the person of Mahmoud, successor and nephew to Scheabbedin, who was also cut off by the swords of assassins. Several revolutions followed till the time of Tamerlane, who entered India at the end of the year 1398, descending more terrible than all its former inundations, from the centre of the northern part of the Indian Caucasus. This invincible barbarian met with no resistance sufficient to justify, even by the military maxims of Tartars, the cruelties with which he marked his way. But after an immense slaughter of human creatures, he at length rendered himself lord of an empire which extended from Smyrna to the banks of the Ganges. The history of the successors of Tamerlane, who reigned over Indostan with little interruption more than 350 years, has been variously represented; but all agree in the main, that they were magnificent and despotic princes; that they committed their provinces, as has been already observed, to rapacious governors; or to their own sons, by which their empire was often miserably torn in pieces. At length, the famous Aurengzebe, in the year 1667, though the youngest among many sons of the reigning emperor, after defeating or murdering all his brethren, mounted the throne of Indostan, and may be considered as the real founder and legislator of the empire. He was a great and a politic prince, and the first who extended his dominion, though it was little better than nominal, over the peninsula within the Ganges, which is at present so well known to the English. He lived so late as the year 1707, and it is said that some of his great officers of state were alive in the year 1750.

In 1713, four of his grandsons disputed the empire, which, after a bloody struggle, fell to the eldest, Mauzoldin, who took the name of Jehander Shah. This prince was a slave to his pleasures, and was go-

verna by his mistress so absolutely, that his great omrahs conspired against him, and raised to the throne one of his nephews, who struck off his uncle's head. The new emperor, whose name was Furrukhr, was governed and at last enslaved by two brothers of the name of Seyd, who abused his power so grossly, that being afraid to punish them publicly, he ordered them both to be privately assassinated. They discovered his intention, and dethroned the emperor, in whose place they raised a grandson of Aurengzebe, by his daughter, a youth of seventeen years of age, after imprisoning and strangling Furrukhr. The young emperor proved disagreeable to the brothers, and being soon poisoned, they raised to the throne his elder brother, who took the title of Shah Jehan. The rajahs of Indostan, whose ancestors had entered into stipulations, or what may be called *pacta conventa*, when they admitted the Mogul family, took the field against the two brothers; but the latter were victorious, and Shah Jehan was put in tranquil possession of the empire, but died in 1719. He was succeeded by another prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of Mahommed Shah, and entered into private measures with his great rajahs for destroying the Seyds, who were declared enemies to Nizam al Muluck, one of Aurengzebe's favourite generals. Nizam, it is said, was privately encouraged by the emperor to declare himself against the brothers, and to proclaim himself soubah of Decan, which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was assassinated by the emperor's order, and who immediately advanced to Delhi to destroy the other brother; but he no sooner understood what had happened, than he proclaimed the sultan Ibrahim, another of the Mogul princes, emperor. A battle ensued in 1720, in which the emperor was victorious, and is said to have used his conquest with great moderation, for he remitted Ibrahim to the prison from whence he had been taken; and Seyd, being likewise a prisoner, was condemned to perpetual confinement, but the emperor took possession of his vast riches. Seyd did not long survive his confinement; and upon his death, the emperor abandoned himself to the same course of pleasures that had been so fatal to his predecessors. As to Nizam, he became now the great imperial general, and was often employed against the Mahrattas, whom he defeated, when they had almost made themselves masters of Agra and Delhi. He was confirmed in his soubahship, and was considered as the first subject in the empire. Authors, however, are divided as to his motives for inviting Nadir Shah, otherwise Kouli Khan, the Persian monarch, to invade Indostan. It is thought, that he had intelligence of a strong party formed against him at court; but the truth perhaps is, that Nizam did not think that Nadir Shah could have success, and at first wanted to make himself useful by opposing him. The success of Nadir Shah is well known, and the immense treasure which he carried from Indostan in 1739. Besides those treasures, he obliged the Mogul to surrender to him all the lands to the west of the rivers Attock and Sind, comprehending the provinces of Peyshor, Kabul, and Gagna, with many other rich and populous principalities, the whole of them almost equal in value to the crown of Persia itself.

This invasion cost the Gentoos 200,000 lives. As to the plunder made by Nadir Shah, some accounts, and those too strongly authenticated, make it amount to the incredible sum of two hundred and thirty one millions sterling, as mentioned by the London Gazette of those times. The most moderate say that Nadir's own share amounted to considerably above seventy millions. Be that as it will, the invasion of Nadir Shah may be considered as putting a period to the greatness

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the Mogul empire in the house of Tamerlane. Nadir, however, when he had raised all the money he could in Delhi, re-instated the Mogul, Mahommed Shah, in the sovereignty, and returned into his own country. A general defection of the provinces soon after ensued; none being willing to yield obedience to a prince deprived of the power to enforce it. The provinces to the north-west of the Indus had been ceded to Nadir Shah, who being assassinated in 1747, Achmet Abdallah, his treasurer, an unprincipled man, but possessed of great intrepidity, found means, in the general confusion occasioned by the tyrant's death, to carry off three hundred camels loaded with wealth, whereby he was enabled to put himself at the head of an army, and march against Delhi with fifty thousand horse. Thus was the wealth, drawn from Delhi, made the means of continuing those miseries of war which it had at first occasioned. Prince Ahmet Shah, the Mogul's eldest son, and the visier, with other leading men, in this extremity, took the field with eighty thousand horse, to oppose the invader. The war was carried on with various success, and Mahommed Shah died before its termination. His son, Ahmed Shah, then mounted the imperial throne at Delhi; but the empire fell every day more into decay. Abdallah erected an independent kingdom, of which the Indus is the general boundary.

The Mahrattas, a warlike nation, possessing the south-western peninsula of India, had, before the invasion of Nadir Shah, exacted a chout or tribute from the empire, arising out of the revenues of the province of Bengal, which being withheld in consequence of the enfeebled state of the empire, the Mahrattas became clamorous. The empire began to totter to its foundation; every petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Delhi, laying claim to jaghires* and to districts. The country was torn to pieces by civil wars, and groaned under every species of domestic confusion. Ahmed Shah reigned only seven years, after which much disorder and confusion prevailed in Indostan, and the people suffered great calamities. At present, the imperial dignity of Indostan is vested in Shah Allum Zadah, who is universally acknowledged to be the true heir of the Tamerlane race; but his power is feeble: the city of Delhi, and a small territory round it, is all that is left remaining to the house and heir of Tamerlane, who depends upon the protection of the English, and whose interest it is to support him, as his authority is the best legal guarantee of their possessions.

We shall now conclude the history of Indostan with some account of the British transactions in that part of the world, since 1765, when they were quietly settled in the possession of the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, not indeed as absolute sovereigns, but as tributaries to the emperor. This state of tranquillity, however, did not long continue, for in 1767, they found themselves engaged in a very dangerous war with Hyder Ally, the sovereign of Mysore. This man had originally been a military adventurer, who learned the rudiments of the art of war in the French camp; and in the year 1753, had distinguished himself in their service. In 1763, having been advanced to the command of the army of Mysore, he deposed his sovereign, and usurped the supreme authority, under the title of regent. In a short time he extended his dominions on all sides, except the Carnatic, until at last his dominions equalled the island of Great Britain in extent, with a revenue of not less than four millions sterling annually. The discords which took place in

* Jaghire means a grant of land from a sovereign to a subject, revokable indeed at pleasure; but generally held for life.

various parts of Indostan, particularly among the Mahrattas, enabled him to aggrandise himself in such a manner, that his power soon became formidable to his neighbours; and in 1767, he found himself in danger of being attacked on one side by the Mahrattas, and on the other by the British. The former were bought off with a sum of money, and the latter were in consequence obliged to retire. Having soon, however, assembled all their forces, several obstinate engagements took place; and the British now, for the first time, found a steady opposition from an Indian prince. The war continued with various success during the years 1767, 1768, and part of 1769, when Hyder, with a strong detachment of his army, passing by that of the British, advanced within a little distance of Madras, where he intimidated the government into a peace upon his own terms. The advantages gained by this peace, however, were quickly lost by an unfortunate war with the Mahrattas, from whom, in the year 1771, he received a most dreadful defeat, almost his whole army being killed or taken. Hyder was now reduced to the necessity of allowing his enemies to desolate the country, till they retired of their own accord; after which he retrieved his affairs with incredible perseverance and diligence, so that in a few years he became more formidable than ever. In 1772, the Mahrattas made some attempts to get possession of the provinces of Corah, and some others, but were opposed by the British; who, next year, defeated and drove them across the river Ganges, when they had invaded the country of the Rohillas. On this occasion the latter had acted only as the allies of Sujah Dowla, to whom the Rohilla chiefs had promised to pay forty lacks of rupees for the protection afforded them; but when the money came to be paid, it was, under various pretences, refused; the consequence of which was, that the Rohilla country was next year (1774) invaded and conquered by the British, as well as several other large tracts of territory; by which means the boundary of Oude was advanced, to the westward, within twenty-five miles of Agra; north-westward to the upper part of the navigable course of the Ganges; and south-westward to the Jumna river.

In 1778, a new war commenced with the Mahrattas; on which occasion a brigade, consisting of 7000 Indian troops, commanded by British officers, traversed the whole empire of the Mahrattas, from the river Jumna to the western ocean. About this time the war with France broke out, and Hyder Ally, probably expecting assistance from the French, made a dreadful irruption into the Carnatic, at the head of 100,000 men. For some time he carried every thing before him; and having the good fortune to defeat, or rather destroy, a detachment of the British army, under colonel Baillie, it was generally imagined that the power of Britain in that part of the world would have soon been annihilated. By the happy exertions of sir Eyre Coote, however, to whom the management of affairs was now committed, the progress of this formidable adversary was stopped, and he soon became weary of a war, which was attended with incredible expense to himself, without any reasonable prospect of success. By the year 1782, therefore, Hyder Ally was sincerely desirous of peace, but died before it could be brought to a conclusion; and his rival, sir Eyre Coote, did not survive him above five months: a very remarkable circumstance, that the commanders in chief of two armies, opposed to each other, should both die natural deaths within so short a space of time.

To Hyder Ally succeeded his son, Tippoo Sultan, whose military prowess is well known. Of all the native princes of India, Tippoo was the most formidable to the British government, and the most hostile

to its authority. The peace of Mangalore, in 1784, had, it was supposed, secured his fidelity by very feeble ties; and the splendid embassy which, not long after that event, he dispatched to France, afforded much reason to apprehend that some plan was concerted between the old government of that country and the tyrant of Mysore, for the annoyance of Great Britain in its Indian possessions; but this plan was happily defeated by the French revolution.

The increasing power of Tippoo was not less formidable to the Dutch, than to the English; and the vicinity of Cochin, their most flourishing settlement on the continent of India, to the territories of that aspiring monarch, made them tremble for its safety. That sagacious people, however, have seldom been without their resources. Besides Cochin, the Dutch were possessed of two other forts, which were situated between Mysore and their favourite settlement; and one of them, Cranganore, had been taken by Hyder Ally in 1779, or 1780. When the war broke out in 1780 between Hyder and the English, he was obliged to evacuate his garrisons on the Malabar coast, to employ his force in the Carnatic; and Holland and France being soon after united with Hyder against the English, the Dutch embraced the opportunity of clandestinely taking possession, and re-garrisoning the fort: a measure which greatly offended Hyder, and of which he loudly complained. By the mediation, however, of France, a compromise took place, but upon what terms is uncertain.

From the vicinity of Cranganore and Acottah to his boundary, and their situation within the territory of an acknowledged tributary to Mysore (the rajah of Cochin), the possession of them was a most desirable object with Tippoo. In the month of June, 1789, he marched a formidable force towards Cranganore, with a professed intention of making himself master of it, upon a claim chiefly founded upon the transactions we have just related. Unable therefore to retain the possession of the forts themselves, and fearing for a settlement of much superior value, the Dutch readily entered into a negotiation with the rajah of Travancore for the purchase of them. That politic people easily saw, that by placing them in his hands, they erected a most powerful barrier, no less than the whole force of Great Britain (who was bound by treaty to assist him), against the encroachments of their ambitious neighbour upon their settlement at Cochin. The imprudence of the rajah, in entering upon such a purchase while the title was disputed, drew down upon him the heaviest censures from the government at Madras; and he was repeatedly cautioned both by sir Archibald Campbell, and Mr. Holland, his successor in the government, not to proceed in the negotiation. Such, however, was the ardour and temerity of the rajah in making this acquisition, that he not only concluded the purchase with the Dutch, but even treated with the rajah of Cochin, without the privity of Tippoo, though he was the acknowledged tributary of that prince, for some adjacent territory. The bargain was concluded in July, 1789, though it was not till the 4th of August that the rajah informed the Madras government, through their resident Mr. Powney, that he was on the point of making the purchase.

It was not probable that Tippoo would remain an indifferent spectator of these transactions. He insisted on the claim which he retained over these forts, in consequence of their being conquered by his father, and in consequence of the subsequent compromise. He asserted, that, according to the feudal laws, no transfer of them could take place with-

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out his consent, as sovereign of Mysore; and on the 29th of December, he made with a considerable force a direct attack upon the lines of Travancore. On receiving a remonstrance from the British government of Fort St. George, he desisted, and even apologized. From the 29th of December to the 1st of March, Tippoo Sultan remained perfectly quiet, still asserting his claims to the feudal sovereignty of the forts; but, it is confidently affirmed, offering to submit the dispute to an impartial arbitration.

On the first of March, 1790, the rajah's troops made an offensive attack upon Tippoo, who had continued quiet within his lines from the 29th of December. An engagement took place; and the British government conceived themselves bound to take an active part. No period appeared more favourable to humble Tippoo, if that was the object of the British administration. With all the other powers of India we were not only at peace, but treaties of alliance existed between Great Britain and the two most powerful states of India, the Nizam and the Mahrattas; and both declared themselves in perfect readiness to exert their utmost force to crush the rising power of Mysore.

We shall here present the reader with a brief account of the progress and termination of this war, by which the British power was more than ever established on the continent of Asia, from a narrative drawn up by major D'Alom, from journals and authentic documents.

It should be remembered, that the campaign here recorded was the third of our war with Tippoo Sultan. The *first* commenced in June, 1790, and concluded with that year. It was confined below the Ghauts. The *second* campaign contained the capture of Bangalore, which fixed the seat of war in the enemy's country, and concluded with the retreat of lord Cornwallis from Seringapatam, towards the end of May 1791. The *third* commences almost from that point, and terminates in March 1792. Observing, however, as the author very properly states, that, in the fine climate of Mysore, campaigns are regulated rather by plans of operations, than by seasons.

The narrative commences with unfavourable circumstances; the retreat of the two armies under general Abercromby and lord Cornwallis; the loss of cannon in both; an epidemic distemper among the cattle; and a dreadful scarcity of grain. These evils, however, vanished by degrees; the junction of the Mahrattas afforded a supply of necessaries, and arrangements were made for obtaining in future the most ample and regular provision of bullocks and grain, and for replacing the battering guns. On the return of the army to the vicinity of Bangalore, the operations began, which were to secure the communication with the Carnatic; and reduce the power of the enemy in those parts. The British force was immediately and successfully employed to reduce Oussoor, Rayacotta, and the other hill forts commanding the Policode pass. The next object was the forts to the north-east of Bangalore, which interrupted the communication with the Nizam's army, and with the Carnatic, by that route. These being soon reduced, Nandydroog, built on the summit of a mountain, about one thousand seven hundred feet in height, a place of greater magnitude and strength, was attacked, and after being besieged from September 22, was carried by assault, on the 18th of October, in spite of obstacles which might reasonably have been deemed insurmountable.

By means of dispositions made for that purpose, supplies of all kinds now came in from the Carnatic. Penagra was taken at the end of October; and Kistdagheri attacked on the 7th of November; this was

almost the only enterprize that was not completely successful; the lower fort and pettah were taken, but the upper fort maintained its defence, and the attack was relinquished. It seems that it could only have been carried by a *coup de main*, which unluckily failed. On the 2d of the same month, another instance of ill success happened to us; the relief of Coimbatore having been prevented, that garrison was obliged to capitulate to Cummier-ud-Deen Cawn, on terms which Tippoo did not afterwards fulfil.

Savendroog, or the Rock of Death, bore witness, in the month of December, to the ardour and perseverance of the British troops. This fortress, standing in the way between Bangalore and Seringapatam, is thus described: It is "a vast mountain of rock, and is reckoned to rise above half a mile in perpendicular height, from a base of eight or ten miles in circumference. Embraced by walls on every side, and defended by cross walls and barriers, wherever it was deemed accessible; this huge mountain had the farther advantage of being divided above by a chasm which separates the upper part into two hills, which, having each their defences, form two citadels capable of being maintained, independent of the lower works; and, affording a secure retreat, should encourage the garrison to hold out to the last extremity," p. 67. It is no less famed for its noxious atmosphere, occasioned by the surrounding hills and woods, than for its wonderful size and strength. Hence it derives its formidable name.

The sultan is said to have flattered himself, that before this place "half the Europeans would die of sickness, the other half be killed in the attack;" he was, however, mistaken. The garrison, fortunately for us, trusted more to the strength of the place than to their own exertions, and, on the 21st of December, only the 11th day of the siege, this fortress, hitherto deemed impregnable, was taken by assault in less than an hour, in open day, without the loss of a man, only one private soldier having been wounded.

Outredroog, and other forts, fell successively after this brilliant success. The forces of the allies were not equally fortunate during the same interval. The army of the Nizam, after a long siege of Gurramcondah, drew off to join our forces, and only left the place blockaded. To make amends for this failure, the Mahratta army, under Purseram Bhow, assisted by our engineers, took Hooly Onore, Bankapoor, Simoga, and other places. By the latter end of January, 1792, the whole allied force, excepting the Bombay army, was assembled in the vicinity of Hoolleadroog.

We come now to the operations against Seringapatam. On the first of February, 1792, the allies began their march, and by two o'clock on the 5th, were encamped across the valley of Milgotah, only six miles from the position of Tippoo before Seringapatam. It could not well be expected by the sultan that he should receive so early an attack as lord Cornwallis destined for him. His camp was strongly situated and fortified by a bound hedge, and several redoubts. Nevertheless, after causing his position to be reconnoitred in the morning of the 6th, the commander in chief issued orders for the attack that very evening. The army was to march at night in three divisions, and without cannon. "The plan of attack," says major Dirom, "was indeed bold beyond the expectation of our army; but, like a discovery in science, which excites admiration when disclosed, it had only to be known, to meet with general applause." The outlines of this great enterprize are generally known; the particulars cannot be detailed in this place, but are

related with great clearness by the historian, and so illustrated by the attendant plans, that the circumstances cannot be mistaken.

The result of this operation was, that Tippoo was driven from his camp into Seringapatam, all his redoubts taken, and a lodgement established on the island, in a strong position, where lieut. Stuart remained posted. All possible preparations were made, from this time, for taking the capital by assault; and they were such as probably would have been crowned with full success. On the 16th of February, the Bombay army, under general Abercromby, after overcoming various obstacles, joined the main army, and remained posted to the north-west of the city. On the 19th it was stationed on the south side of the Cavery, in a situation that seemed to give the Sultan much uneasiness. However, after attacking the advanced post of this army on the night of the 21st, Tippoo made no farther effort; and on the 24th, when the preparations for the general assault were in great forwardness, it was announced that preliminaries of peace were settled. The conferences for this purpose had begun on the 15th; but the operations on both sides continued till the 24th. After the cessation of arms, which then took place, the conduct of Tippoo Sultan was so equivocal and suspicious, as to make it necessary on our part to renew the preparations for the siege. Overawed, at length, by the firmness and decision of lord Cornwallis, and probably alarmed by the discontent of his own people, the reluctant sultan submitted to all the terms proposed; and on the 19th of March, the copies of the definitive treaty were delivered in form, by his sons, to lord Cornwallis, and the agents of the allied princes. The Nizam's son, prince Secunder Jah, and the Mahratta plenipotentiary, Hurry Punnt, thought it beneath their dignity to be present on this occasion in person, and were represented by their vakeels.

The substance of the treaty was: 1st. That Tippoo was to cede one half of his dominions to the allied powers. 2d. That he was to pay three crores and thirty lacks of rupees. 3d. That all prisoners were to be restored. 4th. That two of the sultan's three eldest sons were to become hostages for the due performance of the treaty.

Tippoo is said to have been prevailed upon with infinite difficulty to subscribe to the terms of peace; and now that all was settled, the uneasiness in the seraglio became extreme in parting with the boys, who were to be sent out as hostages. The sultan was again entreated to request they might be allowed to stay another day, in order to make suitable preparations for their departure; and lord Cornwallis, who had dispensed with their coming at the time the treaty was sent, had again the goodness to grant his request.

When the princes left the fort, which appeared to be manned as they went out, and every where crowded with people, who, from curiosity or affection, had come to see them depart, the sultan himself was on the rampart above the gateway. They were saluted by the fort on leaving it, and with twenty-one guns from the park as they approached our camp, where the part of the line they passed was turned out to meet them. The vakeels conducted them to the tents, which had been sent from the fort for their accommodation, where they were met by sir John Kennaway, the Mahratta and Nizam's vakeels, and from thence accompanied by them to head quarters.

The princes were each mounted on an elephant richly caparisoned, and seated in a silver howder [a canopied seat], and were attended by their father's vakeels, and the persons already mentioned, also on elephants. The procession was led by several camel harrarras [messengers] and seven standard-bearers, carrying small green flags suspended from

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rockets *, followed by one hundred pikemen, with spears inlaid with silver. Their guard of two hundred sepoy, and a party of horse, brought up the rear. In this order they approached head quarters, where the battalion of Bengal sepoy, commanded by captain Welch, appointed for their guard, formed a street to receive them.

Lord Cornwallis, attended by his staff, and some of the principal officers of the army, met the princes at the door of his large tent, as they dismounted from the elephants; and, after embracing them, led them in, one in each hand, to the tent; the eldest, Abdul Kalick, was about ten, the youngest, Mooza-ud-Deen, about eight years of age. When they were seated on each side of lord Cornwallis, Gullam Ally, the head vakeel, addressed his lordship as follows; "These children were this morning the sons of the sultan, my master; their situation is now changed, and they must look up to your lordship as their father."

Lord Cornwallis, who had received the boys as if they had been his own sons, anxiously assured the vakeel and the young princes themselves, that every attention possible would be shown to them, and the greatest care taken of their persons. Their little faces brightened up; the scene became highly interesting; and not only their attendants, but all the spectators, were delighted to see that any fears they might have harboured were removed, and that they would soon be reconciled to their change of situation, and to their new friends.

The princes were dressed in long white muslin gowns and red turbans. They had several rows of large pearls round their necks, from which was suspended an ornament consisting of a ruby and an emerald of considerable size, surrounded by large brilliants; and in their turbans, each had a sprig of rich pearls. Bred up from their infancy with infinite care, and instructed in their manners to imitate the reserve and politeness of age, it astonished all present to see the correctness and propriety of their conduct.

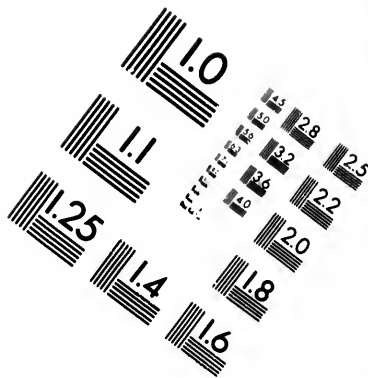
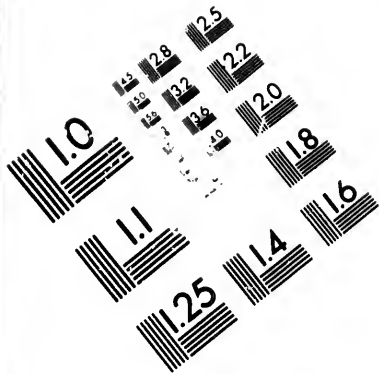
Thus ended a war in which the advantages gained by us may be briefly stated thus: — 1. Our most formidable enemy is so reduced by it, as to render our possessions in India both profitable and secure. 2. Madras is secured from invasion by possession of the passes, and covered by a territory defended by strong forts. 3. The value of Bombay is greatly enhanced by possessions gained on the Malabar coast, protected by Poligautcherry and the frontier of the Coorga Rajah. These advantages, it may be presumed, will far overbalance the expenses of the war. By a statement of major Dirom, it appears that Tipoo lost in this war sixty-seven forts, 801 cannons, and 49,340 men.

It is utterly impossible, says major Rennell, in the present imperfect state of our knowledge of the geography of the northern part of the peninsula (notwithstanding the present improvements), to describe, with any degree of accuracy, the boundaries of the new cessions to the Marattas and Nizam; or even the positions of all the principal places situated within them. A very good general idea may, however, be collected from the map, on which the countries ceded will be particularly marked.

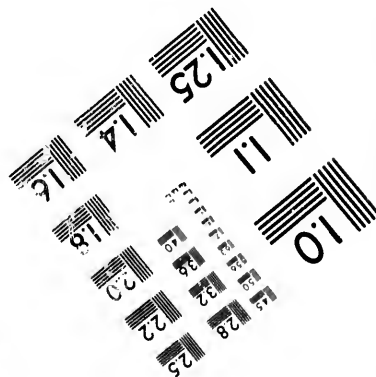
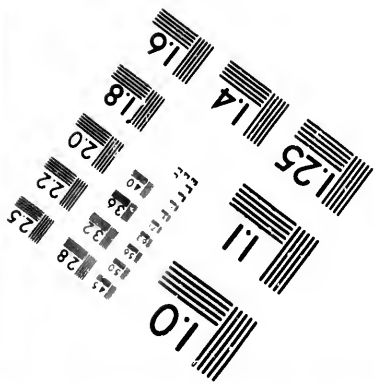
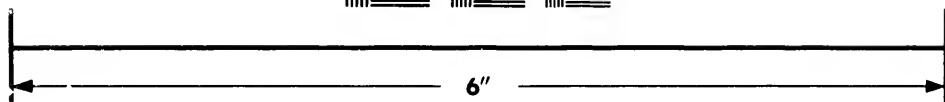
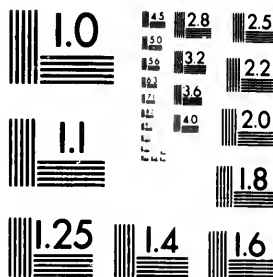
It would be unjust to withhold our approbation from lord Cornwallis in every thing that respects the conduct of the concluding campaign. Nothing that sound judgment could devise, or activity effect, appears to have been omitted. The humanity and goodness of his lordship were conspicuous during the whole of the enterprise; and his moderation and sound policy in the concluding scenes cannot be too highly extolled.

* *Rocket* is a missile weapon, consisting of an iron tube of about a foot long, and an inch in diameter, fixed to a bamboo rod of ten or twelve feet long.





**IMAGE EVALUATION
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As to the government and constitution of Indostan, we must refer to what we have already observed. The emperor of Indostan, or Great Mogul (so called from being descended from Tamerlane, the Mongul or Mogul Tartar), on his advancement to the throne, assumes some grand title; as, "The Conqueror of the World; the Ornament of the Throne," &c. but he is never crowned.

THE PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES.

Grand divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.	
The south-east coast of India, situate on the bay of Bengal, usually called the coast of Coromandel.	Madura	Madura	16,400	
	Tanjore	Tanjore		
	East side of Bishnagar, or Carnatic.	Tring Bar, Dines	Tring Bar, Dines	
		Negapatam, English	Negapatam, English	
		Bishnagar	Bishnagar	
		Porta-nova, Dutch	Porta-nova, Dutch	
		Fort St. David, English	Fort St. David, English	
	The south-west coast of India, usually called the coast of Malabar.	Pondicherry, French	Pondicherry, French	82,550
		Cymere	Cymere	
		Coblon	Coblon	
Sedraspatam, Dutch		Sedraspatam, Dutch		
St. Thomas, Portuguese		St. Thomas, Portuguese		
The south-west coast of India, usually called the coast of Malabar.	Fort St. George or Madras, E. long 80-45 N. lat. 13-5, English	Fort St. George or Madras, E. long 80-45 N. lat. 13-5, English		
	Pellicate, Dutch	Pellicate, Dutch		
	Golconda	Golconda	Golconda	62,100
		Gani, or Coulor, diamond mines	Gani, or Coulor, diamond mines	
	Orissa	Masulipatam, English and Dutch	Masulipatam, English and Dutch	
		Vizigapatam, English	Vizigapatam, English	
		Bimlipatan, Dutch	Bimlipatan, Dutch	
		Cattack	Cattack	
		Balsore, English	Balsore, English	
	The south-west coast of India, usually called the coast of Malabar.	Tegapatam, Dutch	Tegapatam, Dutch	
Anjengo, English		Anjengo, English		
Cochin, Dutch		Cochin, Dutch		
Calicut, English		Calicut, English		
Tellichery		Tellichery		
Deccan, or Visnapor.		Cannamore, Dutch	Cannamore, Dutch	
		Marigalore, Dutch and Portuguese	Marigalore, Dutch and Portuguese	
		Barcelore, Portuguese	Barcelore, Portuguese	
		Raolconda, island mines	Raolconda, island mines	
		Cawar, English	Cawar, English	
	Goa, Portuguese	Goa, Portuguese	82,000	
	Rajapore, French	Rajapore, French		
	Dabal, English	Dabal, English		
	Dundee, Portuguese	Dundee, Portuguese		
	Shoule	Shoule		
	Bombay, 100 and town, English, 18-18. N. lat. 72. 49. E. long.	Bombay, 100 and town, English, 18-18. N. lat. 72. 49. E. long.		
	Bassaim, Portuguese	Bassaim, Portuguese		
	Salfette, English	Salfette, English		

Grand divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The south-west coast of India, usually called the coast of Malabar.	Cambaya, or	Damoh, Portuguese Surat, English, 72° 50' N. lat.
	Guzarat.	Swaley Parak, English and Dutch Amedabad Cambaya Din, Portuguese

[REMARKS.] The Cattack or Mahanade, the Soane and Nabudda, the Budder, and the famous Kistna.

[CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND PRODUCE.] The chain of mountains already mentioned, running from north to south, render it winter on one side of this peninsula, while it is summer on the other. About the end of June, a south-west wind begins to blow from the sea, on the coast of Malabar, which, with continual rains, lasts four months, during which time all is serene upon the coast of Coromandel (the western and eastern coasts being so denominated). Towards the end of October, the rainy season and the change of the monsoons begin on the Coromandel coast, which being destitute of good harbours, renders it extremely dangerous for ships to remain there during that time; and to this is owing the periodical returns of the English shipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coast. The air is naturally hot upon this peninsula, but it is refreshed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is, from mid-night to noon it blows off the land, when it is tolerably hot; and during the other twelve hours from the sea, which last proves a great refreshment to the inhabitants of the coast. The produce of the soil is the same with that of the other part of the East Indies. The like may be said of their quadrupeds, fish, fowl, and noxious creatures and insects.

[INHABITANTS.] The inhabitants of this part are more black in complexion than those of the other peninsula of India, though lying nearer to the equator, which makes some suspect them to be the descendents of an ancient colony from Ethiopia. The greatest part of them have but a faint notion of any allegiance they owe to the emperor of Indostan, whose tribute from thence has been, ever since the invasion of Shah Nadir, intercepted by their soubahs and nabobs, who now exercise an independent power in the government; but besides those soubahs and other imperial viceroys, many estates in this peninsula belong to rajahs, or lords, who are descendents of their old princes, and look upon themselves as being independent of the Mogul and his authority.

[PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.] From what has been said above, this peninsula is rather to be divided into great governments or soubahships, than into provinces. One soubah often engrosses several provinces, and fixes the seat of his government according to his own conveniency. We shall speak of those provinces belonging to the Malabar or Coromandel coast, the two great objects of English commerce in that country; and first of the eastern, or Coromandel coast.

Madara begins at Cape Comorin, the southernmost point of the peninsula. It is about the bigness of the kingdom of Portugal, and is said to have been governed by a sovereign king, who had under him seventy tributary princes, each of them independent in his own dominions, but paying him a tax. At present the prince is scarcely able to protect himself and his people from the depredations of his neighbours,

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but by a tribute to buy them off; the capital is Trichinopoly. The chief value of this kingdom seems to consist in a pearl fishery upon its coast. Tanjore is a little kingdom, lying to the east of Madura. The soil is fertile, and its prince was rich, till plundered by the nabob of Arcot, and some British subjects connected with him. Within it lies the Danish East India settlement of Tranquebar, and the fortrefs of Negapatam, which was taken from the Dutch during the last war, and confirmed to the English by the treaty of peace: the capital city is Tanjore.

The Carnatic, as it is now called, is well known to the English. It is bounded on the east by the Bay of Bengal; on the north by the river Kistna, which divides it from Golconda; on the west by Visapour; and on the south by the kingdoms of Messaur and Tanjore; being in length, from south to north, about 345 miles, and 276 in breadth from east to west. The capital of the Carnatic is Bishnagar, belonging to the nabob of Arcot. The country in general is esteemed healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this country, upon the Coromandel coast, lies Fort St. David, or Cuddalore, belonging to the English, with a district round it. The fort is strong, and of great importance to our trade. Five leagues to the north lies Pondicherry, once the emporium of the French in the East Indies, but which has been repeatedly taken by the English, and as often restored by the treaties of peace.

Fort St. George, better known by the name of Madras, is the capital of the English East India Company's dominions in that part of the East Indies, and is distant eastward from London about 4,800 miles. Great complaints have been made of the situation of this fort; but no pains have been spared by the Company, in rendering it impregnable to any force that can be brought against it by the natives. It protects two towns, called, from the complexion of their several inhabitants, the White and the Black. The White Town is fortified, and contains an English corporation of a mayor and aldermen. Nothing has been omitted to amend the natural badness of its situation, which seems originally to be owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, which are but a week's journey distant. These mines are under the direction of a Mogul officer, who lets them out by admeasurement, and inclosing the contents by palisadoes; all diamonds above a certain weight originally belonged to the emperor. The district belonging to Madras, extending about 40 miles round, is of little value for its product; 80,000 inhabitants of various nations are said to be dependent upon Madras; but its safety consists in the superiority of the English by sea. It carries on a considerable trade with China, Persia, and Mocha.

Pellicate, lying to the north of Madras, belongs to the Dutch. The kingdom of Golconda, which, besides its diamonds, is famous for the cheapness of its provisions, and for making white wine of grapes that are ripe in January, has already been mentioned. Golconda is subject to a prince called the Nizam, or Soubah of the Deccan, who is rich, and can raise 100,000 men. The capital of his dominions is called Bagnagur, or Hyderabad, but the kingdom takes its name from the city of Golconda. East-south-east of Golconda lies Masulipatam, where the English and Dutch have factories. The English have also factories at Ganjam and Vizigapatam, on this coast; and the Dutch at Naripore. The province of Orix, from whence the English company draw some part of their revenues, lies to the north of Golconda, extending in length from east to west about 550 miles, and in breadth about 240. It is governed chiefly by Moodajee Booslah and his bro-

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ther, allies to the Mahrattas. In this province stands the temple of Jagernaut, which they say is attended by 500 priests. The idol is an irregular pyramidal black stone of about 4 or 500lb. weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to represent the eyes, and the nose and mouth painted with vermilion.

The country of Deccan* comprehends several large provinces, and some kingdoms; particularly those of Baglana, Balagate, Telenga, and the kingdom of Vissapour. The names, dependencies, and government of those provinces are extremely unsettled; they having been reduced by Aurengzebe, or his father, and subject to almost annual revolutions and alterations. Their principal towns are Aurengabad, and Doltabad, or Dowlet-abad; and the latter is the strongest place in all Indostan. Near it is the famous pagoda of Elora, in a plain about two leagues square. The tombs, chapels, temples, pillars, and many thousand figures that surround it, are cut out of the natural rock. Telenga lies on the east of Golconda; and its capital, Beder, contains a garrison of 3000 men. The inhabitants of this province speak a language peculiar to themselves.

Baglana lies to the west of Telenga, and forms the smallest province of the empire; its capital is Mouler. The Portuguese territory begins here at the port of Daman, twenty-one leagues south of Surat, and extends almost twenty leagues to the north of Goa. Vissapour is a large province: the western part is called Konkan, which is intermingled with the Portuguese possessions. The rajah of Vissapour is said to have had a yearly revenue of six millions sterling, and to bring to the field 150,000 soldiers. The capital is of the same name, and the country very fruitful. The principal places on this coast are, Daman, Bassaim, Trapar, or Tarapur, Chawl, Dandi-Rajahpur, Dabul-Rajuper, Ghiria, and Vingurla. The Portuguese have lost several valuable possessions on this coast, and those which remain are on the decline.

Guzerat is a maritime province on the Gulf of Cambaya, and one of the finest in India, but inhabited by a fierce rapacious people. It is said to contain 35 cities. Ahmed-abad is the capital of the province, where there is an English factory, and is said, in wealth, to vie with the richest towns in Europe. About 43 French leagues distant stands Surat, where the English have a flourishing factory.

Among the islands lying upon the same coast is that of Bombay, belonging to the English East India company. Its harbour can conveniently contain 1000 ships at anchor. The island itself is about seven miles in length, and twenty in circumference; but its situation and harbour are its chief recommendations, being destitute of almost all the conveniences of life. The town is about a mile long and poorly built; and the climate was fatal to English constitutions, till experience, caution, and temperance, taught them preservatives against its unwholesomeness. The best water there is preserved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy seasons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of stone. Many black merchants reside here. This island was part of the portion paid with the Infanta of Portugal to Charles II. who gave it to the East India company; and the island is still divided into

* This name Deccan signifies the south, and in its most extensive signification, includes the whole peninsula south of Indostan Proper. However, in its ordinary signification, it means only the countries situated between Indostan Proper, the Carnatic, and Orissa; that is, the provinces of Candesh; Amednagar, Vissapour, and

three Roman catholic parishes, inhabited by Portuguese, and what are called popish Mestizos and Canarins; the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portuguese, and the other the aborigines of the country. The English have found methods to render this island and town, under all their disadvantages, a safe, if not an agreeable residence. The reader scarcely needs to be informed, that the governor and council of Bombay have lucrative posts, as well as the officers under them. The troops on the island are commanded by English officers; and the natives, when formed into regular companies, and disciplined, are here, and all over the East Indies, called Sepoys. The inhabitants of the island amount to near 60,000 of different nations; each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion unmolested.

Near Bombay are several other islands, one of which, called Elephanta, contains the most inexplicable antiquity perhaps in the world. A figure of an elephant, of the natural size, cut coarsely in stone, presents itself on the landing-place, near the bottom of a mountain. An easy slope then leads to a stupendous temple, hewn out of the solid rock, eighty or ninety feet long, and forty broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is supported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitals, resembling round cushions, as if pressed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the farther end are three gigantic figures, which have been mutilated by the blind zeal of the Portuguese. Besides the temple, are various images, and groupes on each hand cut in the stone; one of the latter bearing a rude resemblance of the judgment of Solomon; also a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture; but the whole bears no manner of resemblance to any of the Gentoo works.

The island and city of Goa, the capital of the Portuguese settlements in the East Indies, lies about thirty miles south of Vingorla. The island is about twenty-seven miles in compass. It has one of the finest and best fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a most superb settlement, and was surpassed either in bulk or beauty by few of the European cities. It is said that the revenues of the Jesuits upon this island equalled those of the crown of Portugal. Goa, as well as the rest of the Portuguese possessions of this coast, are under a viceroy, who still keeps up the remains of the ancient splendor of the government. The rich peninsula of Salsette is dependent on Goa. Sunda lies south of the Portuguese territories, and is governed by a rajah, tributary to the Mogul. The English factory of Corwar is one of the most pleasant and healthy of any upon the Malabar coast. Canara lies about forty miles to the south of Goa, and reaches to Calicut. Its soil is famous for producing rice, that supplies many parts of Europe, and some of the Indies. The Canarines are said generally to be governed by a lady, whose son has the title of Rajah; and her subjects are accounted the bravest and most civilized of any in that peninsula, and remarkably given to commerce.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole south-west coast of the peninsula, yet it is confined at present to the country so called, lying on the west of Cape Comorin, and called the Dominions of the Samorin. The Malabar language, however, is common in the Carnatic, and the country itself is rich and fertile, but pestered with green adders whose poison is incurable. It was formerly a large kingdom of the Dutch factory and fort, Tellicherry, where the English have a small settlement, keeping a constant garrison of thirty or forty soldiers. Calicut, where the French and Portuguese have small factories, bears

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various other distinct territories and cities. Cape Comorin, which is the southernmost part of this peninsula, though not above three leagues in extent, is famous for uniting in the same garden the two seasons of the year; the trees being loaded with blossoms and fruit on the one side, while on the other side they are stripped of all their leaves. This surprising phenomenon is owing to the ridge of mountains so often mentioned, which traverse the whole peninsula from south to north. On the opposite sides of the Cape, the winds are constantly at variance; blowing from the west on the west side, and from the east on the eastern side. In the district of Cochin, within Malabar, are to be found some thousands of Jews, who pretend to be of the tribe of Manasseh, and to have records engraven on copper plates in Hebrew characters. They are said to be so poor, that many of them embrace the Gentoo religion. The like discoveries of the Jews and their records have been made in China, and other places of Asia, which have occasioned various speculations among the learned.

Before we close our account of Indostan, it may be proper to describe its present division according to the different powers among whom it is shared; and this is the more necessary, as it may serve to give the reader a clearer idea of these extensive regions, and at the same time show him how very considerable a portion belongs to the British and their allies.

The celebrated Persian usurper, Thamas Kouli Khan, having in the year 1738 defeated the emperor Mahomed Shaw, plundered Delhi, and pillaged the empire of treasure to the amount of more than 70 millions sterling, restored the unhappy prince his dominions, but annexed to Persia all the countries westward of the Indus.

This dreadful incursion so weakened the authority of the emperor, that the viceroys of the different provinces either threw off their allegiance, or acknowledged a very precarious dependence; and, engaging in wars with each other, called in as allies the East India companies of France and England, who had been originally permitted, as traders, to form establishments on the coasts. These, from the great superiority of European discipline, from allies, became in a short time principals in an obstinate contest, that at length terminated in the expulsion of the French from Indostan; and thus a company of British merchants have acquired, partly by cessions from the country powers, and partly by conquest, territories equal in extent, and superior in wealth and population, to most of the kingdoms of Europe.

The Mahattas originally possessed several provinces of Indostan, from whence they were driven by the arms of the Mogul conquerors; they were never wholly subjected, but retreating to the northern part of the Ghauts, made frequent incursions from these inaccessible mountains: taking advantage of the anarchy of the empire, they have extended their frontiers, and are at present possessed of a tract of country 1000 British miles long, by 700 wide; besides the territory they acquired by the late partition treaty, signed by Tippoo Sultan in March 1792. Hyder Ally, a soldier of fortune, who had learned the art of war from the Europeans, having possessed himself of that part of the ancient

The character of the late Hyder Ally appearing to me (says Major Rennell) to be little understood in this part of the world, I have ventured to attempt an outline of it. His military success, founded on the improvement of discipline; attention of every kind; conciliation of the different tribes that served under his banner; contempt of state and ceremony, except what naturally arose from his dignity

At the rate of 3 rupees to each pagoda, and the rupees reckoned at 22. 1d. each, the annual value of the late British acquisitions will be £411,450, according to Major Rennell in his Memoir of a Map of the Peninsula of India, p. 33. For the revenue of the other British possessions, see, before, p. 721.

GOVERNMENT OF BENGAL.] This government is rich, flourishing, and populous. It is finely watered by the Ganges and Burrampooter, with their numerous navigable channels, and the several navigable rivers they receive: it is fertilised by their periodical inundations; and by its natural situation is well secured against foreign enemies. But for a more particular description of this province, we refer our readers to the account we have already given of it.

GOVERNMENT OF MADRAS.] The great defect of this government is not only the want of connection between its parts, which are scattered along an extensive coast, and separated from each other by states frequently hostile, but that it is totally devoid of good harbours. Hopes, however, have been entertained of remedying the latter, by removing the bar at the mouth of that branch of the Caveri called Coleroon, which falls into the sea at Devicotta. The capital and seat of government is MADRAS in the Jaghire, called also Fort St. George. It is ill situated, without a harbour, and badly fortified, yet contains upwards of 200,000 inhabitants.—Fort St. DAVID, in the territory of Cuddalore, is rich, flourishing, and contains 60,000 inhabitants.—MASULIPATAM, in the northern Circars, at one of the mouths of the Kistna, was formerly the most flourishing and commercial city on this coast, and though much declined, is still considerable.

The northern Circars, which are denominated from the towns of Cicacole, Rajamundry, Elore, and Condapily, are defended inland by a strong barrier of mountains and extensive forests, beyond which the country is totally unknown for a considerable space.

GOVERNMENT OF BOMBAY.] This government is watered by the Tappee and Nerbudda. Its capital and seat of government is BOMBAY, in a small island, and an unhealthy situation, but it is well fortified, and has a fine harbour.—SURAT on the Tappee, which forms an indifferent port, is one of the most rich and commercial cities in Indostan.—TELICHERRY, on the Malabar coast, is dependent on Bombay.

ALLIES OF THE BRITISH.

Dominions of the nabob of Oude,

Fyzabad.

Lucknow.

Arcot, on the Pallar, is the capital, though the nabob usually resides at Madras.

Gingee, the strongest Indian fortress in the Carnatic.

Tritchinpoly, near the Caveri, well fortified in the Indian manner, was rich and populous, containing near 400,000 inhabitants, now almost ruined by the numerous sieges it has sustained.

Seringham Pagoda, in an island of the Caveri, is famous throughout Indostan for its sanctity, and has no less than 40,000 priests, who constantly reside here in voluptuous indolence.

Dominions of the nabob of Arcot, comprehending the eastern part only of the ancient Carnatic.

Dominions of the nabob continued.

Chandegeri, the ancient capital of the empire of Narzzingua, formerly rich, powerful, and populous; near it is the famous pagoda of Tripetti, the Loreto of Indostan. The offerings of the numerous pilgrims who resort hither, bring in an immense revenue.

Tanjore, Madura, and Tinivelly, are the capitals of all states of the same name, which, with Farawar, are dependent on the nabob of ...

Territory of Futty Sing Guicker in the Soubah of Guzerat.

Amedat
Camba

Territory of the rajah of Ghod, } celebrated fortrefs.

MAHRATTA STATES, in alliance with the BRITISH, and their TRIBUTARIES.

This extensive country is divided among a number of chiefs or princes, who have one common head, called the Paishwa or Nana; to whom, however, their obedience is merely nominal, as they often go to war against each other, and are seldom confederated, except for mutual defence.

Southern Poonah Mahrattas, or the territories of Paishwa, are naturally strong, being intersected by the various branches of the Ghauts.

Satara, the nominal capital of the Mahratta states: the Paishwa, at present, resides at Poonah.

Aurangabad, Amednagur, and Visapour, are in his territories.

The Concan, or tract between the Ghauts and the sea, is sometimes called the Pirate coast, as it was subject to the celebrated pirate Angria, and his successors, whose capital was the strong fortress of Gheria, taken by the English and Mahrattas in 1755: by the acquisition of this coast the Mahrattas have become a maritime power.

By the treaty of peace, Tippoo Sultan ceded to the Mahrattas:

In the Doosab, being the circar of Bancapoor, with part of Mondgul, &c. affording a revenue of	} 13,06,666
In Gooty, the district of Sundoor,	
	10,000
	<hr/> 13,16,666

TERRITORIES of the NIZAM, an ally to the BRITISH.

The possessions of the Nizam or Soubah of the Deccan (a younger son of the famous Nizam-al-Muluck) comprise the province of Golconda, that is the ancient province of Tellingana, or Tilling, situated between the lower parts of the Kistna and Godavery rivers, and the principal part of Dowlatabad; together with the western part of Berar, subject to a tribute of a chout, or fourth part of its net revenue, to the Berar Mahratta. The Nizam has the Paishwa, or Poonah Mahratta on the west and north-west; the Berar Mahratta on the north; the

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northern circars on the east, and the Carnatic, and Tippoo Sultan on the south. I am not perfectly clear, says Major Rennell, in my idea of his western boundary, which, during his wars with the Mahrattas, was subject to continual fluctuation; but I understand generally, that it extends more than 40 miles beyond the city of Aurungabad, westwards, and comes within 80 miles of the city of Poonah. His capital is Hyderabad, or Bagnagar, situated on the Mouffi river, near the famous fortrefs of Golconda.

The districts of Adoni and Rachore, which were in the hands of Bazalee Jung (brother to the Nizam) during his life-time, are now in the hands of the Nizam. The Sourapour, or Sollapoor rajahs, on the west of the Beemah river, together with some other rajahs, are his tributaries. The Guntoor circar also belongs to him. Probably, says the major, these dominions, including his tributaries and feudatories, are no less than 430 miles in length, from NW. to SE. by 300 wide.

To the above, we have now to add those which Tippoo Sultan ceded to him in the treaty of peace, signed, March 18, 1792, viz.

Koontery pagodas:	
Kerpan (or Cuddapah), Cummam, Ganjecotta, and Canoul, affording a revenue of	9,71,390
In Gooty	51,782
In Adoni (Mooka)	12,162
In the Dooab, being parts of Rachore, and Moodgul	2,81,332
	13,16,666

BERAR MAHRATTAS.

This country is very little known to Europeans } Nagpour is the capital.
Balafore has considerable trade.
Cuttack, on the Mahanada, an important post which renders this nation a formidable enemy to the British, as it cuts off the communication between the governments of Bengal and Madras.

NORTHERN POONAH MAHRATTAS.

They are governed at present by Sindia, Holkar, and some other less considerable princes. } Ougein, the residence of Sindia.
Indoor, the residence of Holkar.
Calpy, the residence of Gungdur Punt.
Sagur, the residence of Ballagee.

TIPPOO SULTAN'S TERRITORIES

Have been greatly diminished in consequence of the late treaty of peace, in which he consented to resign half his dominions to the British, the Mahrattas, and the Nizam. His remaining dominions are,

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Kingdom of Myfore	Stringapatam on the Caveri
Bednore	Bednore, or Hyder Nuggur
Canara	Mangalore

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Chitdroog, Harponelly, Roydroog, &c. are the capitals of territories of the same name.

Country of the Abdalli. This government, which includes the foubah of Cabul, and the neighbouring parts of Persia, was formed by Abdalli, one of the generals of Thamas Kouli Khan, when, on the death of that usurper, his empire was dismembered: its capital is Candahar, in Persia.

Country of the Seiks. They are said to consist of a number of small states, independent of each other, but united by a federal union.

Country of the Jats or Getes, very little known to Europeans.

Country of Zebeda Cawn, an Afghan Rohilla.

Territory of Agra on the Jumna.

Farrukabad, or country of the Patan Rohillas, on the Ganges, surrounded by the dominions of Oude.

Bundelcund.

Travancore, near Cape Comerin.

PERSIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles,
Length 1300 } breadth 1900 }	between { 44 and 70 east longitude. 25 and 44 north latitude. }	800,000

BOUNDARIES.] MODERN Persia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghistan, which divide it from Circassian Tartary, on the North-West; by the Caspian Sea, which divides it from Russia, on the North; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Usbec Tartary, on the North-East; by India, on the East; and by the Indian Ocean, and the gulfs of Persia and Ormus, on the South; and by Arabia and Turkey, on the West.

The kingdom is divided into the following provinces: on the frontiers of India, are Chovasan, part of the ancient Hyrcania, including Herat and Estherabad; Sableustan, including the ancient Bactriana and Candahor; and Sigistan, the ancient Drangiana. The southern division contains Makeran, Kerman, the ancient Gedrosia, and Farsistan, the ancient Persia. The South-West division, on the frontiers of Turkey, contains the provinces of Chuiistan, the ancient Susiana, and Irak-Agem, the ancient Parthia. The North-West division, lying between the Caspian Sea and the frontiers of Turkey in Asia, contains the provinces of Aderbeitzen, the ancient Media; Gangea and Daghistan, part of the ancient Iberia and Colchis; Ghilan, part of the ancient Hyrcania; Shirvan and Mazanderan.

NAME.] Persia, according to the poets, derived its name from Perseus, the son of Jupiter and Danaë. Less fabulous authors supposed it derived from Paras, which signifies a horseman — the Persians, or Parthians, being always celebrated for their skill in horsemanship.

AIR.] Those parts which border upon Caucasus and Daghistan and the mountains near the Caspian Sea, are cold, as lying in the neigh-

neighbourhood of these mountains which are commonly covered with snow. The air in the midland provinces of Persia is serene, pure, and exhilarating; but in the southern provinces it is hot, and sometimes communicates noxious blasts to the midland parts, which are so often mortal, that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans.

SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] The soil is far from being luxuriant towards Tartary and the Caspian Sea, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of Mount Taurus, the country abounds in corn, fruits, wine, and the other luxuries of life. It produces wine and oil in plenty, senna, rhubarb, and the finest drugs. The fruits are delicious, especially the dates, oranges, pistachio-nuts, melons, cucumbers, and garden stuff. Great quantities of excellent silk are likewise produced in this country, and the gulf of Bassora formerly furnished great part of Europe and Asia with very fine pearls. Some parts, near Ispahan especially, produce almost all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from some of them, the roses especially, they extract waters of a salubrious and odorific kind, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In short, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Persia, are of a most exalted flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture to as great perfection as some nations in Europe, by transplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Persian *assa-fetida* flows from a plant called *hilotot*, and turns into a gum. Some of it is white, and some black; but the former is so much valued, that the natives make very rich sauces of it, and sometimes eat it as a rarity.

No place in the world produces the necessaries of life in greater abundance and perfection than Shirauz; nor is there a more delightful spot in nature to be conceived, than the vale in which it is situated, either for the salubrity of the air, or for the profusion of every thing necessary to render life comfortable and agreeable. The fields yield plenty of rice, wheat, and barley, which they generally begin to reap in the month of May, and by the middle of July the harvest is completed. Most of the European fruits are produced here, and many of them are superior in size and flavour to what can be raised in Europe, particularly the apricot and grape. Of the grape of Shirauz there are several sorts, all of them very good, but two or three more particularly so than the rest; one is the large white grape, which is extremely luscious and agreeable to the taste; the small white grape as sweet as sugar; and the black grape, of which the celebrated wine of Shirauz is made, which is really delicious, and well deserving of praise. It is pressed by the Armenians and Jews, in the months of October and November, and a vast deal is exported annually to Abu Shehr, and other parts in the Persian Gulf, for supply of the Indian market. The pomegranate is good to a proverb; the Persians call it the fruit of Paradise.

The breed of horses in the province of Fars is at present very indifferent, owing to the ruinous state of the country; but in the province of Dushistaan, lying to the south-west, it is remarkably good. The sheep are of a superior flavour, owing to the excellence of the pasturage in the neighbourhood of Shirauz; and are also celebrated for the fineness of their fleece; "they have tails of an extraordinary size, some of which I have seen weigh," says Mr. Francklin, "upwards of thirty pounds; but those which are sold in the markets do not weigh above six or seven. Their oxen are large and strong, but their flesh is seldom eaten by the natives, who confine themselves chiefly to that of sheep and fowls."

Provisions of all kinds are very cheap; and the neighbouring moun-

tains affording an ample supply of snow throughout the year, the meanest artificer of Shirauz may have his water and fruits cooled without any expense worthy consideration. This snow being gathered on the tops of the mountains, and brought in carts to the city, is sold in the markets. The price of provisions is regulated in Shirauz, with the greatest exactness, by the daroga, or judge of the police, who sets a fixed price upon every article, and no shop-keeper dares to demand more, under the severe penalty of losing his nose and ears.

MOUNTAINS.] These are Caucasus and Ararat, which are called the mountains of Daghistan; and the vast chain of mountains called Taurus, and their divisions, run through the middle of the country from Natolia to India.

RIVERS.] It has been observed, that no country, of so great an extent, has so few navigable rivers as Persia. The most considerable are the Kuy, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which rise in or near the mountains of Ararat, and, joining their streams, fall into the Caspian Sea. Some small rivulets falling from the mountains water the country; but their streams are so inconsiderable, that few or none of them can be navigated even by boats. The Oxus can scarcely be called a Persian river, though it divides Persia from Ubec Tartary. Persia has the river Indus on the east, and the Euphrates and Tigris on the west.

WATER.] The scarcity of rivers, in Persia, occasions a scarcity of water; but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably well supplied by means of reservoirs, aqueducts, canals, and other ingenious methods.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Persia contains mines of iron, copper, lead, and above all, turquoise stones, which are found in Chorasan; Sulphur, salt-petre, and antimony, are found in the mountains. Quarries of red, white, and black marble, have also been discovered near Tauris.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.} It is impossible to speak with any certainty concerning the population of a country so little known as that of Persia. If we are to judge by the vast armies in modern as well as in ancient times, raised there, the numbers it contains must be very great. The Persians of both sexes are generally handsome; the men being fond of marrying Georgian and Circassian women. Their complexions towards the south are somewhat swarthy. The men shave their heads, but the young men suffer a lock of hair to grow on each side, and the beard of their chin to reach up to their temples; but religious people wear long beards. Men of rank and quality wear very magnificent turbans; many of them cost twenty-five pounds, and few under nine or ten. They have a maxim to keep their heads very warm; so that they never pull off their caps or their turbans out of respect even to the King. Their dress is very simple. Next to their skin they wear calico shirts, over them a vest, which reaches below the knee, girt with a sash, and over that a loose garment somewhat shorter. The materials of their clothes, however, are commonly very expensive, consisting of the richest furs, silks, muslins, cottons, and the like valuable stuffs, richly embroidered with gold and silver. They wear a kind of loose boots on their legs, and slippers on their feet. They are fond of riding, and very expensive in their equipages. They wear at all times a dagger in their sash, and linen trowsers. The collars of their shirts and clothes are open; so that their dress upon the whole is far better adapted for the purpose both of health and activity than the long flow-

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ing robes of the Turks. The dresses of the women, as well as that of the men, is very costly; and they are at great pains to heighten their beauty by art, colours, and washes.

The Persians accustom themselves to frequent ablutions, which are the more necessary, as they seldom change their linen. In the morning early they drink coffee, about eleven go to dinner, upon fruits, sweetmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night. They eat at their repasts cakes of rice, and others of wheat-flour; and as they esteem it an abomination to cut either bread, or any kind of meat after it is dressed, these cakes are made thin, that they may be easily broken with the hand; and their meat, which is generally mutton or fowls, is so prepared, that they divide it with their fingers. When every thing is set in order before them, they eat fast, and without any ceremony. But it is observed by a late traveller, that when the oldest man in the company speaks, though he be poor, and sit at the lower end of the room, they all give a strict attention to his words. They are temperate, but use opium, though not in such abundance as the Turks; nor are they very delicate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They use great ceremony towards their superiors, and politely accommodate Europeans who visit them, with fools, that they may not be forced to sit cross-legged. They are so immoderately fond of tobacco, which they smoke through a tube fixed in water, so as to be cool in the mouth, that when it has been prohibited by their princes, they have been known to leave their country rather than be debarred from that enjoyment. The Persians are naturally fond of poetry, moral sentences, and hyperbole. Their long wars, and the national revolutions, have mingled the native Persians with barbarous nations, and are said to have taught them dissimulation; but they are still pleasing and plausible in their behaviour, and in all ages have been remarkable for hospitality.

The Persians write like the Hebrews, from the right to the left; are neat in their seals and materials for writing, and wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed on their manuscripts (for no printing is allowed there) is incredible. Their great foible seems to be ostentation in their equipage and dresses; nor are they less jealous of their women than the Turks and other eastern nations. They are fond of music, and take a pleasure in conversing in large companies; but their chief diversions are those of the field, hunting, hawking, horsemanship, and the exercise of arms, in all which they are very dextrous. They excel, as their ancestors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beasts; and privately play at games of chance.

There are places in Shiranz (Mr. Franklin observes) distinguished by the name of Zoor Khana, the house of strength, or exercise, to which the Persians resort for the sake of exercising themselves. These houses consist of one room, with the floor sunk about two feet below the surface of the earth, and the light and air are admitted to the apartment by means of several small perforated apertures made in the dome. In the centre is a large square terrace of earth, well beaten down, smooth and even; and on each side are small alcoves raised about two feet above the terrace, where the musicians and spectators are seated. When all the competitors are assembled, which is on every Friday morning by day-break, they immediately strip themselves to the waist; on which each man puts on a pair of thick woollen drawers, and takes in his hands two wooden

clubs of about a foot and a half in length, and cut in the shape of a pear; these they rest upon their shoulders, and the music striking up, they move them backwards and forwards with great agility, stamping with their feet at the same time, and straining every nerve, till they produce a very profuse perspiration. After continuing this exercise about half an hour, upon a signal given they all leave off, quit their clubs, and joining hands in a circle, begin to move their feet very briskly in unison with the music, which is all the while playing a lively tune. Having continued this for some time, they commence wrestling, in which the master of the house is always the challenger; and being accustomed to the exercise, generally proves conqueror. The spectators pay each a shahee in money, equal to three-pence English, for which they are refreshed with a calean to smoke, and coffee. This mode of exercise must contribute to health, as well as add strength, vigour, and a manly appearance to the frame. It seems to bear some resemblance to the gymnastic exercises of the ancients.

The Persians, with respect to outward behaviour, are certainly the most polished people of the East. While a rude and insolent demeanour peculiarly marks the character of the Turkish nation toward foreigners and Christians, the behaviour of the Persians would, on the contrary, do honour to the most civilised nations. They are kind, courteous, civil, and obliging to all strangers, without being guided by those religious prejudices so very prevalent in every other Mahometan nation; they are fond of inquiring after the manners and customs of Europe; and in return very readily afford any information in respect to their own country. The practice of hospitality is with them so grand a point, that a man thinks himself highly honoured if you will enter his house and partake of what the family affords; whereas going out of a house, without smoking a calean, or taking any other refreshment, is deemed, in Persia, a high affront; they say that every meal a stranger partakes with them brings a blessing upon the house.

The Persians, in their conversation, use extravagant and hyperbolic compliments on the most trifling occasions. This mode of address (which in fact means nothing) is observed not only by those of a higher rank, but even amongst the meanest artificers, the lowest of whom will make no scruple, on your arrival, of offering you the city of Shiranz and all its appurtenances, as a peishkush, or present. This behaviour appears at first very remarkable to Europeans, but after a short time becomes equally familiar. Freedom of conversation is a thing totally unknown in Persia, as, that *walls have ears*, is proverbially in the mouth of every one.—The fear of chains which bind their bodies has also enslaved their minds; and their conversation to men of superior rank to themselves is marked with signs of the most abject and slavish submission; while, on the contrary, they are as haughty and overbearing to their inferiors.

In their conversation the Persians aim much at elegance, and are perpetually repeating verses and passages from the works of their most favourite poets, Hafez, Sadi, and Jami; a practice universally prevalent from the highest to the lowest; because those who have not the advantages of reading and writing, or the other benefits arising from education, by the help of their memories which are very retentive of whatever they have heard, are always ready to bear their part in conversation. They also delight much in jokes and quaint expressions, and are fond of playing upon each other; which they sometimes do with great elegance and irony. There is one thing much

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to be addres'd in their conversations, which is the strict attention they always pay to the person speaking, whom they never interrupt on any account. They are in general a personable, and in many respects a handsome people; their complexions, except those who are expos'd to the inclemencies of the weather, are as fair as Europeans.

The bright and sparkling eyes of the women, which is a very striking beauty, is in a great measure owing to art, as they rub their eye-brows and eye-lids with the black powder of antimony (called *surma*) which adds an incomparable brilliancy to their natural lustre.

MARRIAGES.] When the parents of a young man have determin'd upon marrying him, they look out amongst their kindred and acquaintance for a suitable match; they then go to the house where the female they intend to demand lives. If the father of the woman approves, he immediately orders sweetmeats to be brought in, which is taken as a direct sign of compliance. After this the usual presents on the part of the bridegroom are made, which, if the person be in middling circumstances, generally consist of two complete suits of apparel of the best sort, a ring, a looking glass, and a small sum in ready money, of about ten or twelve tomans, which is to provide for the wife in case of a divorce. There is also provided a quantity of household stuff of all sorts, such as carpets, mats, bedding, utensils for dressing victuals, &c. The contract is witnessed by the *cadi*, or magistrate. The wedding-night being come, the bride is brought forth, covered from head to foot in a veil of red silk, or painted muslin; a horse is then presented for her to mount, which is sent hither expressly by the bridegroom; and when she is mounted, a large looking-glass is held before her by one of the bridemaids, all the way to the house of her husband, as an admonition to her, that it is the last time she will look into the glass as a virgin, being now about to enter into the cares of the married state. The procession then sets forward in the following order;—first, the music and dancing girls, after which the presents in trays borne upon men's shoulders; next come the relations and friends of the bridegroom, all shouting, and making a great noise; who are followed by the bride herself, surrounded by all her female friends and relations, one of whom leads the horse by the bridle, and several others on horseback close the procession. Rejoicings upon this occasion generally continue eight or ten days. Men may marry for life, or for any determin'd time, in Persia, as well as through all Tartary; and all travellers or merchants, who intend to stay some time in any city, commonly apply to the *cadi*, or judge, for a wife during the time he proposes to stay. The *cadi*, for a stated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honest, and free from diseases; and he becomes surety for them. A gentleman who lately attended the Russian embassy to Persia declares, that, amongst thousands, there has not been one instance of their dishonesty during the time agreed upon.

FUNERALS.] The funerals of the Persian are conducted in a manner similar to those in other Mahometan countries. On the death of a Mussulman, the relations and friends of the deceased being assembled, make loud lamentations over the corpse; after which it is washed and laid out on a bier, and carried to the place of interment without the city-walls, attended by a Mullah, or priest, who chaunts passages from the Koran all the way to the grave. If any Mussulman should chance to meet the corpse during the procession, he is oblig'd, by the precepts of his religion, to run up to the bier, and offer his assistance

in carrying it to the grave, crying out at the same time, *Lak Allah, Lak Allah!* There is no God, but God. After interment, the relations of the deceased return home, and the women of the family make a mixture of wheat, honey, and spices, which they eat in memory of the deceased; sending a part of it to their friends, and acquaintances, that they may also pay him a like honour. This custom seems to be derived from very great antiquity, as we read in Homer of sacrifices and libations being frequently made to the memory of departed souls.

RELIGION.] The Persians are Mahometans of the sect of Ali; for which reason the Turks, who follow the succession of Qmar and Abu Bekr, call them heretics. Their religion is, if possible, in some things more fantastical and sensual than that of the Turks; but in many points it is mingled with some Brahmin superstitions. A comparison may be made between the Brahmins and the Persian *guebres*, or *gauri*, who pretend to be the disciples and successors of the ancient Magi, the followers of Zoroaster. That both of them held originally pure and simple ideas of a Supreme Being, may be easily proved; but the Indian Bramins and Paries accuse the Gauri, who still worship the fire, of having sensualised those ideas, and of introducing an evil principle into the government of the world. A combustible ground, about ten miles distant from Baku, a city in the north of Persia, is the scene of the devotions of the Guebres. This ground is impregnated with inflammatory substances, and contains several old little temples; in one of which the Guebres pretend to preserve the sacred flame of the universal fire, which rises from the end of a large hollow cane stuck into the ground, resembling a lamp burning with very pure spirits. The Mahometans are the declared enemies of the Gauri, who were banished out of Persia by Shah Abbas. Their sect, however, is said to be numerous, though tolerated in a very few places.

The long wars between the Persians and the Romans seem early to have driven the ancient Christians into Persia, and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day, many sects are found that evidently have Christianity for the groundwork of their religion. Some of them, called *Souffees*, who are a kind of quietists, sacrifice their passions to God, and profess the moral duties. The Sabeian Christians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaism and Mahometanism; and are numerous towards the Persian gulf. The Armenian and Georgian Christians are very numerous in Persia.

The Persians observe the fast during the month of Ramazan (the 9th month of the Mahomedan year) with great strictness and severity. About an hour before day-light, they eat a meal which is called *Schre*, and from that time until the next evening at sun-set, they neither eat nor drink of any thing whatever. If, in the course of the day, the smoke of a calcan, or the smallest drop of water should reach their lips, the fast is in consequence deemed broken, and of no avail. From sun-set until the next morning they are allowed to refresh themselves. This fast, when the month Kanazan falls in the middle of summer, as it sometimes must do (the Mahomedan year being lunar), is extremely severe, especially to those who are obliged by their occupations to go about during the day-time, and is still rendered more so, as there are also several nights during its existence, which they are enjoined to spend in prayer. The Persians particularly observe two; the one being that in which their prophet Ali died, from a wound, which he received from the hands of an assassin, three days before; which night is the 21st of Ramazan, the day of which is called by the natives the Day of

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Murder.—The other is the night of the 23d, in which they affirm that the Koran was brought down from heaven by the hands of the angel Gabriel, and delivered to their prophet Mahomed: wherefore it is denominated the Night of Power.

LANGUAGE. The common people, especially towards the southern coasts of the Caspian Sea, speak Turkish: and the Arabic probably was introduced into Persia, under the caliphate, when learning flourished in those countries. Many of the learned Persians have written in the Arabic, and people of quality have adopted it as a modish language, as we do the French. The pure Persian is said to be spoken in the southern parts, on the coast of the Persian gulf, and in Ispahan; but many of the provinces speak a barbarous mixture of the Turkish, Russian, and other languages. Their Pater-noster is of the following tenor: *Ei Padere ma kih der ofmoni; pae bashed mam tu; bay ayed pad-eshahi tu; jehroed chroahste tu henjunaakih der ofmon niz devzeran; bek mara jurooz nan kefâf rooz mara; wadargusar mara konâhan ma zjunau-kilma niz mig farim orman mara; wador ozmajfeh mivedaxzmarâ; likiz chalaq; kun mara ez escherir. AMEN.*

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Persians, in ancient times, were famous for both, and their poets renowned all over the East. There is a manuscript at Oxford, containing the lives of a hundred and thirty-five of the finest Persian poets. Ferdusi and Sadi were among the most celebrated. The former comprised the history of Persia in a series of epic poems, which employed him for near thirty years, and which are said by Mr. Jones to be “a glorious monument of eastern genius and learning.” Sadi was a native of Shirauz, and flourished in the thirteenth century, and wrote many fine pieces both in prose and in verse. Shemseddin was one of the most eminent lyric poets that Asia has produced; and Nakhshab wrote in Persian a book, called the Tales of a Parrot, not unlike the Decameron of Boccace. Jami was a most animated and elegant poet, who flourished in the middle of the fifteenth century, and whose beautiful compositions on a great variety of subjects, are preserved at Oxford in twenty-two volumes. Hariri composed, in a rich, elegant, and flowery style, a moral work, in fifty dissertations, on the changes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life, interspersed with a number of agreeable adventures, and several fine pieces of poetry.

Of the sprightly and voluptuous bard of Shirauz, the name and character are sufficiently known to orientalists. It may, however, excite the curiosity of the English reader, that the poet Hafez, here introduced in notice, conciliated the favour of an offended emperor, by the delicacy of his wit, and the elegance of his verses; that the most powerful monarchs of the East sought in vain to draw him from the enjoyment of literary retirement, and to purchase the praises of his Muse by all the honours and splendour of a court: and that his works were not only the admiration of the jovial and the gay, but the manual of mystic piety to the superstitious Mahometan; the oracle, which, like the *Sorte Vergilianæ*, determined the councils of the wife, and prognosticated the fate of armies and of states. Seventeen odes have already been translated into English by Mr. Not, with which he has published the originals, for the purpose of promoting the study of the Persian language. The 21st ode has also appeared in an English dress, by the elegant hand of sir William Jones.

The tomb of this celebrated and deservedly admired poet stands about two miles distant from the walls of the city of Shirauz, on the

north-east side. It is placed in a large garden, and under the shade of some cypress trees of extraordinary size and beauty; it is composed of fine white marble from Tauris, eight feet in length and four in breadth. This was built by Kerim Khan, and covers the original one. On the top and sides of the tomb, are select pieces from the poet's own works, most beautifully cut in the Persian Nustaleek character. During the spring and summer seasons, the inhabitants visit here, and amuse themselves with smoking, playing at chess and other games, reading also the works of Hafez, who is in greater esteem with them than any other of their poets, and they venerate him almost to adoration, never speaking of him but in the highest terms of rapture and enthusiasm; a most elegant copy of his works is kept upon the tomb, for the purpose, and the inspection of all who go there. The principal youth of the city assemble here; and show every possible mark of respect for their favourite poet, making plentiful libations of the delicious wine of Shiraz to his memory. Close by the garden runs the stream of Roknabad, so celebrated in the works of Hafez, and, within a small distance, the sweet bower of Mosellay.

At present learning is at a very low ebb among the Persians. Their boasted skill in astronomy is now reduced to a mere smattering in that science, and terminates in judicial astrology, so that no people in the world are more superstitious than the Persians. The learned profession in greatest esteem among them is that of medicine; which is at perpetual variance with astrology, because every dose must be in the lucky hour fixed by the astrologer, which often defeats the ends of the prescriptions. It is said, however, that the Persian physicians are acute and sagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no strangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna. The plague is but little known in this country; and almost equally rare are many other diseases that are fatal in other places; such as the gout, the stone, the small-pox, consumptions, and apoplexies. The Persian practice of physic is therefore pretty much circumscribed, and they are very ignorant in surgery, which is exercised by barbers, whose chief knowledge of it is in letting blood; for they trust the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The inonuments of antiquity
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } in Persia are more celebrated for
their magnificence and expense, than their beauty or taste. No more than nineteen columns, which formerly belonged to the famous palace of Persepolis, are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and composed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other ancient buildings are found in many parts of Persia, but void of that elegance and beauty which are displayed in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the kings of Persia are stupendous works; being cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with sculptures. The chief of the modern edifices is a pillar to be seen at Isfahan, sixty feet high, consisting of the skulls of beasts, erected by Shah Abbas, after the suppression of a rebellion. Abbas had vowed to erect such a column of human skulls; but, upon the submission of the rebels, he performed his vow by substituting those of brutes, each of the rebels furnishing one.

The baths near Gambroon are medicinal and esteemed among the natural curiosities of Persia. The springs of the famous Naptha, near Baku, are mentioned often in natural history for their surprising qualities; but the chief of the natural curiosities in this country is the

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burning phenomenon, and its inflammatory neighbourhood, already mentioned under the article of Religion.

HOUSES, CITIES, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES.] The houses of men of quality in Persia are in the same taste with those of the Asiatic Turks already described. They are seldom above one story high, built of bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumsy and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office houses being built apart. Few of them have chimneys, but a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly consists of carpets, and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which serve them likewise as coverlids, with carpets under them.

Ispahan or Spahawn, the capital of Persia, is seated on a fine plain; within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which supplies it with water. It is said to be twelve miles in circumference. The streets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amusement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houses, where they spend their summer evenings; and different families associate together. The royal square is a third of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth: and we are told, that the royal palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three miles in circumference. There are in Ispahan 160 mosques, 1800 caravanserais, 260 public baths, a prodigious number of fine squares, streets, and palaces, in which are canals, and trees planted to shade and better accommodate the people. This capital is said formerly to have contained 650,000 inhabitants; but was often depopulated by Kouli Khan during his wars, so that we may easily suppose, that it has lost great part of its ancient magnificence. In 1744, when Mr. Hanway was there, it was thought that not above 5000 of its houses were inhabited.

Shirauz lies about 225 miles to the south-east of Ispahan. It is an open town, but its neighbourhood is inexpressibly rich and beautiful, being laid out for many miles in gardens, the flowers and fruits of which are incomparable. The wines of Shirauz are reckoned the best of any in Persia. This town is the capital of Farfahan, or Persia Proper, and has a college for the study of eastern learning. It contains an uncommon number of mosques, and is adorned by many noble buildings, but its streets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above 4000 of its houses are inhabited. Shirauz has many good bazars and caravanserais; that distinguished by the appellation of the Vakeel's bazar (so called from its being built by Kherim Khan) is by far the handsomest. It is a long street, extending about a quarter of a mile, built entirely of brick, and roofed something in the style of the piazzas in Covent-garden; it is lofty and well made; on each side are the shops of the tradesmen, merchants, and others, in which are exposed for sale a variety of goods of all kinds; these shops are the property of the khan, and are rented to the merchants at a very easy monthly rate. Leading out of this bazar is a spacious caravanserai, of an octagon form, built of brick; the entrance through a handsome arched gate-way; in the centre is a place for the baggage and merchandize, and on the sides, above and below, commodious apartments for the merchants and travellers; these are also rented at a moderate monthly sum. About the centre of the above-mentioned bazar, is another spacious caravanserai of a square form, the front of which is ornamented with a blue and white enamelled work, in order to represent China ware, and has a pleasing effect to the eye.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on the narrow part of the Persian Gulf, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The English, and other Europeans, have factories at Gombroon, where they trade with the Persians, Arabians, Banyans, Armenians, Turks, and Tartars, who come hither with the caravans which set out from various inland cities of Asia, under the convoy of guards.

[**MOSQUES AND BAGNIOS.**] It has been thought proper to place them here under a general head, as their form of building is pretty much the same all over the Mahometan countries.

Mosques are religious buildings, square, and generally of stone: before the chief gate there is a square court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, whose roof is supported by marble pillars. Those galleries serve for places of ablution before the Mahometans go into the mosque. About every mosque there are six high towers, called minarets, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. These towers, as well as the mosques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding and other ornaments; and from thence, instead of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpose. No woman is allowed to enter the mosque; nor can a man with his shoes or stockings on. Near most mosques is a place of entertainment for strangers during three days; and the tomb of the founder, with conveniencies for reading the Koran, and praying.

The city of Shirauz is adorned (according to Mr. Franklin) with many fine mosques, particularly that built by the late Kherim Khan, which is a noble one. Being very well disguised, says our traveller, in my Persian dress, I had an opportunity of entering the building unobserved. It is of a square form; in the centre is a stone reservoir of water, made for performing the necessary ablutions, previous to prayer; on the four sides of the building are arched apartments allotted for devotion, some of the fronts of which are covered with China tiles; but Kherim Khan dying before the work was completed, the remainder has been made up with a blue and white enamelled work. Within the apartments, on the walls on each side, are engraved various sentences from the Koran, in the Nushki character; and at the upper end of the square, is a large dome with a cupola at top, which is the particular place appropriated for the devotion of the vakeel; or for the sovereign: this is lined throughout with white marble, ornamented with the curious blue and gold artificial lapis lazuli, and has three large silver lamps suspended from the roof of the dome. In the centre of the city is another mosque, which the Persians call the Musjidî Noô, or the New Mosque, but its date is nearly coeval with the city itself; at least, since it has been inhabited by Mahomedans: it is a square building of a noble size, and has apartments for prayer on each side; in them are many inscriptions in the old Cufic character; which of themselves denote the antiquity of the place.

The bagnios in the Mahometan countries are wonderfully well constructed for the purpose of bathing. Sometimes they are square, but oftener circular, built of white well polished stone or marble. Each bagnio contains three rooms; the first for dressing and undressing; the second contains the water, and the third the bath; all of them paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very curious, but wholesome; though to those not accustomed to it, it is painful. The water rubs the patient with great vigour, then handles and stretches his limbs as if he were dislocating every bone in

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the body; all which exercises are, in those inert warm countries, very conducive to health. In public bagnios, the men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon; when all male attendants being removed, the ladies succeed, and when coming out of the bath display their finest clothes.

[POLICE.] The police in Shirauz, as well as all over Persia, is very strict. At sun-set, the gates of the city are shut; no person whatever is permitted either to come in or go out, during the night; the keys of the different gates being always sent to the hakim or governor, and remaining with him until morning. During the night, three tablas, or drums, are beaten at three different times; the first at eight o'clock, the second at nine, and the third at half past ten. After the third tabla has sounded, all persons whatsoever found in the streets by the darogá, or judge of the police, or by any of his people, are instantly taken up, and conveyed to a place of confinement, where they are detained until next morning, when they are carried before the hakim; and if they cannot give a very good account of themselves, are punished, either by the bastinado, or a fine.

Civil matters are all determined by the cazi, and ecclesiastical ones, (particularly divorces) by the sheick al sellaum, or head of the faith, an office answering to that of Mufti in Turkey. Justice is administered in Persia in a very summary manner; the sentence, whatever it may be, being always put into execution on the spot. Theft is generally punished with the loss of nose and ears; robbing on the road, by ripping up the belly of the criminal, in which situation he is exposed upon a gibbet in one of the most public parts of the city, and there left until he expires in torment: a dreadful punishment, but it renders robberies in Persia very uncommon. The punishments in this country are so varied and cruel, that humanity shudders at them.

[MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Persians equal, if not exceed, all the manufacturers in the world in silk, woollen, mohair, carpets, and leather. Their works in these join fancy, taste, and elegance, to richness, neatness, and show; and yet they are ignorant of painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their dying excels that of Europe. Their silver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preserving their lustre. Their embroideries and horse furniture are not to be equalled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and window-glass manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artists, which is said to be owing to the scarcity of timber all over Persia. Their jewellers and goldsmiths are clumsy workmen; and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glasses. Upon the whole, they lie under inexpressible disadvantages from the form of their government, which renders them slaves to their kings, who often engross either their labour or their profits.

The trade of the Persians, who have little or no shipping of their own, is carried on in foreign bottoms. That with the English and other nations, by the gulf of Ormuz at Gombroon, was the most gainful they had; but the perpetual wars they have been engaged in have ruined their commerce. The great scheme of the English in trading with the Persians through Russia, promised vast advantages to both nations, but it has hitherto answered the expectations of neither. Perhaps the court of Petersburg is not fond of suffering the English to establish themselves upon the Caspian Sea, the navigation of which is now possessed by the Russians; the Caspian Sea is about 680 miles long and 260 broad in the widest part. It has no tide, but is navigable by vessels

drawing from 9 to 10 feet water, with several good ports. The Russian ports are Kiflar and Gurief. Derbent and Niezabad belong to Persia, as also Einzellee and Astrabad, with Baku, the most commodious haven in this sea, and which has a fortress surrounded with high walls. As the manufactures and silk of Ghilan are esteemed the best in Persia, Reschd on the Caspian is one of the first commercial towns in this part of Asia, and supplies the bordering provinces with European merchandise.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Both these are extremely precarious, as resting in the breast of a despotic, and often capricious monarch. The Persians, however, had some fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their throne females, but not their male progeny. Blindness likewise was a disqualification for the royal succession. In other respects the king's will was a law for the people. The instances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practised by the Mahometan kings of Persia, are almost incredible, especially during the last two centuries. The reason given to the Christian ambassadors, by Shah Abbas, one of their most celebrated princes, was, that the Persians were such brutes, and so insensible by nature, that they could not be governed without the exercise of exemplary cruelties. But this was only a wretched and ill-grounded apology for his own barbarity. The favourites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counsellors, and the smallest disobedience to their will is attended with immediate death. The Persians have no degrees of nobility, so that the respect due to every man, on account of his high station, expires with himself. The king has been known to prefer a younger son to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother.

REVENUES.] The king claims one third of the cattle, corn, and fruits of his subjects, and likewise a third of silk and cotton. No rank or condition of Persians is exempted from severe taxations and services. The governors of provinces have particular lands assigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops; and the crown lands defray the expenses of the court, king's household, and great officers of state. The water that is let into fields and gardens is subject to a tax; and foreigners, who are not Mahometans, pay each a ducat a head.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] This consisted formerly of cavalry, and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of this century, however, their kings have raised bodies of infantry. The regular troops of both brought to the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000; but, according to the modern histories of Persia, they are easily recruited in case of a defeat. The Persians have few fortified towns; nor had they any ships of war, until Kouli Khan built a royal navy; but since his death we hear no more of their fleet.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The arms of the Persian monarch are a lion couchant looking at the rising sun. His title is Shah, or Sovereign; Khan, and Sultan, which he assumes likewise, are Tartar titles. To acts of state the Persian monarch does not subscribe his name; but the grant runs in this manner: "This act is given by him whom the universe obeys."

HISTORY.] The Persian empire succeeded the Assyrian or Babylonian. Cyrus laid its foundation about 556 years before Christ, and restored the Israelites, who had been captive at Babylon, to liberty. It ended in the person of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander 329 years before Christ. Alexander's empire was divided among his great

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general officers, whose descendents, in less than three centuries, were conquered by the Romans. The latter, however, never fully subdued Persia; and the natives had princes of their own, from Arsaces called Arsacides, who more than once defeated the Roman legions. The successors of those princes survived the Roman empire itself, but were subdued by the famous Tamerlane, whose posterity were supplanted by a doctor of law, the ancestor of the Sefi or Sophi family, and who pretended to be descended from Mahomet himself. His successors, from him sometimes called Sophis, though some of them were vallant and politic, proved in general to be a disgrace to humanity, by their cruelty, ignorance, and indolence, which brought them into such a disrepute with their subjects, barbarous as they were, that Hassein, a prince of the Sefi race, who succeeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, son and successor to the famous Miriweis; as Mahmud himself was by Esref, one of his general officers, who usurped the throne. Prince Tahmas, the representative of the Sefi family, had escaped from the rebels, and assembling an army, took into his service Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Esref, and re-annexed to the Persian monarchy all the places dismembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during their late rebellions. At last the secret ambition of Nadir broke out, and after assuming the name of Tahmas Kouli Khan, pretending that his services were not sufficiently rewarded, he rebelled against his sovereign, made him a prisoner, and, it is supposed, put him to death.

This usurper afterwards mounted the throne, under the title of Shah Nadir. His expedition into Indostan, and the amazing booty he made there, have been mentioned in the description of that country. It has been remarked, that he brought back an inconsiderable part of his plunder from India, losing great part of it upon his return by the Mahrattas and accidents. He next conquered Ubec Tartary; but was not so successful against the Daghistan Tartars, whose country he found to be inaccessible. He vanquished the Turks in several engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. The great principle of his government was to strike terror into all his subjects by the most cruel executions. His conduct became so intolerable, and particularly his attempt to change the religion of Persia to that of Omar, and hanging the chief priests that resisted, that it was thought his brain was touched; and he was assassinated in his own tent, partly in self-defence, by his chief officers and his relations, in the year 1747. Many pretenders, upon his death, started up; and it may naturally be supposed, that a chronological and accurate account of these various and rapid revolutions is very difficult to be obtained. The confusion which prevailed through the whole country, from the death of Nadir, until the settlement of Kerim Khan, prevented all attempts of literature, arts, and sciences. During this interval, the whole empire of Persia was in arms, and rent by commotions; different parties in different provinces of the kingdom struggling for power, and each endeavouring to render himself independent of the other, torrents of blood were shed, and the most shocking crimes were committed with impunity. The whole face of the country, from Gombroon to Russia, presents to the view thousands of instances of the misery and devastation which has been occasioned by these commotions.

From the accounts we have been able to collect, the number of pretenders to the throne of Persia, from the death of Nadir Shah, until the final establishment of Kerim Khan's government, was no less than nine, including himself. Kerim Khan Zund was a most favourite

officer of Nadir Shah, and at the time of his death was in the southern provinces. Shirauz and other places had declared for him. He found means, at last, after various encounters with doubtful success, completely to subdue all his rivals; and finally to establish himself as ruler of all Persia. He was in power about thirty years, the latter part of which he governed Persia under the appellation of Vakeel, or regent; for he never would receive the title of Shah. He made Shirauz the chief city of his residence, in gratitude for the assistance he had received from its inhabitants, and those of the southern provinces. He died in the year 1779, in the eightieth year of his age, regretted by all his subjects, who esteemed and honoured him as the glory of Persia. His character is most deservedly celebrated for the public buildings which he erected, and the excellent police which he maintained: so that, during his whole reign, there was not in Shirauz a single riot productive of bloodshed; besides these merits, his aversion to severe punishments, his liberality and kindness to the poor, his toleration of people of different persuasions, his partiality for Europeans, and his encouragement of trade, together with his great military abilities, and personal courage, rendered him not only beloved by his own subjects, but greatly respected by foreign powers.

From the death of Kerim Khan, to the present time, a variety of competitors have been desirous of filling the throne of Persia. Of these we shall only mention the two principal. Akau Mahomet Khan keeps possession of the provinces of Mazanderan and Ghilan, as well as the cities of Ispahan, Hamadad, and Tauris, where he is acknowledged as sovereign. Jaasar Khan has possession of the city of Shirauz, and the provinces of Beaboon and Shuster: he also receives an annual present from the province of Carmania, and another from the city of Yezd; Abu Shehr and Lar also send him tribute. The southern provinces are in general more fruitful than those to the northward, they not having been so frequently the scenes of action during the late revolutions.

Jaasar Khan is a middle-aged man, very corpulent, and has a cast in his right eye: in the places where he is acknowledged, he is well beloved and respected. He is very mild in his disposition, and just. In Shirauz he keeps up a most excellent police, and good government. He is very kind and obliging to strangers in general, and to the English in particular. Of the two competitors who at present contend for the government of Persia, he is the most likely, in case of success against his opponent, to restore the country to a happy and reputable state; but it will require a long space of time, to recover it from the calamities into which the different revolutions have brought it: — a country, if an oriental metaphor may be allowed, once blooming as the garden of Eden, fair and flourishing to the eye; — now, sad reverse! despoiled and leafless by the cruel ravages of war, and desolating contention.

Intelligence was received at Constantinople, in December, 1793, that Jaasar Khan had been dethroned by his brother Mahomed Khan, who entered into the possession of his dominions.

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SITUATION AND EXTENT.

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BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Turkey, on the north; by the gulfs of Persia or Bassora, and Ormus, which separate it from Persia, on the East; by the Indian Ocean, south; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the West.

Divisions.	Sub-divisions.	Chief Towns.
1. Arabia Petræa, N. W.	{ - - - - - Haggiar or Mecca	{ SUEZ, E. lon. 33-27. N. lat. 29-50. MECCA, E. lon. 43-30. N. lat. 21-20.
2. Arabia Deserta, in the middle.	{ Tehama - - - Mocha - - -	{ Siden Medina Dhafar MOCHA, E. lon. 44-4. N. lat. 13-45. Sibet
3. Arabia Felix, S.E.	{ Hadramut - - - Casseen - - - Segur - - - Oman or Muscat Jamama - - - Bahara - - -	{ Hadramut Casseen Segur Muscat Jamama Elcalf.

NAME.] It is remarkable that this country has always preserved its ancient name. The word *Arab*, it is generally said, signifies a robber, or freebooter. The word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is said to signify both a thief and an inhabitant of the desert. These names justly belong to the Arabians, for they seldom let any merchandise pass through the country without extorting something from the owners, if they do not rob them.

MOUNTAINS.] The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petræa, east of the Red Sea, and those called Gabel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the most noted.

RIVERS, SEAS, GULFS AND CAPES.] There are few mountains, springs, or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which washes the north-east limits of it. It is almost surrounded with seas; as the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea, the gulfs of Persia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are those of Rosalgate and Musledon.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] As a considerable part of this country lies under the torrid zone, and the tropic of Cancer passes over Arabia Felix, the air is excessively dry and hot, and the country is subject to hot poisonous winds, like those on the opposite shores of Persia, which often prove fatal, especially to strangers. The soil, in

some parts, is nothing more than immense sands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and sometimes form mountains by which whole caravans have been buried or lost. In these deserts, the caravans, having no tracks, are guided, as at sea, by a compass, or by the stars, for they travel chiefly in the night. Here, says Dr. Shaw, are no pastures clothed with flocks; nor valleys standing thick with corn; here are no vineyards or olive-yards; but the whole is a lonesome desolate wilderness, no other ways diversified than by plains covered with sand, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unless sometimes at the equinoxes, refreshed with rain; and the intenseness of the cold in the night is almost equal to that of the heat in the day time. But the southern part of Arabia, deservedly called the Happy, is blessed with an excellent soil, and, in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the sea coast, produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, cassia, aloes, frankincense, spikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamom, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey and wax in plenty, with a small quantity of corn and wine. This country is famous for its coffee and its dates; which last are found scarcely any where in such perfection as here and in Persia. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

ANIMALS.] The most useful animals in Arabia are camels and dromedaries; they are amazingly fitted by Providence for traversing the dry and parched deserts of this country; for they are so formed that they can throw up the liquor from their stomach into their throats, by which means they can travel six or eight days without water. The camels usually carry 800lb. weight upon their backs, which is not taken off during the whole journey, for they naturally kneel down to rest, and in due time rise with their load. The dromedary is a small camel with two bunches on its back and remarkably swift. It is an observation among the Arabs, that wherever there are trees, the water is not far off; and when they draw near a pool, their camels will smell at a distance, and set up their great trot till they come to it. The Arabian horses are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of those in England. They are only fit for the saddle, and are admired for their make as much as for their swiftness and high mettle. The finest breed is in the kingdom of Sunnaa, in which Mocha is situated.

**INHABITANTS, MANNERS, }
CUSTOMS, AND DRESS. }** The Arabians, like most of the nations of Asia, are of a middle stature, thin, and of a swarthy complexion, with black hair and black eyes. They are swift of foot, excellent horsemen, and are said to be, in general, a martial brave people, expert at the bow and lance, and, since they became acquainted with fire arms, good marksmen. The inhabitants of the inland country live in tents, and remove from place to place with their flocks and herds.

The Arabians in general are such thieves, that travellers and pilgrims are struck with terror on approaching the deserts. These robbers, headed by a captain, traverse the country in considerable troops on horseback, and assault and plunder the caravans; and we are told, that so late as the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabians attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about 60,000 persons, and plundered it of every thing valuable, though escorted by a Turkish army. On the sea coast they are mere pirates, and make prize of every vessel they can master, of whatever nation.

The habit of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue shirt, tied about them with a white sash or girdle; and some of them have a vest of furs or sheep-skins over it; they also wear drawers, and sometimes slippers, but no stockings; and have a cap or turban on their head. Many of them go almost naked; but, as in the eastern countries, the women are so wrapped up, that nothing can be discerned but their eyes. Like other Mahometans, the Arabs eat all manner of flesh, except that of hogs; and prefer the flesh of camels, as we prefer venison to other meat. They take care to drain the blood from the flesh, as the Jews do, and like them refuse such fish as have no scales. Coffee, and tea, water, and sherbet made of oranges, water and sugar, is their usual drink: they have no strong liquors.

[RELIGION.] Of this the reader will find an account in the following history of Mahomet their countryman. Many of the wild Arabs are still pagans; but the people in general profess Mahometanism.

[LEARNING AND LANGUAGE.] Though the Arabians in former ages were famous for their learning and skill in all the liberal arts, there is scarcely a country at present where the people are so universally ignorant. The vulgar language used in the three Arabias, is the Arabeik, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewise spoken, with some variation of dialect, over great part of the East, from Egypt to the court of the Great Mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is said to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and by the people of the East accounted the richest, most energetic, and copious language in the world, is taught in their schools, as Greek and Latin are amongst Europeans, and used by Mahometans in their worship: for as the Koran was written in this language, they will not suffer it to be read in any other; they look upon it to have been the language of Paradise, and think no man can be a master of it without a miracle, as consisting of several millions of words. The books which treat of it, say they have no fewer than a thousand terms to express the word *camel*, and five hundred for that of a *lion*. The Pater-noster in Arabic is as follows:

Alma elladhi fi-samwat; jerkaddas esnâc; tati malacutac; tauuri maf-dbiatic, cama fi-sama; kedhalec ala lardh aating chobzena kefatna iaum beiaum; wayjir lena donubena wachâtaina, cana nogfor nachna lemen aca doina; wala tadalchalna fihajarib; laken mejjina me nnescherir. Amen.

CHIEF CITIES, CURIOSITIES, } What is called the Desert of Sinai,
AND ARTS. } is a beautiful plain near nine miles

long, and above three in breadth; it lies open to the north-east, but to the southward is closed by some of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make such encroachments upon the plain as to divide it in two, each so capacious as to be sufficient to receive the whole camp of the Israelites.

From Mount Sinai, may be seen Mount Horeb, where Moses kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he saw the burning bush. On those mountains are many chapels and cells, possessed by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the religious at Jerusalem, pretend to show the very spot where every miracle or transaction recorded in Scripture happened.

The chief cities in Arabia are Mocha, Aden, Muscat, Suez, and Judah, where most of the trade of this country is carried on.

Mocha is well built, the houses very lofty, and are, with the walls and forts, covered with a chinam or stucco, that gives a dazzling whiteness to them. The harbour is semicircular, the circuit of the wall is two miles, and there are several handsome mosques in the city. Suez,

the Arsinoë of the ancients, is surrounded by the Desert, and is but a mean ill-built place. The ships are forced to anchor a league from the town, to which the leading channel has only about nine feet water. Juddah is the place of the greatest trade in the Red Sea, for there the commerce between Arabia and Europe meets, and is interchanged, the former sending her gums, drugs, coffee, &c. and from Europe come cloths, iron, furs, and other articles, by the way of Cairo. The revenues of these, with the profits of the port, are shared by the grand signor and the xeriff of Mecca, to whom jointly this place belongs.

Mecca, the capital of all Arabia, and Medina, deserve particular notice. At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomet, is a mosque, the most magnificent of any in the Turkish dominions; its lofty roof being raised in fashion of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers at the end, of extraordinary height and architecture, which make a delightful appearance, and are conspicuous at a great distance. The mosque has a hundred gates, with a window over each; and the whole building within is decorated with the finest gildings and tapestry. The number of pilgrims who yearly visit this place is almost incredible, every Mussulman being required by his religion, to come hither once in his lifetime, or send a deputy. At Medina, about fifty miles from the Red Sea, the city to which Mahomet fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and the place where he was buried, is a stately mosque supported by 400 pillars, and furnished with 300 silver lamps, which are continually burning. It is called the "*Mosé Holy*," by the Turks, because in it is placed the coffin of their prophet, Mahomet, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of silver tissue; which the bashaw of Egypt, by order of the grand signor, renews every year. The camel which carries it, derives a sort of sanctity from it, and is never to be used in any drudgery afterwards. Over the foot of the coffin, is a rich golden crescent, curiously wrought, and adorned with precious stones. Thither the pilgrims resort, as to Mecca, but not in such numbers.

GOVERNMENT.] The inland country of Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are styled xeriffs and imans, both of them including the offices of king and priest, in the same manner as the caliphs of the Saracens, the successors of Mahomet. These monarchs appear to be absolute, both in spirituals and temporals; the succession is hereditary, and they have no other laws than those found in the Koran, and the comments upon it. The northern Arabs owe subjection to the Turks, and are governed by bashaws residing among them; but receive large gratuities from the grand signor, for protecting the pilgrims that pass through their country, from the robberies of their countrymen. The Arabians have no standing regular militia, but their emirs command both the persons and the purses of their subjects, as the necessity of affairs requires.

HISTORY.] The history of this country in some measure differs from that of all others; for as the slavery and subjection of other nations make a great part of their history, that of the Arabs is entirely composed of their conquests or independence. The Arabs are descended from Ishmael, of whose posterity it was foretold, that they should be invincible, "have their hands against every man, and every man's hands against theirs." They are at present, and have remained from the remotest ages, during the various conquests of the Greeks, Romans, and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divinity of this prediction. Towards the north, and the sea-coasts of Arabia, the inhabitants are, indeed, kept in awe by the Turks; but the wandering tribes in the

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southern and inland parts acknowledge themselves the subjects of no foreign power, and do not fail to harass and annoy all strangers, who come into their country. The conquests of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their history, as the independence and freedom which they have ever continued to enjoy. These, as well as their religion, began with one man, whose character forms a very singular phenomenon in the history of mankind. This was the famous Mahomet, a native of Mecca, a city of that division of Arabia, which for the luxuriance of its soil, and happy temperature of its climate, has ever been esteemed the loveliest and sweetest region of the world, and distinguished by the epithet of Happy.

Mahomet was born in the sixth century, in the year 569, in the reign of Justinian II. emperor of Constantinople. Though descended of mean parentage, illiterate and poor, he was endued with a subtle genius, like those of the same country, and possessed a degree of enterprise and ambition peculiar to himself, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed in the early part of his life, by an uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occasion, in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the service of a rich merchant, upon whose death he married his widow, Cadija, and by her means came to be possessed of great wealth and of a numerous family. During his peregrinations into Egypt and the East, he had observed the vast variety of sects in religion, whose hatred against each other was strong and inveterate, while at the same time there were many particulars in which the greater part of them were agreed. He carefully took advantage of these, by means of which, and by addressing himself to the love of power, riches, and pleasure, passions universal among men, he expected to raise a new system of religion, more general than any which hitherto had been established. In this design he was assisted by Sergius, a monk, whose libertine disposition had made him forsake his cloister and profession, and engage in the service of Cadija, with whom he remained as a domestic when Mahomet was taken to her bed. This monk was perfectly qualified, by his great learning, for supplying the defects which his master, for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which, in all probability, must have obstructed the execution of his design. It was necessary, however, that the religion they proposed to establish should have a divine sanction; and for this purpose Mahomet turned a calamity, with which he was afflicted, to his advantage. He was often subject to fits of the epilepsy, a disease which those whom it afflicts are desirous to conceal. Mahomet gave out, therefore, that these fits were trances into which he was miraculously thrown by God Almighty, during which he was instructed in his will, which he was commanded to publish to the world. By this strange story, and by leading a retired, abstemious, and austere life, he easily acquired a character for superior sanctity among his acquaintance and neighbours. When he thought himself sufficiently fortified by the numbers and the enthusiasm of his followers, he boldly declared himself a prophet sent by God into the world, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it.

As we have already mentioned, he did not lay the foundation of his system so narrow as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rude and enthusiastic, was enlarged by travelling into distant lands, whose manners and religion he had made a peculiar study. He proposed that the system he established should extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whose doctrines and prejudices he

had taken care to adapt it. Many of the inhabitants of the eastern countries were at this time much addicted to the opinions of Arius, who denied that Jesus Christ was co-equal with God the Father, as is declared in the Athanasian creed. Egypt and Arabia were filled with Jews, who had fled into these corners of the world from the persecution of the emperor Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of that people. The other inhabitants of these countries were pagans. These, however, had little attachment to their decayed and derided idolatry; and like men whose religious principle is weak, had given themselves over to pleasure and sensuality, or to the acquisition of riches, to be the better able to indulge in the gratifications of sense, which, together with the doctrine of predestination, composed the sole principles of their religion and philosophy. Mahomet's system was exactly suited to these three kinds of men. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world and governed all things in it; that he had sent various prophets into the world to teach his will to mankind, among whom Moses and Jesus Christ were the most eminent; but the endeavours of these had proved ineffectual, and God had therefore now sent his last and greatest prophet, with a commission more ample than what Moses or Christ had been entrusted with. He had commanded him not only to publish his laws, but to subdue those who were unwilling to believe or obey them; and for this end, to establish a kingdom upon earth, which should propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God has designed utter ruin and destruction to those who should refuse to submit to him; but to his faithful followers, he had given the spoils and possessions of all the earth, as a reward in this life, and had provided for them hereafter a paradise of all sensual enjoyments, especially those of love; that the pleasures of such as died in propagating the faith, would be peculiarly intense, and vastly transcend those of the rest. These, together with the prohibition of drinking strong liquors (a restraint not very severe in warm climates), and the doctrine of predestination, were the capital articles of Mahomet's creed. They were no sooner published, than a great number of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. They were written by the priest before mentioned, and compose a book called the Koran, or Al-koran, by way of eminence, as we say the Bible, which means the Book. The person of Mahomet, however, was familiar to the inhabitants of Mecca; so that the greater part of them were sufficiently convinced of the deceit. The more enlightened and leading men entered into a design to cut him off; but Mahomet getting notice of their intention, fled from his native city to Medina Tahmachi, or the City of the Prophet. The fame of his miracles and doctrine was, according to custom, greatest at a distance, and the inhabitants of Medina received him with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the 622nd year of Christ, the fifty-fourth year of Mahomet's age, and the tenth of his ministry, his followers, the Mahometans, compute their time; and the æra is called, in Arabic, Hegira, i. e. the Flight.

Mahomet, by the assistance of the inhabitants of Medina, and of others whom his insinuation and address daily attached to him, brought over all his countrymen to a belief, or at least to an acquiescence, in his doctrines. The speedy propagation of his system among the Arabians was a new argument in its behalf among the inhabitants of Egypt and the East, who were previously disposed to it. Arians, Jews, and Gentiles, all forsook their ancient faith, and became Mahometans. In a word, the contagion spread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Persia; and

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Mahomet, from a deceitful hypocrite, became a powerful monarch. He was proclaimed king at Medina, in the year 627; and after subduing part of Arabia and Syria, died in 632, leaving two branches of his race, both esteemed divine among their subjects. These were the caliphs of Persia and of Egypt, under the last of which Arabia was included. The former of these turned their arms to the East, and made conquests of many countries. The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe; and under the name of Saracens or Moors (which they obtained because they entered Europe from Mauritania, in Africa, the country of the Moors) reduced the greater part of Spain, France, Italy, and the islands in the Mediterranean.

In this manner did the successors of that impostor spread their religion and conquests over the greatest part of Asia, Africa, and Europe; and they still give law to a very considerable portion of mankind.

THE INDIAN AND ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

THE JAPAN ISLANDS, Japan or Nippon, Bongo, Tonfa, and Dezima, form together what has been called the empire of JAPAN. They are situated about 150 miles east of China, and extend from the 30th to the 41st degree of north latitude, and from the 130th to the 147th of east longitude. Their chief town is Jeddo, in the 141st degree of east longitude, and the 36th of north latitude.

The islands of Japan are governed by a despotic sovereign called the *Kubo*, besides whom, there is a spiritual or ecclesiastical emperor, entitled the *Dairi*. The veneration entertained for the latter is little short of the honours paid to their gods. He seldom goes out of his palace, his person being considered as too sacred to be exposed to the air, the rays of the sun, or the view of the common people. He is brought into the world, lives and dies, within the precincts of his court, the boundaries of which he never once exceeds during his whole life. His hair, nails, and beard are accounted so sacred, that they are never suffered to be cleansed or cut by day-light; but this must be done by stealth, during the night, while he is asleep. His holiness never eats twice off the same plate, nor uses any vessel for his meals a second time; they are immediately broken to pieces after they are used, to prevent their falling into unhallowed hands. He has twelve wives, only one of whom, however, is styled empress. He confers all titles of honour, but the real power of government is exercised by the *kubo*.

The soil and productions of the country are pretty much the same with those of China; and the inhabitants are famous for their lacquer ware, known by the name of Japan. The Japanese are gross idolaters, and so irreconcilable to Christianity, that it is commonly said the Dutch, who are the only European people with whom they now trade, pretend themselves to be no Christians, and humour the Japanese in the most absurd superstitions. Notwithstanding all this compliance, the natives are very shy and rigorous in all their dealings with the Dutch; and Nagasaki, in the island of Dezima, is the only place where they are suffered to trade. The complexions of the Japanese are in general yellowish, although some few, chiefly women, are almost white. Their narrow eyes and high eye-brows are like those of the Chinese and Tar-

tars; and their noses are short and thick. Their hair is universally black.

The dress of the Japanese may with more propriety be termed national, than that of any other part of the world, as it not only differs from that of every other nation, but is uniform from the monarch down to the most inferior subject, similar in both sexes, and (which almost surpasses belief) has been unchanged for the space of 2500 years. It consists of one or more loose gowns, tied about the middle with a sash. People of rank have them made of silk, but the lower class, of cotton stuffs. Women generally wear a greater number of them than men, and much longer, and have them more ornamented, often with gold or silver flowers woven into the stuff. Their houses are built with upright posts, crossed and wattled with bamboo, plastered both without and within, and white-washed. They generally have two stories; but the uppermost is low, and seldom inhabited. The roofs are covered with pantiles, large and heavy, but neatly made. The floors are elevated two feet from the ground, and covered with planks, on which mats are laid. The public buildings, such as temples and palaces, are larger, it is true, and more conspicuous, but in the same style of architecture, and the roofs, which are decorated with several towers of a singular appearance, are their greatest ornament.

The towns are sometimes of a considerable size, always secured with gates; and frequently surrounded with walls and fosses, and adorned with towers, especially if a prince or governor of a province keeps his court there. The town of Jeddo is said to be twenty one hours' walk in circumference, or about twenty-one French leagues, and may vie in size with Pekin. The streets are straight and wide, and at certain distances divided by gates, and at each gate there is a very high ladder, from the top of which, any fire that breaks out may be discovered, an accident that not unfrequently happens there several times in the week.

The furniture in Japan is as simple as the style of building. Neither cupboards, bureaux, sofas, beds, tables, chairs, watches, looking-glasses, nor any thing else of the kind are to be found in the apartments. To the greater part of these the Japanese are utter strangers. Their soft floor-mats serve them for chairs and tables. A small board about twelve inches square, and four in height, is set down before each person in company at every meal, which is served up one dish only at a time. Mirrors they have, but never fix them up in their houses as ornamental furniture; they are made of a compound metal, and used only at their toilets. Notwithstanding the severity of their winters, which obliges them to warm their houses from November to March, they have neither fire-places nor stoves; instead of these they use large copper pots standing upon legs. These are lined on the inside with loam, on which aslies are laid to some depth, and charcoal lighted upon them, which seems to be prepared in some manner which renders the fumes of it not at all dangerous. The first compliment offered to a stranger, in their houses, is a dish of tea, and a pipe of tobacco. Fans are used by both sexes equally; and are, within or without doors, their inseparable companions. The whole nation are naturally cleanly; every house, whether public or private, has a bath, of which constant and daily use is made by the whole family. Obedience to parents, and respect to superiors, are the characteristics of this nation. Their salutations and conversations between equals, abound also with civility and politeness; to this children are early accustomed by the example of their parents. Their penal laws are very severe; but punishments are seldom inflicted.

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ed. Perhaps there is no country where fewer crimes against society are committed. Commerce and manufactures flourish here; though, as these people have few wants, they are not carried to the extent which we see in Europe. Agriculture is so well understood, that the whole country, even to the tops of the hills, is cultivated. They trade with no foreigners but the Dutch and Chinese, and in both cases, with companies of privileged merchants. Besides the sugars, spices, and manufactured goods, which the Dutch send to Japan, they carry thither annually upwards of 200,000 deer skins, and more than 100,000 hides, the greatest part of which they get from Siam, where they pay for them in money. The merchandise they export from these islands, both for Bengal and Europe, consist in 9000 chests of copper, each weighing 120 pounds, and from 25,000 to 30,000 weight of camphor. Their profits on imports and exports are valued at 40 or 45 per cent. As the Dutch company do not pay duty in Japan, either on their exports or imports, they send an annual present to the emperor, consisting of cloth, chintz, succotas, cottons, stuffs, and trinkets.

The LADRONE ISLANDS, of which the chief town is said to be Guam (east longitude 140, north latitude 14), are about twelve in number. The people took their name from their pilfering. We know nothing of them worth particular mention, excepting that lord Anson landed upon one of them (Tinian), where he found great refreshment for himself and his crew.

FORMOSA is likewise an oriental island. It is situated to the east of China, near the province of Fo-kien, and is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains, which runs through the middle, beginning at the south coast, and ending at the north. This is a very fine island, and abounds with all the necessaries of life. That part of the island which lies to the west of the mountains, belongs to the Chinese, who consider the inhabitants of the eastern parts as savages, though they are said to be a very inoffensive people. The inhabitants of the cultivated parts are the same with the Chinese, already described. The Chinese have likewise made themselves masters of several other islands in these seas, of which we scarcely know the names; that of Ainan is between sixty and seventy leagues long, and between fifty and sixty in breadth, and but twelve miles from the province of Canton. The original inhabitants are a shy, cowardly people, and live in the most unwholesome part of the island; the coast, and cultivated parts, which are very valuable, being possessed by the Chinese.

The PHILIPPINES are said to be 1100 in number, lying in the Chinese Sea (part of the Pacific ocean) 300 miles south-east of China, of which Manila, or Luconia, the chief, is 400 miles long and 200 broad. The inhabitants consist of Chinese, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portuguese, Pintadoes, or painted people, and Mestres, a mixture of all these. The property of the islands belongs to the king of Spain, they having been discovered by Magellan, and afterwards conquered by the Spaniards, in the reign of Philip II. from whom they take their name. Their situation is such, between the eastern and western continents, that the inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru, as well as with all the islands and places of the East Indies. Two ships from Acaapulco, in Mexico, carry on this commerce for the Spaniards, who make 400 per cent. profit. The country is fruitful in all the necessaries of life, and beautiful to the eye. Venison of all kinds, buffaloes, hogs, sheep, goats, and a particular large species of monkeys, are found here in great plenty. The nest of the bird saligan affords that dissolving jelly,

which is so voluptuous a rarity at European tables. Many European fruits and flowers thrive surprisngly in these islands. If a sprig of an orange or lemon-tree is planted here, it becomes within the year a fruit-bearing tree; so that the verdure and luxuriancy of the soil are almost incredible. The tree amēt supplies the natives with water; and there is also a kind of cane, which, if cut, yields fair water enough for a draught; this abounds in the mountains, where water is most wanted.

The city of Manilla contains about 3000 inhabitants; its port is Cavite, lying at the distance of three leagues, and defended by the castle of St. Philip. In the year 1762, Manilla was reduced by the English under general Draper and admiral Cornish, who took it by storm, and humanely suffered the archbishop, who was the Spanish viceroy at the same time, to ransom the place for about a million sterling. The bargain, however, was ungenerously disowned by him and the court of Spain, so that great part of the ransom is still unpaid. The Spanish government is settled there, but the Indian inhabitants pay a capitation tax. The other islands, particularly Mindanao, the largest next to Manilla, are governed by petty princes of their own, whom they call sultans. The sultan of Mindanao is a Mahometan.

Upon the whole, though these islands are enriched with all the profusion of nature, yet they are subject to most dreadful earthquakes, thunder, rains, and lightning; and the soil is pestered with many noxious and venomous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whose poisons kill almost instantaneously. Some of their mountains are volcanos.

The **MOLUCCAS**, commonly called the **SPICE** or **CLOVE ISLANDS**. These are not out of sight of each other, and lie all within the compass of twenty-five leagues to the south of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of east longitude, and between one degree south, and two north latitude. They are in number five, viz. Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore. These islands produce neither corn nor rice, so that the inhabitants live upon a bread made of sago. Their chief produce consists of cloves, mace, and nutmegs, in vast quantities; which are monopolised by the Dutch with so much jealousy, that they destroy the plants, lest the natives should sell the supernumerary spices to other nations. These islands, after being subject to various powers, are now governed by three kings, subordinate to the Dutch. Ternate is the largest of them, though not more than thirty miles in circumference. The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria; and another called Fort Orange, in Machian.

The **BANDA**, or **NUTMEG ISLANDS**, are situated between 127 and 128 degrees east longitude, and between four and five south latitude, comprehending the islands of Lantor, the chief town of which is Lantor, Polorong, Rosingsing, Pooloway, and Gonapi. The chief forts belonging to the Dutch on these islands, are those of Revenge and Nafsau. The nutmeg, covered with mace, grows on these islands only, and they are entirely subject to the Dutch. The great nutmeg harvest is in June and August.

AMBOYNA. This island, taken in a large sense, is one and the most considerable of the Moluccas, which, in fact, it commands. It is situated in the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, between the third and fourth degrees of south latitude, and 120 leagues to the eastward of Batavia. Amboyna is about seventy miles in circumference, and defended by a Dutch garrison of 7 or 800 men, besides small forts, which protect their clove plantations. It is well known, that when the Portuguese were driven off this island, the trade of it was carried on by the English and

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Dutch; and the barbarities of the latter in first torturing and then murdering the English, and thereby engrossing the whole trade, and that of Banda, can never be forgotten; but will be transmitted as a memorial of Dutch infamy at that period, to all posterity. This tragical event happened in 1622.

The island of CELEBES, or MACASSAR, is situated under the equator, between the island of Borneo and the Spice islands, at the distance of 160 leagues from Batavia, and is 500 miles long, and 200 broad. This island, notwithstanding its heat, is rendered habitable by breezes from the north, and periodical rains. Its chief products are pepper and opium; and the natives are expert in the study of poisons, with a variety of which nature has furnished them. The Dutch have a fortification on this island; but the internal part of it is governed by three kings, the chief of whom resides in the town of Macassar. In this, and indeed in almost all the oriental islands, the inhabitants live in houses built on large posts, which are accessible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night-time, for their security against venomous animals. They are said to be hospitable and faithful, if not provoked. They carry on a large trade with the Chinese. Their port of Jampoden is the most capacious of any in that part of the world.

The Dutch have likewise fortified GILOLO and CERAM, two other spice islands lying under the equator, and will sink any ships that attempt to traffic in those seas.

The SUNDA ISLANDS. These are situated in the Indian ocean, between 93° and 120 degrees of east longitude, and between eight degrees north, and eight degrees south latitude, comprehending the islands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Bally, Lamboe, Banca, &c. The three first, from their great extent and importance, require to be separately described.

BORNEO is said to be 800 miles long, and 700 broad, and till New Holland was discovered to be an island, was considered as the largest island in the world. The inland part of the country is marshy and unhealthy; and the inhabitants live in towns built upon floats in the middle of the rivers. The soil produces rice, cotton, canes, pepper, camphor, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The famous ouran-outang is a native of this country, and is thought, of all irrational beings, to resemble a man the most. The original inhabitants live in the mountains, and make use of poisoned darts; but the sea-coast is governed by Mahometan princes; the chief port of this island is Benjar-Masseen, and carries on a commerce with all trading nations.

SUMATRA has Malacca on the north, Borneo on the east, and Java on the south-east, from which it is separated by the straits of Sunda; it is divided into two equal parts by the equator, extending five degrees and upwards, north-west of it, and five on the south-east; and is 1000 miles long, and 100 broad. This island produces so much gold, that it has been thought to be the Ophir* mentioned in the scriptures; but Mr. Marsden, in his late history of the island, thinks it was unknown to the ancients.—Its chief trade with the Europeans is in pepper. The English East India company have two settlements here, Bencoolen, and Fort Marlborough; from whence they bring their chief cargoes of pepper. The king of Achen is the chief of the Mahometan princes who

* There is a mountain in the island which is called Ophir by the Europeans, whose summit, above the level of the sea, is 13,842 feet, exceeding in height the Peak of Teneriffe by 577 feet.

possess the sea-coasts. The interior parts are governed by pagan princes; and the natural products of Sumatra are pretty much the same with those of the adjacent islands.

Rain is very frequent here; sometimes very heavy, and almost always attended with thunder and lightning. Earthquakes are not uncommon and there are several volcanoes on the island. The people who inhabit the coast are Malays, who came hither from the peninsula of Malacca; but the interior parts are inhabited by a very different people, and who have hitherto had no connection with the Europeans. Their language and character differ much from those of the Malays; the latter using the Arabic character. The people between the districts of the English company, and those of the Dutch at Palimban, on the other side of the island, write on long narrow slips of the bark of a tree, with a piece of bamboo. They begin at the bottom, and write from the left hand to the right, contrary to the custom of other eastern nations. These inhabitants of the interior parts of Sumatra are a free people, and live in small villages called Doofans, independent of each other, and governed each by its own chief. All of them have laws, some written ones, by which they punish offenders, and terminate disputes. They have almost all of them, and particularly the women, large swellings in the throat, some nearly as big as a man's head, but in general as big as an ostrich's egg, like the goitres of the Alps. That part of this island which is called the Cassia country, is well inhabited by a people called Battas, who differ from all the other inhabitants of Sumatra in language, manners, and customs. They have no king, but live in villages independently of each other, and generally at variance with one another. They fortify their villages very strongly with double fences of camphor-plank, pointed, and placed with their points projecting outwards; and between these fences they place pieces of bamboo, hardened by fire, and likewise pointed, which are concealed by the grass, but which will run quite through a man's foot. Such of their enemies whom they take prisoners, they put to death and eat; and their skulls they hang up as trophies, in the houses where the unmarried men and boys eat and sleep. They allow of polygamy: a man may purchase as many wives as he pleases; but their number seldom exceeds eight. All their wives live in the same house with the husband, and the houses have no partition; but each wife has her separate fire-place. It is from this country that most of the cassia sent to Europe is produced. The cassia tree grows to fifty or sixty feet, with a stem of about two feet in diameter, and a beautiful and regular spreading head. Within about ninety miles of Sumatra is the island of **ENGANHO**, which is very little known, on account of the terrible rocks and breakers which entirely surround it. It is inhabited by naked savages, who are tall and well made, and who generally appear armed with lances and clubs, and speak a different language from the inhabitants of any of the neighbouring islands.

The greatest part of **JAVA** belongs to the Dutch, who have here erected a kind of commercial monarchy, the capital of which is Batavia, a noble and populous city, lying in the latitude of six degrees south, at the mouth of the river Jucata, and furnished with one of the finest harbours in the world. The town itself is built in the manner of those of Holland, and is about a league and a half in circumference, with five gates, and surrounded by regular fortifications; but its suburbs are said to be ten times more populous than itself. The government here is a mixture of eastern magnificence and European police, and held by the Dutch governor-general of the Indies. When he appears abroad, he is attend-

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ed by his guards and officers; and with a splendor superior to that of any European potentate, except upon some solemn occasions. This city is as beautiful as it is strong; and its fine canals, bridges, and avenues, render it a most agreeable residence. The description of it, its government, and public edifices, have employed whole volumes. The city, where the governor has his palace, commands the town and the suburbs, which are inhabited by natives of almost every nation in the world; the Chinese residing in this island are computed at 100,000; but about 30,000 of that nation were barbarously massacred, without the smallest offence ever proved upon them, in 1740. This massacre was too unprovoked and detestable, to be defended even by the Dutch, who, when the governor arrived in Europe, sent him back to be tried at Batavia; but he never has been heard of since. A Dutch garrison of 3000 men constantly resides at Batavia, and about 15,000 troops are quartered in the island and the neighbourhood of the city.

The ANDAMAN and NICOBAR islands. These islands lie at the entrance of the bay of Bengal, and furnish provisions, consisting of tropical fruits and other necessaries, for the ships that touch there. They are otherwise too inconsiderable to be mentioned. They are inhabited by a harmless, inoffensive people.

CEYLON. This island, though not the largest, is thought to be, by nature, the richest and finest island in the world. It is situated in the Indian Ocean, near Cape Comorin; the southern extremity of the Hither Peninsula of India being separated from the coast of Coromandel by a narrow strait; and is 250 miles long, and 200 broad. The natives call it, with some show of reason, the terrestrial paradise; and it produces, besides excellent fruits of all kinds, long pepper, fine cotton, ivory, silk, tobacco, ebony, musk, crystal, saltpetre, sulphur, lead, iron, steel, copper; besides cinnamon, gold and silver; and all kinds of precious stones, except diamonds. All kinds of fowl and fish abound here. Every part of the island is well wooded and watered; and besides some curious animals peculiar to itself, it has plenty of cows, buffaloes, goats, hogs, deer, hares, dogs, and other quadrupeds. The Ceylon elephant is preferred to all others, especially if spotted; but several noxious animals, such as serpents and ants, are likewise found here. The chief commodity of the island is its cinnamon, which is by far the best found in the neighbourhood of Columbo, the chief settlement of the Dutch, and Negambo. The middle of the country is mountainous and woody, so that the rich and beautiful valleys are left in the possession of the Dutch, who have in a manner shut up the king in his capital city, Candy, which stands on a mountain in the middle of the island, so that he has scarcely any communication with other nations, or any property in the riches of his own dominions. The descendants of the ancient inhabitants are called Cinghales, who, though idolaters, value themselves upon maintaining their ancient laws and customs. They are, in general, a sober, inoffensive people, and are mingled with Moors, Malabars, Portuguese, and Dutch.

It may be here proper to observe, that the cinnamon-tree, which is a native of this island, has two, if not three barks, which form the true cinnamon; the trees of a middling growth and age afford the best; and the body of the tree, which, when stripped, is white, serves for building and other uses. In 1656, the Dutch were invited by the natives of this delicious island to defend them against the Portuguese, whom they

expelled, and have monopolised it ever since to themselves. Indeed, in January 1782, Trincomale, the chief sea-port of the island, was taken by the English, but soon afterwards retaken by the French, and restored to the Dutch by the last treaty of peace. In August, 1795, it was again taken by the English, in whose possession it still remains.

The MALDIVES. These are a vast cluster of small islands or little rocks just above the water, lying between the equator and eight degrees north latitude, near Cape Comorin. They are chiefly resorted to by the Dutch, who drive on a profitable trade with the natives for couries, a kind of small shells, which go, or rather formerly went, for money upon the coasts of Guinea and other parts of Africa. The cocoa of the Maldives is an excellent commodity in a medicinal capacity. "Of this tree (says a well-informed author) they build vessels of twenty or thirty tons; their hulls, masts, sails, rigging, anchors, cables, provisions, and firing, are all from this useful tree."

We have already mentioned BOMBAY, on the Malabar coast, in speaking of India. With regard to the language of all the Oriental islands, nothing certain can be said. Each island has a particular tongue; but the Malayan, Chinese, Portuguese, Dutch, and Indian words, are so frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European, who is not very expert in those matters, to know the radical language. The same may be almost said of their religion; for though its original is certainly pagan, yet it is intermixed with many Mahometan, Jewish, Christian, and other foreign superstitions.

The sea which separates the southern point of the peninsula of Kamtschatka from Japan, contains a number of islands in a position from north-north-east to south-south-west, which are called the KURILE ISLANDS. They are upwards of twenty in number, are all mountainous, and in several of them are volcanos and hot springs. The principal of these islands are inhabited: but some of the little ones are entirely desert and unpeopled. They differ much from each other, in respect both to their situation and natural constitution. The forests in the more northern ones are composed of laryx and pines; those in the southern produce canes, bamboos, vines, &c. In some of them are bears and foxes. The sea-otter appears on the coasts of all these islands, as well as whales, sea-horses, seals, and other amphibious animals. Some of the inhabitants of these islands have a great likeness to the Japanese, in their manners, language, and personal appearance; others very much resemble the Kamtschadales. The northern islands acknowledge the sovereignty of the empire of Russia; but those to the south pay homage to Japan. The Kurilians discover much humanity and probity in their conduct, and are courteous and hospitable; but adversity renders them timid, and prompts them to suicide. They have a particular veneration for old age. They reverence an old man whoever he be, but have an especial affection for those of their respective families. Their language is agreeable to the ear, and they speak and pronounce it slowly. The men are employed in hunting, fishing for sea animals and whales, and catching fowl. Their canoes are made of the wood that their forests produce, or that the sea casts upon their shores. The women have charge of the kitchen, and make clothes. In the northern isles they sew, and make different cloths of the thread of nettles. The southern islanders are more refined and polished than the northern, and carry on a sort of commerce with Japan, whither they export whale-oil, furs, and eagles' feathers to sledge arrows with. In return, they bring Japanese utensils of metal and varnished wood, silk

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A F R I C A.

AFRICA, the third grand division of the globe, is generally represented as bearing some resemblance to the form of a pyramid, the base being the northern part of it, which runs along the shores of the Mediterranean; and the point or top of the pyramid, the Cape of Good Hope. Africa is a peninsula of a prodigious extent, joined to Asia only by a neck of land, about sixty miles over, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, usually called the Isthmus of Suez; and its utmost length from north to south, from Cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 degrees north, to the Cape of Good Hope in 34-7 south latitude, is 4,300 miles; and the broadest part from Cape Verd, in 17-20 deg. W. lon. to Cape Guardafui, near the straits of Babel-Mandel, in 51-20 east longitude, is 3,500 miles from east to west. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean sea, which separates it from Europe; on the east by the Isthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean, which divides it from Asia; on the south by the Southern Ocean; and on the west by the great Atlantic Ocean, which separates it from America. As the equator divides this extensive country almost in the middle, and the far greater part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many places almost insupportable to an European; it being there increased by the rays of the sun, from vast deserts of burning sands. The coasts, however, and banks of rivers, such as the Nile, are generally fertile; and most parts of this region are inhabited, though it is far from being so populous as Europe and Asia. From what has been said, the reader cannot expect to find here a variety of climates. In many parts of Africa, snow seldom falls in the plains; and it is generally never found but on the tops of the highest mountains. The natives in these scorching regions would as soon expect that marble should melt, and flow in liquid streams, as that water by freezing should lose its fluidity, be arrested by the cold, and, ceasing to flow, become like the solid rock.

The most considerable rivers in Africa, are the Niger, which falls into the Atlantic or western ocean at Senegal, after a course of 2800 miles*. It increases and decreases as the Nile, fertilises the country,

* This is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to ascertain. For (according to Mr. Lucas's communications to the African Association) both the rise and the termination of the Niger are unknown, but the course is from east to west. So great is its rapidity, that no vessel can ascend its stream; and such is the want of skill, or such the absence of commercial inducements, among the nations who inhabit its borders, that even with the current, neither vessels nor boats are seen to navigate. In one place, indeed, the traveller finds accommodations for the passage of himself and his goods; but even there, though the ferrymen, by the indulgence of the sultan of Cassina, are exempted from all taxes, the boat which contains the merchandise is nothing more than an ill-constructed raft, for the planks are fastened to the timbers with ropes, and the seams are closed, both within and without, by plaster of tough clay, of which a large provision is always carried on the raft, for the purpose of excluding the stream wherever its entrance is observed.

The depth of the river at the place of passage, which is more than a hundred miles to the south of the city of Cassina, the capital of the empire of that name, is estimated atween ty-three or twenty-four feet English.

and has grains of gold in many parts of it. The Gambia and Senegal are only branches of this river. The Nile, which dividing Egypt into two parts, discharges itself into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious course from its source in Abyssinia. The most considerable mountains in Africa are the Atlas, a ridge extending from the western ocean, to which it gives the name of Atlantic Ocean, as far as Egypt, and had its name from a king of Mauritania, a great lover of astronomy, who used to observe the stars from its summit; on which account the poets represent him as bearing the heavens on his shoulders. The mountains of the Moon, extending themselves between Abyssinia and Monomotapa, and which are still higher than those of Atlas. Those of Sierra Leone, or the Mountain of the Lions, which divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. These were styled by the ancients the Mountains of God, on account of their being subject to thunder and lightning. The Peak of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their first meridian, is about two miles high, in the form of a sugar-loaf, and is situated on an island of the same name near the coast. The most noted capes or promontories in this country, are Cape Verd, so called because the land is always covered with green trees and mossy ground. It is the most westerly point of the continent of Africa. The Cape of Good Hope, so denominated by the Portuguese, when they first went round it in 1489, and discovered the passage to Asia. It is the southern extremity of Africa, in the country of the Hottentots; and the general rendezvous of every nation who trade to India, being about half way from Europe. It is at present in the possession of the English, who took it from the Dutch in September 1795. There is but one strait in Africa, which is called Babel-Mandel, and joins the Red Sea with the Indian Ocean.

The situation of Africa for commerce is extremely favourable, standing as it were in the centre of the globe, and having thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Asia, and America, than any of the other quarters has with the rest. That it abounds with gold, we have not only the testimony of the Portuguese, the Dutch, the English, and the French, who have settlements on the coast of Africa, but that of the most authentic historians. It is, however, the misfortune of Africa, that, though it has 10,000 miles of sea-coast, with noble, large, deep rivers, it should have no navigation, nor receive any benefit from them; and that it should be inhabited by an innumerable people, ignorant of commerce, and of each other. At the mouths of these rivers are the most excellent harbours, deep, safe, calm, sheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly secure by fortifications; but quite destitute of shipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandize. In short, Africa, though a full

Its width is such, that even at the island of Gongoo, where the ferrymen reside, the sound of the loudest voice from the northern shore is scarcely heard; and at Tombuctou, where the name of Guwea, or black, is given to the stream, the width is described as being that of the Thames at Westminster. In the rainy season it swells above its banks, and not only floods the adjacent lands, but often sweeps before it the cattle and cottages of the short-sighted, or too confident inhabitants.

That the people who live in the neighbourhood of the Niger should refuse to profit by its navigation, may justly surprize the traveller; but much greater is his astonishment, when he finds that even the food which the bounty of the stream would give, is uselessly offered to their acceptance; for such is the want of skill, or such the settled dislike of the people to the sort of provision, that the fish with which the river abounds, are left in undisturbed possession of its waters.

quarter of the globe, stored with an inexhaustible treasure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing so many things delightful, as well as convenient, within itself, seems to be almost entirely neglected, not only by the natives, who are quite unsolicitous of reaping the benefits which nature has provided for them, but also by the more civilised Europeans who are settled in it, particularly the Portuguese.

Africa once contained several kingdoms and states, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the most extensive commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia, in particular, were much celebrated; and the rich and powerful state of Carthage, that once formidable rival to Rome itself, extended her commerce to every part of the then known world; even the British shores were visited by her fleets, till Juba, who was king of Mauritania, but tributary to the republic of Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, with the assistance of the Mauritanians, subdued Carthage, and, by degrees, all the neighbouring kingdoms and states. After this the natives, constantly plundered, and consequently impoverished, by the governors sent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might serve for their subsistence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was over-run by the Vandals, who contributed still more to the destruction of arts and sciences; and, to add to this country's calamity, the Saracens made a sudden conquest of all the coasts of Egypt and Barbary, in the seventh century. These were succeeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mahometan religion, whose professors carried desolation with them wherever they came, the ruin of that once flourishing part of the world was thereby completed.

The inhabitants of this continent, with respect to religion, may be divided into three sorts; namely, Pagans, Mahometans, and Christians. The first are the more numerous, possessing the greatest part of the country, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope; and these are generally black. The Mahometans, who are of a tawny complexion, possess Egypt, and almost all the northern shores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary coast. The people of Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Christians, but retain many Pagan and Jewish rites. There are also some Jews in the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country is possessed of.

There are scarcely any two nations, or indeed any two of the learned, who agree in the modern divisions of Africa; and for this very reason, that scarcely any traveller has penetrated into the heart of the country; and consequently we must acknowledge our ignorance of the bounds, and even the names of several of the inland nations, which may be still reckoned among the unknown and undiscovered parts of the world; but, according to the best accounts and conjectures, Africa may be divided according to the following table:

	Natio. n.	Length.	Bread.	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bearing fr. Lon.	Dist. of time from London.	Religion.
Barbary.	Morocco, Tafilet, &c.	500	480	219,400	Fez	1080 S.	0 24 aft.	Mahom.
	Algiers	480	100	143,600	Algiers	920 S.	0 13 bef.	Mahom.
	Tunis	220	170	54,400	Tunis	990 SE.	0 39 bef.	Mahom.
	Tripoli	700	240	75,000	Tripoli	1260 SE.	0 56 bef.	Mahom.
	Barca	400	300	66,400	Polemata	1440 SE.	1 26 bef.	Mahom.
	Egypt	600	250	140,700	Grand Cairo	1920 SE.	2 21 bef.	Mahom.
	Bilegulgerid	2500	350	485,000	Dara	1565 S.	0 32 aft.	Pagans
Zaara	3400	660	739,200	Tegeffa	1800 S.	0 24 aft.	Pagans	
Negroland	2200	840	1,026,000	Madinga	2500 S.	0 38 aft.	Pagans	
Guinea	1800	360	510,000	Benia	2700 S.	0 20 bef.	Pagans	
Up. Ethiopia.	Nubia	940	600	264,000	Nubia	2418 SE.	2 12 bef.	Ma. & Pa.
	Abyssinia	900	800	378,000	Gondar	2880 SE.	2 20 bef.	Ma. & Pa.
	Abex	540	120	160,000	Doncala	3580 SE.	2 36 bef.	Ma. & Pa.
	The middle parts, called Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the Europeans, but are computed at 1,200,000 square miles.							
Lower Guinea.	Loango	410	300	49,400	Loango	3300 S.	0 44 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
	Congo	540	420	172,800	St. Salvador	3480 S.	1 0 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
	Angola	360	250	38,400	Loando	3750 S.	0 58 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
	Benguela	430	180	64,000	Benguela	3900 S.	0 58 bef.	Pagans
	Mataman	450	240	144,000	No Towns	***	**	Pagans
	Ajan	900	300	234,000	Brava	3702 SE.	2 40 bef.	Pagans
	Zanguel'er	1400	350	275,000	Melinda or Mozambiq.	4440 SE.	2 38 bef.	Pagans
	Monomotapa	960	660	222,500	Monomota.	4500 S.	1 18 bef.	Pagans
	Monemugi	900	660	310,000	Chicova	4260 S.	1 44 bef.	Pagans
	Sofola	480	300	97,000	Sofola	4600 SE.	1 18 bef.	Pagans
	Terra de Nat.	600	350	184,900	No Towns	***	***	Pagans
	Caffraria or Hottentot.	708	660	200,340	Cape of G. Hope	5200 S.	1 4 bef.	Most stupid Pag.

The principal islands of Africa lie in the Indian Seas and Atlantic Ocean; of which the following belong to, or trade with, the Europeans, and serve to refresh their shipping to and from India:

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Islands.	Sq Miles.	Towns.	Tr. with or belong to
Babel Mandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea		Babel Mandel	All Nations
Zocotra, in the Indian Ocean	3,600	Calayfia	Ditto
The Comora Isles, ditto	1,000	Joanua	Ditto
Madagascar, ditto	168,000	St. Auflin	Ditto
Mauritius, ditto	1,840	Mauritius	French
Bourbon, ditto	2,100	Bourbon	Ditto
St. Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean		St. Helena	English
Ascension, ditto			Uninhabited
St. Matthew, ditto			Ditto
St. Thomas, Anaboa, } ditto		St. Thomas, Anaboa	Portuguese
Princes-island, Fernando			
nandopo			
Cape Verd Islands, ditto	2,000	St. Domingo	Ditto
Goree, ditto		Fort St. Michael	French
Canaries, ditto		Palma, St. Christopher	Spanish
Madeira, ditto	1,500	Santa Cruz, Funchal	Portuguese
The Azores, or Western Isles, lie nearly at an equal distance from Europe, Africa, and America	2,000	Angra, St. Michael	Ditto

Having given the reader some idea of Africa, in general, with the principal kingdoms, and their supposed dimensions, we shall now consider it under the three grand divisions; first, Egypt; secondly, the states of Barbary, stretching along the coast of the Mediterranean, from Egypt in the east, to the Atlantic Ocean, west; and lastly, that part of Africa, between the tropic of Cancer and the Cape of Good Hope; the last of these divisions, indeed, is vastly greater than the other two; but the nations which it contains are so little known, and so barbarous, and, like all barbarous nations, so similar in most respects to one another, that they may, without impropriety, be thrown under one general head.

EGYPT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600 } Breadth 250 }	between } 20 and 32 north latitude. } 28 and 36 east longitude.	} 140,700

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea, North; by the Red Sea, East; by Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, on the South; and by the Desert of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa, West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
Northern division contains	Lower Egypt	GRAND CAIRO, E. long. 32. N. lat. 30.
		Bulac Alexandria Rosetto Damietta
Southern division contains	Upper Egypt	Sayd, or Thebes Coffiar

ART.] It is observed by M. Volney, that during eight months in the year (from March to November) the heat is almost insupportable by an European. "During the whole of this season, the air is inflamed, the sky sparkling, and the heat oppressive to all unaccustomed to it."—The other months are more temperate. The southerly winds which sometimes blow in Egypt, are by the natives called *poisonous* winds, or the *hot winds of the Desert*. They are of such extreme heat and aridity, that no animated body exposed to them can withstand their fatal influence. During the three days which it generally lasts, the streets are deserted; and woe to the traveller whom this wind surprises remote from shelter; when it exceeds three days, it is insupportable. Very frequently the inhabitants are almost blinded with drifts of sand. These evils are remedied by the rising and overflowing of the Nile.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Whoever is in the least acquainted with literature, knows that the vast fertility of Egypt is not owing to rain (little falling in that country), but to the annual overflowing of the Nile. It begins to rise when the sun is vertical in Ethiopia; and the annual rains there, viz. from the latter end of May to September, and sometimes October. At the height of its flood in the Lower Egypt, nothing is to be seen in the plains, but the tops of forests and fruit-trees, their towers and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of jubilee, with all sorts of festivities. The banks or mounds which confine it are cut by the Turkish basha, attended by his grandees; but according to captain Norden, who was present on the occasion, the spectacle is not very magnificent. When the banks are cut, the water is led into what they call the Chalis, or grand canal, which runs through Cairo, from whence it is distributed into cuts, for supplying their fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, such is the fertility of the soil, that the labour of the husbandman is next to nothing. He throws his wheat and barley into the ground in October and May. He turns his cattle out to graze in November, and in about six weeks, nothing can be more charming than the prospect which the face of the country presents, in rising corn, vegetables, and verdure of every sort. Oranges, lemons, and fruits perfume the air. The culture of pulse, melons, sugar-canes, and other plants, which require moisture, is supplied by small but regular cuts from cisterns and reservoirs. Dates, plantains, grapes, figs, and palm-trees, from which wine is made, are here plentiful. March and April are the harvest months, and they produce three crops; one of lettuces and of cucumbers (the latter being the chief food of the inhabitants), one of corn, and one of melons. The Egyptian pasturage is equally prolific, most of the quadrupeds producing two at a time, and the sheep four lambs a year.

ANIMALS.] Egypt abounds in black cattle; and it is said, that the inhabitants employ every day 200,000 oxen in raising water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of asses, upon which the Christians ride, those people not being suffered by the Turks to ride on any other beast. The Egyptian horses are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great speed, turn short, stop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river horse, an amphibious animal, resembling an ox in its hinder parts, with the head like a horse, is common in Upper Egypt. Tigers, hyænas, camels, antelopes, apes, with the head like a dog, and the rat, called ichneumon, are natives of Egypt. The cameleon, a little animal, something

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resembling a lizard, that changes colour as you stand to look upon him, is found here, as well as in other countries: The crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to this country: but there does not seem to be any material difference between it and the alligators of India and America. They are both amphibious animals, in the form of a lizard, and grow till they are about twenty feet in length, and have four short legs, with large feet, armed with claws, and their backs are covered with a kind of impenetrable scales, like armour. The crocodile waits for his prey in the fedge, and other cover, on the sides of rivers; and, pretty much resembling the trunk of an old tree, sometimes surprises the unwary traveller with his fore paws, or beats him down with his tail.

This country produces, likewise, great numbers of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water fowls of all kinds. The ibis, a creature (according to Mr. Norden) somewhat resembling a duck, was deified by the ancient Egyptians for its destroying serpents and pestiferous insects. They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt, but a species of them is said to have been lately discovered in other parts of Africa. Ostriches are common here, and are so strong, that the Arabs sometimes ride upon their backs.

The cerastes or horned viper inhabits the greater part of the eastern continent, especially the desert sandy parts of it. It abounds in Syria, in the three Arabias, and in Africa: this is supposed to be the asp which Cleopatra employed to procure her death. Alexandria, plentifully supplied by water, must then have had fruit of all kinds in its gardens. The baskets of figs must have come from thence, and the asp, or cerastes; that was hid in them, from the adjoining desert, where there are plenty to this day.

POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } As the population of Egypt is almost confined to the banks of the Nile, and the rest of the country inhabited by Arabs, and other nations, we can say little upon this head with precision. It seems, however, to be certain, that Egypt is at present not near so populous as formerly, and that its depopulation is owing to the inhabitants being slaves to the Turks. They are, however, still very numerous; but what has been said of the populousness of Cairo, as if it contained two millions, is a mere fiction.

The descendants of the original Egyptians are an ill-looking slovenly people, immersed in indolence, and are distinguished by the name of Coptes: in their complexions they are rather sun-burnt, than swarthy or black. Their ancestors were once Christians, and in general they still pretend to be of that religion; but Mahometanism is the prevailing worship among the natives. Those who inhabit the villages and fields, at any considerable distance from the Nile, consist of Arabs, or their descendants, who are of a deep swarthy complexion, and they are represented by the best authorities, as retaining the patriarchal tending their flocks, and many of them have no fixed place of abode. The Turks, who reside in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and insolence, and the Turkish habit, to distinguish themselves from the Arabs and Coptes, who dress very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers; but their ordinary dress is of blue linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it. The Christians and Arabs of the meaner kind content themselves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket-like, round their body. The Jews wear blue leather slippers; the other natives of the country wear red, and the foreign Christians yellow. The dress of

the women is tawdry and unbecoming; but their clothes are silk, when they can afford it; and such of them as are not exposed to the sun, have delicate complexions and features. The women are not admitted into the society of men even at table. When the rich are desirous of dining with one of their wives, they give her previous notice, when the accordingly prepares the most delicate dishes, and receives her lord with the greatest attention and respect. The women of the lower class usually remain standing, or seated in a corner of the room, while their husband is at dinner, and present him with water to wash, and help him at the table. The Coptes are generally excellent accountants, and many of them live by teaching the other natives to read and write. Their exercises and diversions are much the same as those made use of in Persia, and other Asiatic dominions. All Egypt is over-run with jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling slight-of-hand men.

RELIGION.] To what I have already said concerning the religion of Egypt, it is proper to add, that the bulk of the Mahometans are enthusiasts, and have among them their *santos*, or fellows who pretend to a superior degree of holiness, and without any ceremony intrude into the best houses, where it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Egyptian Turks mind religious affairs very little; and it would be hard to say, what species of Christianity is professed by the Christian Coptes, who are here numerous, but they profess themselves to be of the Greek church, and enemies to that of Rome. In religious, and indeed many civil matters, they are under the jurisdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who, by the dint of money, generally purchases a protection at the Ottoman court.

LANGUAGE.] The Coptic is the ancient language of Egypt. This was succeeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the caliphate, when the Arabs dispossessed the Greeks of Egypt. The Arabic or Arabesque, as it is called, is still the current language, but the Coptic and modern Greek continue to be spoken.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though it is past dispute that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the ancient Egyptians, yet scarcely a vestige of it remains among their descendents. This is owing to the bigotry and ignorance of their Mahometan masters; but here it is proper to make one observation, which is of general use. The caliphs, or Saracens, who subdued Egypt, were of three kinds. The first, who were the immediate successors of Mahomet, made war from conscience and principle, upon all kinds of literature, excepting the Koran: and hence it was, that when they took possession of Alexandria, which contained the most magnificent library the world ever beheld, its valuable manuscripts were applied for some months in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The same fate attended upon the other magnificent Egyptian libraries. The caliphs of the second race were men of taste and learning, but of a peculiar strain. They bought up all the manuscripts that survived the general conflagration, relating to astronomy, medicine, and some useles parts of philosophy; but they had no taste for the Greek arts of architecture, sculpture, painting, or poetry, and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of caliphs, especially those who called themselves caliphs of Egypt, disgraced human nature; and the Turks have rivetted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they imposed.

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All the learning, therefore, possessed by the modern Egyptians consists in arithmetical calculations for the dispatch of business, the jargon of astrology, a few nostrums in medicine, and some knowledge of Arabesque, or the Mahometan religion.

CURIOSITIES AND ANTIQUITIES.] Egypt abounds more with these than perhaps any other part of the world. Its pyramids have been often described. Their antiquity is beyond the researches of history itself, and their original uses are still unknown. The basis of the largest covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is 500 feet, but if measured obliquely to the terminating point, 700 feet. It contains a room thirty-four feet long, and seventeen broad, in which is a marble chest, but without either cover or contents, supposed to have been designed for the tomb of the founder. In short, the pyramids of Egypt are the most stupendous, and, to appearance, the most useless structures that ever were raised by the hands of men.

The mummy pits, so called from their containing the mummies, or embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are subterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent, but the art of preparing the mummies is now lost. It is said, that some of the bodies thus embalmed, are perfect and distinct at this day, though buried 3000 years ago. The labyrinth in Upper Egypt is a curiosity thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themselves. It is partly under ground, and cut out of a marble rock, consisting of twelve palaces, and 1000 houses, the intricacies of which occasion its name. The lake Mæris was dug by the order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile, and to communicate with that river, by canals and ditches, which still subsist, and are evidences of the utility as well as grandeur of the work. Wonderful grottos and excavations, mostly artificial, abound in Egypt. The whole country towards Grand Cairo is a continued scene of antiquities, of which the oldest are the most stupendous, but the more modern the most beautiful. Cleopatra's needle, and its sculptures, are admirable. Pompey's pillar is a fine regular column of the Corinthian order, the shaft of which is one stone, being eighty-eight feet nine inches in height, or ten diameters of the column; the whole height is 114 feet, including the capital and the pedestal. The Sphinx, as it is called, is no more than the head and part of the shoulders of a woman, hewn out of the rock, and about thirty feet high, near one of the pyramids.

The papyrus is one of the natural curiosities of Egypt, and served the ancients to write upon, but we know not the manner of preparing it. The pith of it is a nourishing food. The manner of hatching chickens in ovens is common in Egypt, and now practised in some parts of Europe. The construction of the oven is very curious.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES, } Even a slight review of these would amount to a large volume. In many places, not only temples, but the walls of cities, built before the time of Alexander the Great, are still entire, and many of their ornaments, particularly the colours of their paintings, are as fresh and vivid as when first laid on.

Alexandria, which lies on the Levant coast, was once the emporium of the world; and, by means of the Red Sea, furnished Europe, and great part of Asia, with the riches of India. It owes its name to its founder, Alexander the Great. It stands forty miles west from the Nile, and a hundred and twenty north-west of Cairo. It rose upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and is famous for the light-house erected on the opposite island of Pharos; for the direction of mariners, deservedly esteemed one of the wonders of the world. All the other parts

of the city were magnificent in proportion, as appears from their ruins, particularly the cisterns and aqueducts. Many of the materials of the old city, however, have been employed in building New Alexandria, which at present is a very ordinary sea-port, known by the name of Scanderoon. Notwithstanding the poverty, ignorance, and indolence of the inhabitants, their mosques, bagnios, and the like buildings, erected within these ruins, preserve an inexpressible air of majesty. Some think that Old Alexandria was built from the materials of the ancient Memphis.

Rosetta, or Raschid, stands twenty-five miles to the north-west of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful situation, and delightful prospects which command the fine country, or island of Delta, formed by the Nile, near its mouth. It is likewise a place of great trade.

Cairo, now Masr, the present capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a disagreeable residence, on account of its pestilential air, and narrow streets. It is divided into two towns, the Old and the New, and defended by an old castle, the works of which are said to be three miles in circumference. This castle is said to have been built by Saladin: at the west end are the remains of very noble apartments, some of which are covered with domes, and adorned with pictures in mosaic work; but these apartments are now only used for weaving embroidery, and preparing the hangings and coverings annually sent to Mecca. The well, called Joseph's well, is a curious piece of mechanism, about 300 feet deep. The memory of that patriarch is still revered in Egypt, where they show granaries, and many other works of public utility, that go under his name. They are certainly of vast antiquity; but it is very questionable whether they were erected by him. One of his granaries is shown in Old Cairo, but captain Norden suspects it is a Saracen work, nor does he give us any high idea of the buildings of the city itself. On the banks of the Nile, facing Cairo, lies the village of Gize, which is thought to be the ancient Memphis. Two miles west, is Bulac, called the port of Cairo. The Christians of Cairo practise a holy cheat, Juring the Easter holidays, by pretending that the limbs and bodies of the dead arise from their graves, to which they return peaceably. The streets of Cairo are pestered with the jugglers and fortune-tellers already mentioned. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dancing camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor: the intense heat makes the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the sound of drums, the noise of that instrument sets them a dancing whenever they hear it.

The other towns of note in Egypt are Damietta, supposed to be the ancient Pelusium; Seyd, on the west bank of the Nile, 200 miles south of Cairo, said to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes; by the few who have visited it, it is reported to be the most capital antique curiosity that is now extant; and Cosliar, on the West coast of the Red-Sea. The general practice of strangers who visit those places, is to hire a janissary, whose authority commonly protects them from the insults of the other natives. Suez, formerly a place of great trade, is now a small city, and gives name to the isthmus that joins Africa with Asia.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Egyptians export great quantities of unmanufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all sorts, calicoes, yellow wax, sal ammoniac, saltpetre, sugar, senna, and cassia. They trade with the Arabs for coffee, drugs, spices, calicoes, and other merchandises, which are landed at Suez.

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from whence they send them to Europe. Several European states have consuls resident in Egypt, but the customs of the Turkish government are managed by Jews. A number of English vessels arrive yearly at Alexandria; some of which are laden on account of the owners, but most of them are hired and employed as carriers to the Jews, Armenians, and Mahometan traders.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The government of Egypt is both monarchical and republican. The monarchical is executed by the pasha, and the republican by the Mamalukes or sangiacks. The pasha is appointed by the grand signor as his viceroy. The republican, or rather the aristocratical part of the government of Egypt, consists of a divan, composed of twenty-four sangiacks, beys, or lords. The head of them is called the sheik bellet, who is chosen by the divan, and confirmed by the pasha. Every one of these sangiacks is arbitrary in his own territory, and exerts sovereign power: the major part of them reside at Cairo. If the grand signor's pasha acts in opposition to the sense of the divan, or attempts to violate their privileges, they will not suffer him to continue in his post; and they have an authentic grant of privileges, dated in the year 1517, in which year sultan Selim conquered Egypt from the Mamalukes.

REVENUES.] These are very inconsiderable, when compared to the natural riches of the country, and the despotism of the government. Some say that they amount to a million sterling, but that two thirds of the whole is spent in the country.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] This consists in the Mamalukes, some bodies of whom are cantoned in the villages to exact tribute, and support authority. The greater part are assembled at Cairo. They amount to about 8,000 men, attached to the different beys, whom they enable to contend with each other, and to set the Turks at defiance.

HISTORY.] It is generally agreed, that the princes of the line of the Pharaohs sat on the throne of Egypt, in an uninterrupted succession, till Cambyfes II. king of Persia, conquered the Egyptians, 520 years before the birth of Christ; and that in the reign of these princes, those wonderful structures, the pyramids, were raised, which cannot be viewed without astonishment. Egypt continued a part of the Persian empire, till Alexander the Great vanquished Darius, when it fell under the dominion of that prince, who soon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. The conquests of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being seized upon by his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the share of Ptolemy, by some supposed to have been a half-brother of Alexander, when it again became an independent kingdom, about 300 years before Christ. His successors, who sometimes extended their dominion over great part of Syria, ever after retained the name of Ptolemies, and in that line Egypt continued between two and three hundred years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife and sister of Ptolemy Dionysius, the last king, ascended the throne. After the death of Cleopatra, who had been mistress successively to Julius Cæsar and Marc Antony, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the second caliph of the successors of Mahomet, who expelled the Romans after it had been in their hands 700 years. The famous library of Alexandria, said to consist of 700,000 volumes, was collected by Ptolemy Philadelphus, son of the first Ptolemy; and the same prince caused the Old Testament to be translated into Greek; this translation is known by the name of the Septuagint. About the time of the crusades, between the years 1150 and 1190, Egypt was govern-

ed by Nouredin, whose son, the famous Saladin, proved so formidable to the Christian adventurers, and retook from them Jerusalem. He instituted the military corps of Mamalukes, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after chose their prince out of their own body. Egypt, for some time, flourished under those illustrious usurpers, and made a noble stand against the prevailing power of the Turks, till the time of Selim, who, about the year 1517, after giving the Mamalukes several bloody defeats, reduced Egypt to its present state of subjection.

While Selim was settling the government of Egypt, great numbers of the ancient inhabitants withdrew into the deserts and plains, under one Zinganeus, from whence they attacked the cities and villages of the Nile, and plundered whatever fell in their way. Selim and his officers, perceiving that it would be a matter of great difficulty to extirpate those marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their posterity is known all over Europe and Asia, by the name of Gypsies.

An attempt was made a few years since, to deprive the Ottoman Porte of its authority over Egypt, by Ali Bey, whose father was a priest of the Greek church. Ali having turned Mahometan, and being a man of abilities and address, rendered himself extremely popular in Egypt. A false accusation having been made against him to the Grand Signor, his head was ordered to be sent to Constantinople; but being apprised of the design, he seized and put to death the messengers who brought this order, and soon found means to put himself at the head of an army. Being also assisted by the dangerous situation to which the Turkish empire was reduced, in consequence of the war with Russia, he boldly mounted the throne of the ancient sultans of Egypt. But not content with the kingdom of Egypt, he also laid claim to Syria, Palestine, and that part of Arabia which had belonged to the ancient sultans. He marched at the head of his troops to support these pretensions, and actually subdued some of the neighbouring provinces, both of Arabia and Syria. At the same time that he was engaged in these great enterprises, he was not less attentive to the establishing of a regular form of government, and of introducing order into a country that had been long the seat of anarchy and confusion. His views were equally extended to commerce; for which purpose he gave great encouragement to the Christian traders, and took off some shameful restraints and indignities to which they were subjected in that barbarous country. He also wrote a letter to the republic of Venice, with the greatest assurances of his friendship, and that their merchants should meet with the utmost protection and safety. His great design was said to be, to make himself master of the Red Sea; to open the port of Suez to all nations, but particularly to the Europeans; and to make Egypt once more the great centre of commerce. The conduct and views of Ali Bey showed an extent of thought and ability, that indicated nothing of the barbarian, and bespoke a mind equal to the founding of an empire. He assumed the titles and state of the ancient sultans of Egypt, and was ably supported by Sheik Daher, and some other Arabian princes, who warmly espoused his interests. He also succeeded in almost all his enterprises against the neighbouring Asiatic governors and bashaws, whom he repeatedly defeated: but he was afterwards deprived of the kingdom of Egypt, by the base and ungrateful conduct of his brother-in-law, Mahomed Bey Abudahab; his troops being totally defeated on the 7th of March, 1773. He was also himself wounded and taken prisoner;

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and dying of his wounds, was buried honourably at Grand Cairo. Abudahab afterwards governed Egypt as Sheik Bellet, and marched into Palestine to subdue Sheik Daher. After behaving with great cruelty to the inhabitants of the places he took, he was found dead in his bed one morning at Acre, supposed to be strangled. Sheik Daher accepted the Porte's full amnesty; and trusting to their assurances, embraced the captain pacha's invitation to dine on board his ship; when the captain produced his orders, and the brave Daher, Ali Bey's ally, had his head cut off in the 85th year of his age.

From that time Egypt has been torn by a civil war, between the adherents of Ali, and other beys or princes, who rose on his ruins. Of these the principal are Morad and Ibrahim, who having driven their enemies into banishment, began to quarrel among themselves. Alternately expelled from Cairo, they finally agreed to a compromise, March, 1785; but it is not expected that their agreement will be lasting.

The Porte still retains a pacha there; but this pacha, confined and watched in the castle of Calro, is rather the prisoner of the Mamalukes than the representative of the sultan.

THE STATES OF BARBARY.

UNDER this head are included the countries of, 1. Morocco and Fez; 2. Algiers; 3. Tunis; 4. Tripoli and Barca.

The empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the south, by Tafilet; and on the east, by Segelmessa and the kingdom of Algiers; being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and much the same in breadth. It lies between the kingdom of Algiers to the east, and Morocco on the south, and is surrounded on other parts by the sea.

Algiers, formerly a kingdom, is bounded on the east by the kingdom of Tunis, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the south by Mount Atlas, and on the west by the kingdoms of Morocco and Tafilet. According to Dr. Shaw, this country extends in length 480 miles along the coast of the Mediterranean, and is between 40 and 100 miles in breadth.

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the north and east; by the kingdom of Algiers on the west; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the south; being 220 miles in length from north to south, and 170 in breadth from east to west.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the south, by the country of the Beriberics; on the west by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and the territory of the Gadamis; and on the east by Egypt; extending about 1100 miles along the sea-coast; and the breadth is from 1 to 300 miles.

Each capital bears the name of the state or kingdom to which it belongs.

The Barbary states form a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exercise of its internal polity; nor is

there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the same kingdom, in the customs and manners of the inhabitants.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed all the other states; except in the months of July and August.

SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } These states, under the Roman empire, were justly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a residence there, was considered as the highest state of luxury. The produce of their soil formed those magazines which furnished all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppression and barbarity of their government, yet they are still fertile; not only in the above mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raisins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitchen gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on their plains; and, by the report of Europeans who have lived there for some time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleasures of life; for the great people find means to evade the sobriety prescribed by the Mahometan law, and make free with excellent wines and spirits of their own growth and manufacture. Algiers produces salt-petre, and great quantities of excellent salt; and lead and iron have been found in several places of Barbary.

Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found in the states of Barbary; but their deserts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, and monstrous serpents. The Barbary horses were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian. Though their breed is now said to be decayed, yet some very fine ones are occasionally exported into England. Dromedaries, asses, mules, and kumrahs, the most serviceable creature, begot by an ass upon a cow, are their seats of burden.

But from the services of the camel they derive the greatest advantages. This useful quadruped enables the African to perform his long and toilsome journeys across the continent. The camel is, therefore, (says Mr. Bruce) emphatically called the *Ship of the Desert*. He seems to have been created for this very trade, endued with parts and qualities adapted to the office he is employed to discharge. The driest thistle, and the barest thorn, is all the food this useful animal requires, and even these, to save time, he eats while advancing on his journey, without stopping, or occasioning a moment of delay. As it is his lot to cross immense deserts, where no water is found, and countries not even moistened by the dew of heaven, he is endued with the power, at one watering place, to lay in a store with which he supplies himself for thirty days to come. To contain this enormous quantity of fluid, nature has formed large cisterns within him, from which, once filled, he draws at pleasure the quantity he wants, and pours it into his stomach with the same effect as if he then drew it from a spring, and with this he travels, patiently and vigorously, all day long, carrying a prodigious load upon him; through countries infected with poisonous winds, and glowing with parching and never cooling sands.

Their cows are but small, and barren of milk. Their sheep yield indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are their goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weasels, moles, cameleons, and all kinds of reptiles are found here. Besides vermin, says Dr. Shaw,

(speaking of the coast of Barbary) the coast is so fertile that it is now a waste of wild capsafrone, which live out of the finest the ancient

Populations of the Barbary States.

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are said to be a waste of wild capsafrone, which live out of the finest the ancient

of the Algerians. Their manners are described. The people of Barbary, some in the

(speaking of his travels through Barbary) the apprehensions we are under, in some parts at least of this country, of being bitten or stung by the scorpion, the viper, or the venomous spider, rarely failed to interrupt our repose; a refreshment so very grateful, and so highly necessary to a weary traveller. Partridges, quails, eagles, hawks, and all kinds of wild-fowl, are found on this coast; and of the smaller birds, the capsa-sparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and the sweetness of its note, which is thought to exceed that of any other bird; but it cannot live out of its own climate. The seas and bays of Barbary abound with the finest and most delicious fish of every kind, and were preferred by the ancients to those of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } Morocco was certainly formerly far more populous than it is now, if, as travellers say, its capital contained 100,000 houses, whereas at present, it is thought not to contain above 25,000 inhabitants; nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it is true, that their king or emperor has 80,000 horse and foot, of foreign negroes, in his armies.

The city of Algiers is said to contain 100,000 Mahometans, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Christian slaves; but no estimate can be formed as to the populousness of its territory. Some travellers report that it is inhabited by a friendly hospitable people, who are very different in their manners and character from those of the metropolis.

Tunis is the most polished republic of all the Barbary states. The capital contains 10,000 families and above 3000 tradesmen's shops; and its suburbs consist of 1000 houses. The Tunisiens are indeed exceptions to the other States of Barbary; for even the most civilised of the European governments might improve from their manners. Their distinctions are well kept up, and proper respect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned professions. They cultivate friendship with the European states; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them; and the inhabitants are said at present to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom. The women are handsome in their persons; and though the men are sun-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate; nor are they less neat and elegant in their dress; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead-ore, the same pigment, according to the opinion of the learned Dr. Shaw, that Jezebel made use of when she is said (2 Kings, chap. ix. verse 30) to have painted her face; the words of the original being, that she set off her eyes with the powder of lead-ore. The gentlemen in general are sober, orderly, and clean in their persons, their behaviour complaisant, and a wonderful regularity reigns through all the city.

Tripoli was once the richest, most populous, and opulent of all the states on the coast; but it is now much reduced, and the inhabitants, who are said to amount to between 400,000 and 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines.

Their manners are much the same with those of the Egyptians already described. The subjects of the Barbary states, in general subsisting by piracy, are allowed to be bold intrepid mariners, and will fight desperately when they meet with a prize at sea; they are, notwithstanding, far inferior to the English and other European states, both in the construction and management of their vessels. They are, if we except the Tunisiens, void of all arts and literature. The misery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's

service, are beyond all description; but those who inhabit the inland parts of the country are a hospitable, inoffensive people; and indeed it is a general observation, that the more distant the inhabitants of those states are from the seats of their government, their manners are the more pure. Notwithstanding their poverty, they have a liveliness about them, especially those who are of Arabic descent, that gives them an air of contentment; and having nothing to lose, they are peaceable among themselves. The Moors are supposed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppressed by a handful of insolent domineering Turks, the refuse of the streets of Constantinople.

DRESS.] The dress of these people is a linen shirt, over which they tie a silk or cloth vestment with a sash, and over that a loose coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs of the wearer are bare, but they have slippers on their feet; and persons of condition sometimes wear bukkins. They never move their turbans, but pull off their slippers when they attend religious duties, or the person of their sovereign. They are fond of striped and fancied silks. The dress of the women is not very different from that of the men, but their drawers are longer, and they wear a sort of cawl on their heads instead of a turban. The chief furniture of their houses consists of carpets and mattresses, on which they sit and lie. In eating, their slovenliness is disgusting. They are prohibited gold and silver vessels; and their meat, which they swallow by handfuls, is boiled or roasted to rags.

RELIGION.] The inhabitants of these states are Mahometans; but many subjects of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hamed, a modern sectarist, and an enemy to the ancient doctrine of the caliphs. All of them have much respect for idiots; and in some cases their protection screens offenders from punishment, for the most notorious crimes. The Moors of Barbary, as the inhabitants of these states are now promiscuously called (because the Saracens first entered Europe from Mauritania, the country of the Moors), have in general adopted the very worst parts of the Mahometan religion, and seem to have retained only as much of it as countenances their vices. Adultery in the women is punished with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the most unnatural crimes with impunity. All foreigners are allowed the open profession of their religion.

LANGUAGE.] As the states of Barbary possess those countries that formerly went by the name of Mauritania and Numidia, the ancient African language is still spoken in some of the inland countries, and even by some inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the sea-port towns, and maritime countries, a bastard kind of Arabic is spoken; and seafaring people are no strangers to that medley of living and dead languages, Italian, French, Spanish, &c. that is so well known in all the ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca*.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } This article is well worth the
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } study of an antiquary, but the
subjects of it are difficult of access. The reader can scarcely doubt that the countries which contained Carthage, and the pride of the Phœnician, Greek, and Roman works, are replete with the most curious remains of antiquity: but they lie scattered amidst ignorant, barbarous inhabitants. Some memorials of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatness are still to be met with, and many ruins which bear evidence of their ancient grandeur and populousness. These point out the old

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Julia Casarea of the Romans, which was little inferior in magnificence to Carthage itself. A few of the aqueducts of Carthage are still remaining, particularly at Manuba, a country house of the Bey's, four miles from Tunis; but no vestige of its walls. The same is the fate of Utica, famous for the retreat and death of Cato; and many other renowned cities of antiquity; and so over-run is the country with barbarism, that their very sites are not known, even by their ruins, amphitheatres, and other public buildings, which remain still in tolerable preservation. Besides those of classical antiquity, many Saracen monuments, of the most stupendous magnificence, are likewise found in this vast tract: these were erected under the caliphs of Bagdad, and the ancient kings of the country, before it was subdued by the Turks, or reduced to its present form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifications in the country, both inland and maritime. We know of few or no natural curiosities belonging to this country, excepting its salt-pits, which in some places take up an area of six miles. Dr. Shaw mentions springs found here, that are so hot as to boil a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour.

[CITIES AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS.] Mention has already been made of Morocco, the capital of that kingdom, but now almost in ruins, the court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities; but by the best accounts the common people live in a very slovenly manner.

The city of Algiers is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houses, and 107 mosques. The public baths are large, and handomely paved with marble. The prospect of the country and sea from Algiers is very beautiful, the city being built on the declivity of a mountain; but, though for several ages it has braved some of the greatest powers in Christendom, it could make but a faint defence against a regular siege; and it is said that three English fifty-gun ships might batter it about the ears of its inhabitants from the harbour. The Spaniards, however, attacked it, in 1775, by land and by sea, but were repulsed with great loss, though they had near 20,000 foot and 2000 horse, and 47 king's ships, of different rates, and 346 transports. In the years 1783 and 1784, they also renewed their attacks by sea to destroy the city and galleys, but after spending a quantity of ammunition, bombs, &c. were forced to retire without either its capture or destruction. The mole of the harbour is 500 paces in length, extending from the continent to a small island where there is a castle and large battery.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the finest of all these states, contains the remains of many noble cities, some of them still in good condition. Tunis, built near the original site of Carthage, has a wall and fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The houses are not magnificent, but neat and commodious; as is the public exchange for merchants and their goods; but, like Algiers, it is distressed for want of fresh water; that of rain, preserved in cisterns, is chiefly used by the inhabitants.

The city of Tripoli consists of an old and new town, the latter being the most flourishing; but great inconveniences attend its situation, particularly the want of sweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coast, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of considerable trade, and the object of many bloody disputes between the Spaniards and the Moors. Constantine

was the ancient Cirta, and one of the strongest cities of Numidia, being inaccessible on all sides, excepting the south-west.

Besides the above towns and cities, many others, formerly of great renown, lie scattered up and down this immense tract of country. The city of Fez, at present the capital of the kingdom so called, is said to contain near 300,000 inhabitants, besides merchants and foreigners. Its mosques amount to 500; one of them magnificent beyond description, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is esteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Sallee was formerly famous for the piracies of its inhabitants. Tangier, situated about two miles within the straits of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of queen Catharine, consort to Charles II. of England. It was intended to be to the English what Gibraltar is now; and it must have been a most noble acquisition, had not the misunderstandings between the king and his parliament occasioned him to blow up its fortifications and demolish its harbour; so that, from being one of the finest cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fishing town. Ceuta, upon the same strait, almost opposite to Gibraltar, is still in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always, besieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuan, which lies within twenty miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houses; but the inhabitants are said to be rich, and tolerably civilised in their manners.

The provinces of Suz, Tafilet, and Gesula, form no part of the states of Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their sovereign; nor do they contain any thing that is particularly curious. Zaara is a desert country, thinly peopled, and almost destitute both of water and provisions.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The lower subjects of these states know very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies to be supplied with necessary utensils and manufactures; so that their exports consist chiefly of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, sword-knots, and carpets, which are cheaper and softer than those of Turkey, though not so good in other respects. As they leave almost all their commercial affairs to the Jews and Christians settled among them, the latter have established silk and linen works, which supply the higher ranks of their own subjects. They have no ships, that, properly speaking, are employed in commerce; so that the French and English carry on the greatest part of their trade. Their exports, besides those already mentioned, consist in elephants' teeth, ostrich feathers, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raisins, olives, almonds, gum arabic, and sandarach. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewise said to carry on a considerable trade by caravans to Mecca, Medina, and some inland parts of Africa, from whence they bring back vast numbers of negroes, who serve in their armies, and are slaves in their houses and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furnish them with timber, artillery of all kinds, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities. The duties paid by the English in the ports of Morocco, are but half of those paid by other Europeans. It is a general observation, that no nation is fond of trading with these states, not only on account of their capricious despotism, but the villany of their individuals, both natives and Jews, many of whom take all opportunities of cheating, and, when detected, are seldom punished.

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It has often been thought surprizing, that the Christian powers should suffer their marine to be insulted by these barbarians, who take the ships of all nations with whom they are at peace, or rather, who do not pay them a subsidy either in money or commodities. We cannot account for this forbearance otherwise than by supposing, first, that a breach with them might provoke the Porte, who pretends to be the lord paramount; secondly, that no Christian power would be fond of seeing Algiers, and the rest of that coast, in possession of another; and, thirdly, that nothing could be got by a bombardment of any of their towns, as the inhabitants would instantly carry their effects into the deserts and mountains, so that the benefit resulting from the conquest must be tedious and precarious. — Indeed, expeditions against Algiers have been undertaken by the Spaniards, but they were ill-conducted and unsuccessful, as before noticed.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] In Morocco, government cannot be said to exist. The emperors have for some ages been parties, judges, and even executioners with their own hands, in all criminal matters; nor is their brutality more incredible than the submission with which their subjects bear it. In the absence of the emperor, every military officer has the power of life and death in his hand, and it is seldom that they regard the form of a judicial proceeding. Some vestiges, however, of the caliphate government still continue; for in places where no military officer resides, the mufti or high-priest is the fountain of all justice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, who act as our justices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately subject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the grand signor to be his superior, and he pays him a distant allegiance as the chief representative of Mahomet. What has been said of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli have each of them a Turkish pasha or dey who governs in the name of the grand signor, yet very little regard is paid by his ferocious subjects to his authority. He cannot even be said to be nominated by the Porte. When a vacancy of the government happens, which it commonly does by murder, every soldier in the army has a vote in choosing the succeeding dey; and though the election is often attended with bloodshed, yet it is no sooner fixed than he is cheerfully recognised and obeyed. It is true, he must be confirmed by the Porte; but that is seldom refused, as the divan is no stranger to the dispositions of the people. The power of the dey is despotic; and the income of the dey of Algiers amounts to about 150,000*l.* a year, without greatly oppressing his subjects, who are very tenacious of their property. These deys pay slight annual tributes to the Porte. When the grand signor is at war with a Christian power, he requires their assistance, as he does that of the king of Morocco; but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the deys are officers, both military and civil; and in all matters of importance the dey is expected to take the advice of a common council which consists of thirty pashas. These pashas seldom fail of forming parties amongst the soldiers, against the reigning dey, whom they make no scruple of assassinating, even in council; and the strongest candidate then fills his place. Sometimes he is deposed; sometimes, though but very seldom, he resigns his authority to save his life, and it is seldom he dies a natural death upon the throne. The authority of the dey is unlimited; but an unsuccessful expedition, or too pacific a conduct, seldom fails to put an end to his life and government.

REVENUES.] Those of Algiers have been already mentioned, but they are now said to be exceeded by Tunis. They consist of a certain proportion of the prizes taken from Christians; a small capitation tax, and the customs paid by the English, French, and other nations, who are suffered to trade with those states. As to the king of Morocco, we can form no idea of his revenues, because none of his subjects can be said to possess any property. From the manner of his living, his attendance, and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The ransoms of Christian slaves are his perquisites. He sometimes shares in the vessels of the other states, which entitles him to part of their prizes. He claims a tenth of the goods of his Mahometan subjects, and six crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He has likewise considerable profits in the Negroland and other caravans, especially the slave-trade towards the south. It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue, in money, does not exceed 165,000*l.* a year. A detachment of the army of these states is annually sent into each province to collect the tribute from the Moors and Arabs; and the prizes they take at sea sometimes equal the taxes laid upon the natives.

MILITARY STRENGTH } By the best accounts we have received,
AT SEA AND LAND. } the king of Morocco can bring into the field 100,000 men; but the strength of his army consists of cavalry mounted by his negro slaves. Those wretches are brought young to Morocco, know no other state but servitude, and no other master but that king, and prove the firmest support of his tyranny. About the year 1727, all the naval force of Morocco consisted only of three small ships, which lay at Sallee, and being full of men, sometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about 6500 foot, consisting of Turks, and collogies, or the sons of soldiers. Part of them serve as marines on board their vessels. About 1000 of them do garrison duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Besides these, the dey can bring 2000 Moorish horse into the field; but as they are enemies to the Turks, they are little trusted. Those troops are under excellent discipline, and the deys of all the other Barbary states maintain a force in proportion to their abilities; so that a few years ago they refused to send any tribute to the Turkish emperor, who seems to be satisfied with the shadow of obedience which they pay him.

It is very remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets and more extensive commerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that state flourished, the present inhabitants have scarcely any merchant ships belonging to them, nor indeed any other than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli fit out for piracy; which, though increased since the last attack of the Spaniards, are now but few and small, and some years ago did not exceed six ships; from thirty-six to fifty guns. The admiral's ship belongs to the government; the other captains are appointed by private owners, but subject to military law. With such a contemptible fleet, these infidels not only harass the nations of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute by way of presents.

HISTORY.] Under the Roman emperors, the states of Barbary formed the fairest jewels in the imperial diadem. It was not till the seventh century that, after these states had been by turns in possession of the Vandals and the Greek emperors, the caliphs or Saracens of Bagdad conquered them; and from thence became masters of almost all Spain, from whence their posterity was totally driven about the year 1492,

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when the exiles settled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coast. This naturally begot a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards, who pressed them so hard, that they called to their assistance the two famous brothers Barbarossa, who were admirals of the Turkish fleet, and who, after breaking the Spanish yoke, imposed upon the inhabitants of all those states (excepting Morocco) their own. Some attempts were made by the emperor Charles V. to reduce Algiers and Tunis; but they were unsuccessful; and, as observed, the inhabitants have in fact shaken off the Turkish yoke likewise.

The emperors, or kings of Morocco, are the successors of those sovereigns of that country who were called xeriffs, and whose powers resembled that of the caliphate of the Saracens. They have been in general a set of bloody tyrants; though they have had among them some able princes, particularly Muley Moluc, who defeated and killed Don Sebastian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almost a continual state of warfare with the kings of Spain and other Christian princes ever since: nor does the crown of Great Britain sometimes disdain, as in the year 1769, to purchase their friendship with presents.

ABYSSINIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 920	} between { 6 and 20 North latitude. 26 and 44 East longitude.	} 378,000.
Breadth 900		

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded on the North by the kingdom of Senaar, or Nubia; on the East partly by the Red sea, and partly by Dancala; on the West, by Gorham; and on the South, by the kingdom of Gingiro, and Alaba.

It contains (according to Mr. Bruce, from whom the following account is chiefly taken) the following provinces, viz.

1. Masuah; 2. Tigre; 3. Samen; 4. Begemder; 5. Amhara; 6. Walaka; 7. Gojam; 8. Damot; 9. Malha; 10. Dembea; 11. Kuara; 12. Nava.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The rainy season continues for six months of the year, from April to September, which is succeeded, without interval, by a cloudless sky and vertical sun; and cold nights, which as immediately follow these scorching days. The earth, notwithstanding the heat of these days, is yet perpetually cold, so as to feel disagreeably to the soles of the feet; partly owing to the six months' rains, when no sun appears, and partly to the perpetual equality of nights and days.

QUADRUPEDS.] There is no country in the world which produces a greater number or variety of quadrupeds, whether tame or wild, than Abyssinia. Of the tame or cow-kind, great abundance present themselves every where, differing in size, some having horns of various dimensions, some without horns at all; differing also in the colour and length of their hair.

Among the wild animals are prodigious numbers of the gazel, or antelope kind; the bohur, fassa, fecho, and madequa, and many others. The hyæna is still more numerous. There are few varieties of the dog

or fox kind. Of these the most numerous is the deep, or, as he is called, the jackal; this is precisely the same in all respects as the deep of Barbary and Syria, who are heard hunting in great numbers, and howling in the evening and morning. The wild boar, smaller and smoother in the hair than that of Barbary or Europe, but differing in nothing else, is met frequently in swamps or banks of rivers covered with wood.

The elephant, rhinoceros, giraffa, or camelopardalis, are inhabitants of the low hot country; nor is the lion, leopard, or faadh, which is the panther, seen in the high and cultivated country. The hippopotamus and crocodile abound in all the rivers, not only of Abyssinia, but as low down as Nubia and Egypt. There are many of the ass kind in the low country towards the frontiers of Atbara, but no zebras; these are the inhabitants of Fazuelo and Næra.

But of all the other quadrupeds, there is none exceeds the hyæna for its merciless ferocity. They were a plague, says our author, speaking of these animals, in Abyssinia in every situation, both in the city and in the field, and I think surpassed the sheep in number. Gondar was full of them from the time it turned dark till the dawn of day, seeking the different pieces of slaughtered carcases which this cruel and unclean people expose in the streets without burial.

It is a constant observation in Numidia, that the lion avoids and flies from the face of man, till by some accident they have been brought to engage, and the beast has prevailed against him; then that feeling of superiority imprinted by the Creator in the heart of all animals for man's preservation, seems to forsake him. The lion, having once tasted human blood, relinquishes the pursuit after the flock. He repairs to some highway or frequented path, and has been known, in the kingdom of Tunis, to interrupt the road to a market for several weeks; and in this he persists till hunters or soldiers are sent out to destroy him.

BRDS.] The number of birds in Abyssinia exceeds that of other animals beyond proportion. The high and low countries are equally stored with them: the first kind are the carnivorous birds. Many species of the eagle and hawk, many more still of the vulture kind, as it were, overstock all parts of the country. That species of glede, called Had-daya, so frequent in Egypt, comes very punctually into Ethiopia, at the return of the sun, after the tropical rains. The Nissar, or golden eagle, is not only the largest of the eagle kind, but one of the largest birds that flies. From wing to wing he is eight feet four inches. The black eagle Rachamah, Erkoom, Moroc, Sheregrig, and Waalia, are particularly described by the historian of Abyssinia, to whose celebrated work we refer the reader who is desirous of information concerning them.

There is no great plenty of water-fowl in Abyssinia, especially of the web-footed kind. Vast variety of storks cover the plains in May, when the rains become constant. All the deep and grassy bogs have snipes in them; and there are swallows of many kinds unknown in Europe; those that are common in Europe appear in passage at the very season when they take their flight from thence. There are few owls in Abyssinia; but those are of an immense size and beauty. There are no geese, wild or tame, excepting what is called the Golden Goose, Goose of the Nile, or Goose of the Cape, common in all the South of Africa: these build their nests upon trees, and when not in water, generally sit upon them.

INSECTS.] From the class of insects, we shall select the most remarkable, viz. the Tsaltalya, or fly, which is an insect that furnishes a striking proof how fallacious it is to judge by appearances. If we consider

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its small size, its weakness, want of variety or beauty, nothing in the creation is more contemptible or insignificant. Yet passing from these to his history, and to the account of his powers, we must confess the very great injustice we do him from want of consideration. We are obliged, with the greatest surprize, to acknowledge, that those huge animals, the elephant, the rhinoceros, the lion, and tiger, inhabiting the same woods, are still vastly his inferiors, and that the appearance of this small insect, nay, his very sound, though he is not seen, occasions more trepidation, movement, and disorder, both in the human and brute creation, than would whole herds of these monstrous animals collected together, though their number was in a ten-fold proportion greater than it really is.

This insect has not been described by any naturalist. It is in size very little larger than a bee, of a thicker proportion. As soon as this plague appears, and their buzzing is heard, all the cattle forsake their food, and run wildly about the plain, till they die, worn out with fatigue, fright, and hunger. No remedy remains but to leave the black earth, and hasten down to the sands of Atbara, and there they remain while the rains last, this cruel enemy never daring to pursue them farther. Though the size of the camel is immense, his strength vast, and his body covered with a thick skin, defended with strong hair, yet still he is not capable to sustain the violent punctures the fly makes with his pointed proboscis. He must lose no time in removing to the sands of Atbara; for, when once attacked by this fly, his body, head, and legs break out into large bosses, which swell, break, and putrify, to the certain destruction of the creature.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] The *Papyrus*, which is a plant well known in Egypt, appears to have been early brought thither from Ethiopia. It is also found in Abyssinia. *Baleffar*, *Balm*, or *Balsam*, is also a native of Abyssinia. The great value set upon this drug in the east, remounts to very early ages. We know from scripture, the oldest history extant, as well as the most infallible, that the Ismaelites, or Arabian carriers and merchants, trafficking with the India commodities, into Egypt, brought with them balm as part of the cargo.—The *Ensete* is an herbaceous plant, which grows and comes to great perfection at Gondar, but it most abounds in that part of Maitsha and Goutto west of the Nile, where there are large plantations of it, and is there, almost exclusive of every thing else, the food of the Gallá inhabiting that province. When soft, like the turnip well-boiled, if eaten with milk or butter, it is the best of food, wholesome, nourishing, and easily digested. The *Tiff* is a grain commonly sown all over Abyssinia, where it seems to thrive equally on all sorts of ground; from it is made the bread which is commonly used throughout this country. The Abyssinians indeed have plenty of wheat, and some of it of an excellent quality. They likewise make as fine wheat-bread as any in the world, both for colour and taste; but the use of wheat-bread is chiefly confined to people of the first rank. The acacia tree is very common in Abyssinia, as are several other curious productions of the vegetable world.

LAKES.] The lake of Tzana (not to mention those of Gooderoo, and Court Ohha) is by much the largest expanse of water known in this country. Its extent, however, has been greatly exaggerated. Its greatest breadth is thirty-five miles, and its extent in length is forty-nine. The Nile, by a current always visible, crosses the end of it. In the dry months, from October to March, the lake shrinks greatly in size; but after that all those rivers are full which are on every side of it, and fall

into the lake, like radii drawn to a centre, it then swells, and extends itself into the plain country, and has, of course, a much larger surface.

There are about eleven inhabited islands in the lake. All these islands were formerly used as prisons for the great people, or for a voluntary retreat, on account of some disgust, or great misfortune, or as places of security to deposit their valuable effects during troublesome times.

CATARACTS OF THE NILE.] Omitting those of inferior note, we shall here give the reader some account of the great cataract of Alata, which was the most magnificent sight that Mr. Bruce ever beheld. The height has been rather exaggerated. The missionaries say the fall is about sixteen ells, or fifty feet. The measuring is, indeed, very difficult; but, by the position of long sticks, and poles of different lengths, at different heights of the rock, from the water's edge, Mr. Bruce thinks he may venture to say that it is nearer forty feet than any other measure. The river had been considerably increased by rains, and fell in one sheet of water, without any interval, above half an English mile in breadth, with a force and noise that was truly terrible, and which stunned, and made him for a time perfectly dizzy. A thick fume or haze covered the fall all round, and hung over the course of the stream, both above and below, marking its tract, though the water is not seen. The river, though swelled with rain, preserved its natural clearness, and fell, as far as he could discern, into a deep pool, or basin, in the solid rock, which was full, and in twenty different eddies to the very foot of the precipice; the stream, when it fell, seeming part of it to run back with great fury upon the rock, as well as forward in the line of its course, raising a wave, or violent ebullition, by chafing against each other.

SOURCES OF THE NILE.] The Agows of Damot pay divine honours to the Nile; they worship the river; and thousands of cattle have been offered, and still are offered, to the spirit supposed to reside at its sources. The village of Geesh, though not farther distant than 600 yards, is not in sight of the sources of the Nile. In the middle of a marsh near the bottom of the mountain of Geesh, arises a hillock of a circular form, about three feet from the surface of the marsh itself, though apparently founded much deeper in it. The diameter of this is something short of twelve feet; it is surrounded by a shallow trench, which collects the water, and voids it eastward; it is firmly built with sod or earthen turf, brought from the sides, and constantly kept in repair, and this is the altar upon which all their religious ceremonies are performed. In the middle of this altar is a hole, obviously made, or at least enlarged, by the hand of man. It is kept clear of grass or other aquatic plants, and the water in it is perfectly pure and limpid, but has no ebullition or motion of any kind discernible upon its surface. This mouth, or opening of the source, is some parts of an inch less than three feet in diameter, and the water stood about two inches from the lip or brim. The spring is about six feet six inches deep.

Ten feet distant from the first of these springs, is the sacred fountain, about eleven inches in diameter; but this is eight feet three inches deep. And about twenty feet distant from the first, is the third source, its mouth being something more than two feet large, and it is five feet eight inches deep. With a brass quadrant of three feet radius, he found the exact latitude of the principal fountain of the Nile to be $10^{\circ} 59' 25''$, though the Jesuits have supposed it 12° N. by a random guess. The longitude he ascertained to be $36^{\circ} 55' 30''$ East of the meridian of Greenwich.

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nearly stationary for some days in the tropic of Capricorn, the air there becomes so much rarefied, that the heavier winds, charged with watery particles, rush in upon it from the Atlantic on the west, and from the Indian Ocean on the east. Having thus gathered such a quantity of vapours as it were to a focus, the sun now puts them in motion, and drawing them after it in its rapid progress northward, on the 7th of January, for two years together, seemed to have extended its power to the atmosphere of Gondar, when, for the first time, there appeared in the sky white, dappled, thin clouds, the sun being then distant 34° from the zenith, without any one cloudy or dark speck having been seen for several months before. Advancing to the line with increased velocity, and describing larger spirals, the sun brings on a few drops of rain at Gondar the 1st of March, being then distant 5° from the zenith; these are greedily absorbed by the thirsty soil; and this seems to be the farthest extent of the sun's influence capable of causing rain, which then only falls in large drops, and lasts but a few minutes: the rainy season, however, begins most seriously upon its arrival at the zenith of every place, and these rains continue constant and increasing after he has passed it, in his progress northward.

In April, all the rivers in Amhara, Begemder, and Lasta, are first discoloured, and then beginning to swell, join the Nile, in the several parts of its course nearest them; the river then, from the height of its angle of inclination, forces itself through the stagnant lake without mixing with it. In the beginning of May, hundreds of streams pour themselves from Gojam, Damot, Maitsha, and Dembea, into the lake Tzana, which had become low by intense evaporation, but now begins to fill insensibly, and contributes a large quantity of water to the Nile, before it falls down the cataract of Alata. In the beginning of June, the sun having now passed all Abyssinia, the rivers there are all full, and then is the time of the greatest rains in Abyssinia, while it is for some days, as it were, stationary in the tropic of Cancer.

Immediately after the sun has passed the line, he begins the rainy season to the southward, still as he approaches the zenith of each place: but the situation and necessities of this country being varied, the manner of promoting the inundation is changed. A high chain of mountains runs from above 6° south all along the middle of the continent towards the Cape of Good Hope, and intersects the southern part of the peninsula, nearly in the same manner that the river Nile does the northern. A strong wind from the south, stopping the progress of the condensed vapours, dashes them against the cold summits of this ridge of mountains, and forms many rivers which escape in the direction either east or west, as the level presents itself. If this is towards the west, they fall down the sides of the mountains, into the Atlantic, and if on the east, into the Indian Ocean.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] GONDAR, the metropolis of Abyssinia, is situated upon a hill of considerable height, the top of it nearly plain, on which the town is placed. It consists of about ten thousand families in time of peace; the houses are chiefly of clay, the roofs thatched in the form of cones, which is always the construction within the tropical rains. On the west end of the town is the king's house, formerly a structure of considerable consequence. It was a square building flanked with square towers. It was formerly four stories high, and from the top of it had a magnificent view of all the country southward to the lake Tzana. Great part of this house is now in ruins, having been burnt at different times; but there is still ample lodging in the two lowest floors

being

of it, the audience-chamber being above one hundred and twenty feet long.

The palace and all its contiguous buildings are surrounded by a substantial stone wall thirty feet high, with battlements upon the outer wall, and a parapet roof between the outer and inner, by which you can go along the whole, and look into the street. There appears to have been never any embrasures for cannon, and the four sides of the wall are above an English mile and a half in length. Gondar, by a number of observations of the sun and stars made by day and night, in the course of three years, with an astronomical quadrant of three feet radius, and two excellent telescopes, and by a mean of all their small differences, is in N. lat. $12^{\circ} 34' 30''$: and by many observations of the satellites of Jupiter, especially the first, both in their immersions and emersions during that period, its longitude was found to be $37^{\circ} 33' 0''$ east from the meridian of Greenwich.

DIXAN is the first town in Abyssinia, on the side of Taranta. Dixan is built on the top of a hill perfectly in form of a sugar-loaf; a deep valley surrounds it every where like a trench, and the road winds spirally up the hill till it ends among the houses. It is true of Dixan, as of most frontier towns, that the bad people of both contiguous countries resort thither. The town consists of Moors and Christians, and is very well peopled; yet the only trade of either of these sects is a very extraordinary one, that of selling children. The Christians bring such as they have stolen in Abyssinia to Dixan as to a sure deposit; and the Moors receive them there, and carry them to a certain market at Masuah, whence they are sent over to Arabia or India. The priests of the province of Tigré, especially those near the rock Damo, are openly concerned in this infamous practice. Dixan is in lat. $14^{\circ} 57' 55''$ north, and long. $40^{\circ} 7' 30''$ east of the meridian of Greenwich.

AXUM is supposed to have been once the capital of Abyssinia, and its ruins are now very extensive; but, like the cities of ancient times, consist altogether of public buildings. In one square, which seems to have been the centre of the town, there are forty obelisks, none of which have any hieroglyphics upon them. They are all of one piece of granite, and, on the top of that which is standing, there is a *patena*, exceedingly well carved, in the Greek taste. Axum is watered by a small stream, which flows all the year from a fountain in the narrow valley, where stand the rows of obelisks. The spring is received into a magnificent basin of 150 feet square, and thence it is carried at pleasure, to water the neighbouring gardens, where there is little fruit excepting pomegranates, neither are these very excellent. The latitude of this town is $14^{\circ} 6' 36''$ north.

MASUAH. The houses of this town, which is situated upon an island bearing the same name, on the Abyssinian shore of the Red Sea, are in general built of poles and bent grass, as in the towns of Arabia; but besides these, there are about twenty of stone, six or eight of which are two stories each. N. lat. $15^{\circ} 35' 5''$. E. long. $39^{\circ} 36' 30''$.

[TRADE AND COMMERCE.] There is a considerable deal of trade carried on at Masuah, narrow and confined as the island is, and violent and unjust as is the government. But it is all done in a slovenly manner, and for articles where a small capital is invested. Property here is too precarious to risk a venture in valuable commodities, where the hand of power enters into every transaction.

Gondar, and all the neighbouring country, depend for the necessaries of life, cattle, honey, butter, wheat, hides, wax, and a number of such

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articles, upon the Agows, who inhabit a province in which the sources of the Nile are found, and which province is no where sixty miles in length, nor half that in breadth. These Agows come constantly in succession, a thousand or fifteen hundred at a time, loaded with these commodities, to the capital.

It may naturally occur, that, in a long carriage, such as that of a hundred miles in such a climate, butter must melt, and be in a state of fusion, consequently, very near putrefaction: this is prevented by the root of an herb, called Moc-moco, yellow in colour, and in shape nearly resembling a carrot; this they bruise and mix with their butter, and a very small quantity preserves it fresh for a considerable time.

RELIGION.] Mr. Bruce informs us, from the annals of Abyssinia, that in the time of Solomon all this country was converted to Judaism, and the government of the church and state modelled according to what was then in use at Jerusalem.

Some ecclesiastical writers, rather from attachment to particular systems, than from any conviction that the opinion they espouse is truth, would persuade us, that the conversion of Abyssinia to Christianity happened in the days of the apostles; but it appears that this was effected by the labours of Frumentius (the apostle of the Abyssinians) in the year of Christ 333, according to our account.

Their first bishop, Frumentius, being ordained about the year 333, and instructed in the religion of the Greeks of the church of Alexandria, by St. Athanasius, then sitting in the chair of St. Mark, it follows that the true religion of the Abyssinians, which they received on their conversion to Christianity, is that of the Greek church. They receive the holy sacrament in both kinds, in unleavened bread, and in the grape bruised with the husk together as it grows, so that it is a kind of marmalade, and is given in a flat spoon. They observe also circumcision.

HISTORY.] As the accounts of kings and princes of remote ages are not always entertaining, and as the history of so barbarous and uncivilised a people will, we presume, afford but small amusement to our readers, whatever satisfaction they may have received from surveying the manners and customs of the people, and the natural history of the country; we shall therefore make no farther apology for omitting the account of the annals of Abyssinia, but refer those who have any desire of information upon this subject, to the second volume of the Travels of our adventurous author, where they will find a very ample detail through more than 700 pages of a ponderous quarto.

FEZZAN, BORNOU, AND CASHNA.

IT having been long a subject of complaint that Europeans know very little, if any thing, of the *interior districts* of Africa, we are happy to find that a number of learned and opulent individuals have formed themselves into a society for the purpose of exploring them. The association was formed on the 9th of June, in the year 1788; and on the same day a committee of its members, viz. *lord Rawdon, the bishop of Landaff, sir Joseph Banks, Mr. Beaufoy, and Mr. Stuart*, were invested with the direction of its funds, the management of the correspondence, and the choice of the persons to whom the geographical mission was

to be assigned. Persuaded of the importance of the object which the association had in view, their committee lost no time in executing the plan which it had formed. Two gentlemen were recommended to them; and appearing to be eminently qualified for making the projected researches, they were chosen. One was a *Mr. Ledyard*; the other a *Mr. Lucas*.

Such a person as *Mr. Ledyard* was formed by nature for the object in contemplation: and were we unacquainted with the sequel, we should congratulate the society on being so fortunate as to find such a man for one of their missionaries: but the reader will soon be acquainted with the melancholy circumstance to which we allude.

From two such geographical missionaries (observes a very respectable literary journalist *) much information was no doubt expected; and though the views of the society are not yet fully answered, the communications which it has received, are of a nature which will excite, though not fully gratify, the curiosity of geographers.

Mr. Ledyard undertook, at his own desire, the difficult and perilous task of traversing from east to west, in the latitude attributed to the Niger, the widest part of the continent of Africa. On this bold adventure he left London, June 30, 1788, and arrived at Cairo on the 19th of August.

Hence, he transmitted such accounts to his employers, as manifest him to have been a traveller who observed, reflected, and compared; and such was the information which he collected here from the travelling slave-merchants, and from others, respecting the interior districts of Africa, that he was impatient to explore them. He wrote to the committee, that his next communication would be from Sennaar (600 miles to the south of Cairo): but death, attributed to various causes, arrested him at the commencement of his researches, and disappointed the hopes which were entertained of his projected journey.

Endowed with a soul for discovery, and formed by nature for achievements of hardihood and peril, the death of *Mr. Ledyard* must be considered as a public misfortune.

With a mixture of regret and disappointment, we turn from poor *Ledyard*, to notice *Mr. Lucas's* communications, which occupy the greatest part of the volume published by the association. He embarked for Tripoli, October 18, 1788, with instructions to proceed over the Desert of Zahara to Fezzan, to collect, and to transmit by way of Tripoli, whatever intelligence the people of Fezzan, or the traders thither, might be able to afford respecting the interior of the continent; and to return by the way of Gambia, or the coast of Guinea.

Instructions to undertake great enterprises are more easily given than executed. So *Mr. Lucas* found; and so the reader, to his disappointment, will find likewise. Only a part of the plan was this geographical missionary able to carry into execution. He sets out, indeed, mounted on a handsome mule, presented to him by the bey, the bashaw's eldest son, in company with sheerefs, for the kingdom of Fezzan; resolved, we will suppose, to penetrate from Tripoli even unto Gambia: but his peregrinations, which began Feb. 1, 1798, terminated at Mesurata, on Feb. 7.

Deprived of visiting Fezzan, and the other inland districts of Africa, *Mr. Lucas* solicits the information of his fellow travellers, and transmits

* Monthly Review, new Series, vol. ii. p. 63.

* Herfes and the country.

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to the society the result of his conferences. A memoir compiled in this way, from the reports of a sheereef Imhammed, will not be deemed very satisfactory; and yet it certainly merits consideration, as it is, in part, corroborated by other testimonies.

Having no other sources of information, however, we must, for the present, content ourselves with these communications. From the various conferences of Mr. Lucas with the sheereef Imhammed, the following narrative is composed:

It describes the kingdom of Fezzan to be a small circular domain, placed in a vast wilderness, as an island in the midst of the ocean, containing near a hundred towns and villages, of which Mourzook is the capital, distant, south from Mefurata, about 390 miles. In this kingdom are to be seen some venerable remains of ancient magnificence, some districts of remarkable fertility, and numerous smoking lakes, producing a species of fossil alkali called *irona*. Agriculture and pasturage are the principal occupations of the Fezzanners; they do not appear to have any coin; their medium of commerce is gold-dust; their houses, or rather huts, are built of clay, and are covered with branches of trees, on which earth is laid. As rain never falls at Fezzan, this covering is a sufficient protection. Their dress resembles that of the Moors of Barbary: but, during the heats of summer, which are intense, they only wear drawers, and a cap to protect their heads from the immediate action of the sun. To these, many particulars are added of their persons, diseases, and mode of cure; of their religion, government, taxes, animal and vegetable productions. Their sovereign, who is a tributary of the bashaw of Tripoli, administers impartial justice.

The narrative proceeds to state, that south-east of Mourzook, at the distance of 150 miles, is a sandy desert, 200 miles wide; beyond which are the mountains of Tibesti, inhabited by ferocious savages, tributary to Fezzan. The valleys between the mountains are said to be fertilized by innumerable springs, to abound with corn, and to be celebrated for their breed of camels. The tribute of the Tibestins to the king of Fezzan is twenty camel-loads of fenna.

This kingdom is inconsiderable, when compared with the two great empires of Bornou and Cashna, which lie south of Fezzan, occupying that vast region which spreads itself from the river of the Antelopes for 1200 miles westward, and includes a great part of the Niger's course. Cashna, we are informed, contains a thousand towns and villages; and in Bornou, which is still more considerable, thirty languages are said to be spoken. The latter is represented as a fertile and beautiful country; its capital being situated within a day's journey of the river *Wad-el-Gazel*, which is lost in the sandy wastes of the vast desert of Bilma, and is inhabited by herdsmen, dwelling, like the old patriarchs, in tents, and whose wealth consists in their cattle*. (Bornou, or Ber-noa, is a word signifying the land of Noah; for the Arabs conceive, that, on the retiring of the deluge, its mountains received the ark.) Though they cultivate various sorts of grain, the use of the plough is unknown; and the hoe is the only instrument of husbandry. Here grapes, apricots, and pomegranates, together with limes and lemons, and two species of melons, the water and the musk, are produced in large abundance; but one of the most valuable of its vegetables is a tree called *kedeyna*, which, in form and height, resembles the olive, is

* Horses and horned cattle, goats, sheep, and camels, are the common animals of the country.

like the lemon in its leaf, and bears a nut, of which the kernel and the shell are both in great estimation, the first as a fruit, the last on account of the oil which it furnishes when bruised, and which supplies the lamps of the people of Bornou with a substitute for the oil of olives, p. 139. Bees, it is added, are so numerous, that the wax is often thrown away as an article of no value in the market. Many other particulars are added, for which we must refer to the work. The population is described by the expression, *a countless multitude*. We shall pass over the nature of their religion, which is Mohammedan; of their government, which is an elective monarchy; and the singular mode of their electing a new king from among the children of the deceased sovereign: but the account of the present sultan, his wives, and his children (p. 227) is too curious not to be exhibited.

‘The present sultan, whose name is Ali, is a man of an unostentatious, plain appearance; for he seldom wears any other dress than the common blue shirt of cotton or silk, and the silk or muslin turban, which form the usual dress of the country. Such, however, is the magnificence of his seraglio, that the ladies who inhabit it are said to be 500 in number, and he himself is described as the reputed father of 350 children, of whom 300 are males; a disproportion which naturally suggests the idea that the mother, preferring to the gratification of natural affection the joy of seeing herself the supposed parent of a future candidate for the empire, sometimes exchanges her female child for the male offspring of a stranger.

‘We are told that fire-arms, though not unknown to the people of Bornou, are not possessed by them.

‘South-east from Bornou, lies the extensive kingdom of Begarmee; and, beyond this kingdom, are said to be several tribes of negroes, idolaters, and feeders on human flesh. These, we are told, are annually invaded by the Begarmee; and when they have taken as many prisoners as their purpose may require, they drive the captives, like cattle, to Begarmee. It is farther said, that if any of them, exhausted by fatigue, happen to linger in their pace, one of the horsemen seizes on the oldest, and cutting off his arm, uses it as a club to drive on the rest.

‘We are not much disposed to give credit to this relation. That the negroes, who are sold for slaves, are different from the other Africans, is not probable; and that they should be driven along with the mangled limbs of their associates, utterly exceeds belief.

‘The empire of Cashna bears a great resemblance to that of Bornou.

‘After perusing what is here related of the extent, population, fertility, manufactures, and commerce of these regions, we may be permitted to wonder at their having remained altogether unknown to Europeans. We cannot but suspect considerable exaggerations. That the interior parts of Africa are peopled, the caravans which go from Cairo and Tripoli, and which are often absent three years, sufficiently evince: but that they are divided into regular and civilised states, may be a question. *A thousand towns and villages* in one empire, and *thirty different languages* spoken in the other, manifest a disposition in the sheereef Imhammed to enlargement, or, at least, to retail loose reports. That they should be acquainted with, yet not possess fire-arms, nor make any attempt to navigate the Niger, nor even to take the fish that abound in its waters, but little accords with the history of their commerce, and of their progress in manufactures.

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dulous as to some particulars, the prospect which this narrative opens to us of the interior of Africa (the greater part of which we have been accustomed to consider as consigned, by nature, to perpetual sterility and desolation) must afford great pleasure; and though, as we have already remarked, it is far from being satisfactory, or from having already answered the object of the mission, it may be regarded by the society as that sort of evidence which should encourage them to persevere, and ought to induce Europeans, without delay, actually to explore the central provinces of the African continent.'

SIERRA LEONE, AND BULAM.

A Settlement, from the purest motives of humanity, was formed at Sierra Leone, upon the coast of Africa (in $8^{\circ} 12' N.$ Lat. and about $12^{\circ} W.$ Lon.) under the patronage of a very respectable society of gentlemen in London, in the year 1791. The benevolent purposes for which it was intended, are to introduce the light of knowledge, and the comforts of civilisation into Africa; and to cement and perpetuate the most confidential union between the European colony and the natives of that country.

The company has ordered experiments to be made; concerning the growth of sugars in their settlements, which have met with such success, as to encourage a hope that the present high price of this commodity may be soon reduced, by a rivalry with the West India merchants. This benevolent colony proceeds with diligence in clearing of land, and building of houses. Some delay was occasioned in obtaining the united consent of the surrounding chiefs, which was at length procured, and the dispositions of king Naimbanna appear to be very friendly. The climate is found to be more salubrious than was expected. We wish success to the settlement, established upon principles that do honour to humanity.

A settlement of a similar nature was formed upon the island of Bulam, on the same coast, to the eastward of the island of Bigos, under the direction of Mr. Dalrymple. But this is now entirely relinquished. A great part of the colonists were massacred by the natives of the shore at the mouth of the river Gambia, who were accustomed to make annual plantations of rice in Bulam. The surviving colonists have taken refuge among their countrymen at Sierra Leone; and Mr. Dalrymple, the governor, has returned to England.

At Sierra Leone, on the contrary, the colonists are on the happiest terms of friendship with the natives; and make every possible progress in completing their buildings, and laying out their lots of land for cultivation.

OF AFRICA, from the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good-Hope.

See the Table and Map.

THIS immense territory is, comparatively speaking, very little known; there is no modern traveller that has penetrated into the interior parts; so that we are ignorant not only of the bounds, but even of the names, of several inland countries. In many material circumstances, the inhabitants of this extensive continent agree with each other. If we except the people of Abyssinia, who are tawny, and profess a mixture of Christianity, Judaism, and Paganism, they are all of a black complexion: in their religion, except on the sea-coasts, which have been visited and settled by strangers, they are Pagans: and the form of government is every where monarchical. Few princes, however, possess a very extensive jurisdiction; for as the natives of this part of Africa are grossly ignorant in all the arts of utility or refinement, they are little acquainted with one another; and generally united in small societies, each governed by its own prince. In Abyssinia, indeed, as well as in Congo, Loango, and Angola, we are told of powerful monarchs; but, on examination, it is found that the authority of these princes stands on a precarious footing, each tribe or separate body of their subjects being under the influence of a petty chieftain of their own, styled *Negus*, to whose commands, however contrary to those of the *Negafcha Negafchi*, or king of kings, they are always ready to submit. This indeed must always be the case among rude nations, where the art of governing, like all others, is in a very simple and imperfect state. In the succession to the throne, force generally prevails over right; and an uncle, a brother, or other collateral relation, is on this account commonly preferred to the descendants whether male or female.

The fertility of a country so prodigiously extensive might be supposed more various than we find it is: in fact, there is no medium in this part of Africa with regard to the advantage of soil; it is either perfectly barren, or extremely fertile. This arises from the intense heat of the sun, which, where it meets with sufficient moisture, produces the utmost luxuriance; and in those countries where there are few rivers, reduces the surface of the earth to a barren sand. Of this sort are the countries of Anian and Zahara, which, for want of water, and consequently of all other necessaries, are reduced to perfect deserts, as the name of the latter denotes. In those countries, on the other hand, where there is plenty of water, and particularly where the rivers overflow the land, part of the year, as in Abyssinia, the productions of nature, both of the animal and vegetable kinds, are found in the highest perfection and greatest abundance. The countries of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Batua, Truticui, Monomotapa, Cafati, and Mehenemugi, are extremely rich in gold and silver. The baser metals likewise are found in these, and many other parts of Africa. But the persons of the natives make the most considerable article in the produce and traffic of this miserable quarter of the globe.

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and other settlements near and up the river Gambia, where they exchange their woollen and linen manufactures, their hard ware and spirituous liquors, for the persons of the natives. Among the negroes, a man's wealth consists in the number of his family, whom he sells like so many cattle, and often at an inferior price. Gold and ivory, next to the slave trade, form the principal branches of African commerce. These are carried on from the same coast, where the Dutch and French, as well as English, have their settlements for the purpose. The Portuguese are in possession of the east and west coast of Africa, from the tropic of Capricorn to the equator; which immense tract they became masters of by their successive attempts, and happy discovery and navigation of the Cape of Good Hope. From the coast of Zanguebar, on the eastern side, they trade not only for the articles above mentioned, but likewise for several others, as senna and aloës, civet, ambergrise, and frankincense.

COUNTRY OF THE HOTTENTOTS.

DURING the thirty-six hours which I spent (says Monsieur Vailant) with the Gonaqua Hottentots, I had time to make several observations concerning them. I remarked that they made a clapping noise with their tongue, like the rest of the Hottentots. When they address any one, they stretch forth the hand, saying, *Tabé*, I salute you. This word and ceremony, which are employed by the Caffrees, are not used by the Hottentots, properly so called.

This affinity of customs, manners, and even conformation; their being so near Great Caffraria, and the accounts I afterwards received, convinced me these *hordes* of Gonaquas, who equally resemble the Caffrees and the Hottentots, must be a mixed breed, produced by these two nations. The dress of the men, arranged with more symmetry, has the same shape as that of the Hottentots; but as the Gonaquas are a little taller, they make their mantles of calves' instead of sheep's skins; they are both called *krofs*. Several of them wear, hanging from their necks, a bit of ivory, or very white sheep-bone, and this contrast of the two colours produces a good effect, and is very becoming.

When the weather is excessively hot, the men lay aside every part of their dress that is superfluous, and retain only what they name their *jackals*. This is a piece of skin of the animal so called, with which they cover what nature bids them conceal, and which is fastened to their girdle. This veil, however, negligently arranged, may be considered as an useless appendage, and is of very little service to their modesty. The women, much sonder of dress than the men, employ more care in adorning their persons. They wear a *krofs* like the latter, but the apron which conceals their sex is larger than those of the Hottentots. During the great heats, they retain only this apron, with a skin which descends, behind, from their girdle to the calf of the leg: young girls below the age of nine years go perfectly naked; when they attain to that age, they wear nothing but a small apron.

Whatever may be the extent of the deserts of Africa, we must not form any calculation respecting its population from those innumerable swarms of blacks which are found on the west, and which border all the

coast of the ocean, from the Canary isles to the environs of the Cape of Good Hope. There is certainly no proportion to enable us to hazard even a conjecture; since by a trade approved by a few, and held in detestation by the greater number, the barbarous navigators of Europe have induced these negroes, by the most villanous attractions, to give up their prisoners, or those who are inferior to them in strength. As their wants increased, they have become inhuman and perfidious beings; the prince has sold his subjects; the mother has sold her son; and nature, as an accomplice, has rendered her prolific.

This disgusting and execrable traffic is, however, still unknown in the interior parts of the continent. The desert is really a desert; and it is only at certain distances that one meets with a few *hordes*, that are not numerous, and who live on the fruits of the earth, and the produce of their cattle. After finding one horde, one must travel a great way to find another. The heat of the climate, the dryness of the sands, the barrenness of the earth, a scarcity of water, rugged and rocky mountains, ferocious animals; and, besides these, the humour of the Hottentots, a little phlegmatic, and their cold temperament—are all obstacles to propagation. When a father has six children, it is accounted a phenomenon.

The country of the Gonaquas, into which I penetrated, did not therefore contain three thousand people, in an extent of thirty or forty leagues. These people did not resemble those degenerated and miserable Hottentots who pine in the heart of the Dutch colonies, contemptible and despised inhabitants, who bear no marks of their ancient origin, but an empty name; and who enjoy, at the expense of their liberty, only a little peace, purchased at a dear rate, by the excessive labour to which they are subjected on the plantations, and by the despotism of their chiefs, who are always sold to government. I had here (continues M. Vaillant) an opportunity of admiring a free and brave people, valuing nothing but independence, and never obeying any impulse foreign to nature.

The huts, constructed like those of the Hottentots in the colonies, were eight or nine feet in diameter, and were covered with ox or sheepskins, but more commonly with mats. They had only one opening, very narrow and low; and it was in the middle of their hut that the family kindled their fire. The thick smoke with which these kennels were filled, and which had no other vent but the door, added to the stench which they always retain, would have stifled any European who might have had the courage to remain in them two minutes; custom, however, renders all this supportable to these savages.

The two colours for which they show the greatest fondness are red and black. The first is composed of a kind of ochry earth, which is found in several places of the country, and which they mix and dilute with grease; this earth has a great resemblance to brick-dust, or tiles reduced to powder. Their black is nothing else than soot, or the charcoal of tender wood. Some women, indeed, are contented with painting only the prominence of the cheeks; but in general they daub over their whole body, in compartments, varied with a certain degree of symmetry: and this part of their dress requires no small length of time. These two colours, so much admired by the Hottentots, are always perfumed with the powder of the *boughou*, which is not very agreeable to the smell of an European. A Hottentot would, perhaps, find our odours and essences no less insupportable; but the *boughou* has over our rouge and pastes the advantage of not being pernicious to the skin.

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of not attacking and injuring the lungs; and the female Hottentot, who is acquainted with neither amber, musk, nor benzoin, never knows what it is to be oppressed by vapours, spasms, and the headache. The men never paint their faces, but they use a preparation made of both colours mixed, to paint the upper lip as far as the nostrils; by which they enjoy the advantage of continually inhaling the odour of the substance employed for this purpose. Young girls sometimes favour their lovers so far as to apply this paint for them under the nose; and on this point they show a kind of coquetry, which has a very powerful influence over the heart of a Hottentot novice. The reader, however, must not infer, that the Hottentot women pay so much attention to dress, as to neglect those daily and useful occupations to which nature and their usages call them. Separated from Europe by an immensity of sea, and from the Dutch colonies by desert mountains and impassable rocks, too much communication with these people has not yet led them to the excesses of our depravation. On the contrary, when they have the happiness of being mothers, nature addresses them in a different language; they assume, more than in any other country, a spirit suitable to their state, and readily give themselves up to those cares which she imperiously requires of them.

They are remarkably fond of hunting, and in this exercise they display great dexterity. Besides gins and snares, which they place at convenient spots to catch large animals, they lie in wait for them also, attack them as soon as they appear, and kill them with their poisoned arrows, or their assegays, which are a kind of lances. On the first view of their arrows, one would not suspect how destructive weapons they are: their smallness renders them so much the more dangerous, as it is impossible to perceive and follow them with the eye, and consequently to avoid them. The slightest wound which they make, always proves mortal, if the poison reaches the blood, and if the flesh be torn. The surest remedy is to amputate the wounded part, if it be a limb; but if the wound be in the body, death is unavoidable. The assegay is generally a very feeble weapon in the hands of a Hottentot; but, besides this, its length renders it not dangerous, for as it may be seen cleaving the air, it is not difficult to avoid it.

The Hottentots have not the least notion of the elements of agriculture; they neither sow nor plant, nor do they even reap any crop. When they choose to give themselves the trouble, they make an intoxicating liquor composed of honey and a certain root, which they suffer to ferment in a certain quantity of water. This liquor, which is a kind of hydromel, is not their usual beverage, nor do they ever keep a stock of it by them. Whatever they have, they drink all at once, and frequently regale themselves in this manner at certain periods. They smoke the leaves of a plant which they name *dagha*, and not *daka*, as some others have written. This plant is not indigenous; it is the hemp of Europe. There are some of the savages who prefer these leaves to tobacco; but the greatest part of them are fond of mixing both together. They set less value on the pipes brought from Europe, than on those which they fabricate themselves; the former appear to them to be too small.

Though they rear abundance of sheep and oxen, they seldom kill the latter, unless some accident happens to them, or old age has rendered them unfit for service. Their principal nourishment, therefore, is the milk of their ewes and cows, besides which, they have the produce of their hunting excursions, and from time to time they kill a sheep. To

fatten their animals they employ a process, which, though not practised in Europe, is no less efficacious, and has this peculiar advantage, that it requires no care. They bruise, between two flat stones, those parts which we deprive them of by the knife; and when thus compressed they acquire in time a prodigious bulk, and become a most delicate morsel, when they have resolved to sacrifice the animal.

Those oxen which they intend for carrying burdens must be broke and trained very early to the service; otherwise they would become absolutely untractable. On this account, when the animal is still young, they pierce the cartilage which separates the nostrils, and thrust through the hole a piece of stick about eight or ten inches in length, and almost an inch in diameter. The task of milking the cows and the ewes belongs to the women: and, as they never beat or torment them, they are surprisngly tractable.

Of their sheep and kine each village has one common herd; every inhabitant taking it in his turn to be herdsman. This charge requires many precautions, very different from those which are taken by our herdsmen, beasts of prey being much more numerous and fierce in the southern parts of Africa than in Europe. Lions, indeed, are not very common; but there are elephants, rhinoceroses, leopards, tigers, hyænas, and several kinds of wolves, more destructive than ours, together with many other furious animals that abound in the forests, and occasionally make excursions towards the Cape, and destroy the tame cattle. To prevent these misfortunes, it is the business of the herdsman to go, or send, every day round his district, in order to discover if any beast of prey be lurking in that quarter. In which case, he assembles the whole village together, and makes his report; when a party of the stoutest among them arm themselves with javelins and poisoned arrows, and follow the person who may have discovered the beast, to the cave or covert where he is lodged. Here they arrange themselves in two lines; the herdsman entering the cave, and endeavouring to provoke the beast to follow him out, where he is inevitably destroyed.

These savages measure the year by the epochs of drought and rainy weather. This division is common to all the inhabitants of the tropical regions, and it is subdivided into moons; but they never count the days, if they exceed ten, that is to say, the number of their fingers. Beyond that, they mark the day or the time by some remarkable epoch: for example, an extraordinary storm, an elephant killed, an infectious disorder among the cattle, an emigration, &c. The different parts of the day they distinguish by the course of the sun; and they will tell you, pointing with their finger, he was *there* when I departed, and *here* when I arrived.

A sense of delicacy makes the Hottentots keep themselves separate from others when they are sick. They are then seldom seen, and it would appear that they are ashamed of having lost their health.

When a Hottentot dies, he is buried in his worst kross, and the limbs are disposed in such a manner that the whole body is covered. The relations then carry it to a certain distance from the horde, and disposing it in a pit dug for this purpose, and which is never deep, cover it with earth, and then with stones, if any are to be found in the neighbourhood. Such a mausoleum proves but a very weak defence against the attacks of the jackal and the hyæna: the body indeed is soon dug up and devoured. However badly this last duty may be discharged, the Hottentots are not much to be blamed, when we call to mind the funeral ceremonies of the ancient and celebrated Persis, still attached

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to the custom of exposing their dead on the tops of high towers, or in open cemeteries, in order that the crows and the vultures may feed upon them and carry them away in morsels. The children, and, failing them, the nearest relations of the deceased, take possession of whatever is left; but the quality of a chief is not hereditary. He is always appointed by the horde, and his power is limited. In their councils his advice prevails, if it be judged good; if not, no regard is paid to it. When they are about to go to war, they know neither rank nor divisions; each attacks or defends after his own manner; the most intrepid march in the van; and, when victory declares itself, they do not bestow upon one man the honour of an action which has proved successful by the courage of all: it is the whole nation that triumphs.

Of all the people whom I ever saw (observes our author), the Gonaquas are the only nation that can be considered as free; but they will perhaps be soon obliged to remove to a greater distance, or receive laws from the Dutch government. All the land to the east being in general good, the planters endeavour to extend their possessions in that quarter as much as they can, and their avarice, doubtless, will some day succeed. Misery must then be the portion of these happy and peaceable people; and every trace of their liberty will be destroyed by massacres and invasions. Thus have all those hordes mentioned by old authors been treated; and, by being often dismembered and weakened, they are now reduced to a state of absolute dependence on the Dutch. The existence of the Hottentots, their names, and their history, will therefore in time be accounted fabulous; unless some traveller, who may possess curiosity enough to induce him to discover their remains, should have the courage to penetrate into the remote deserts inhabited by the great Nimiquas, where rocks more and more hardened by time, and old and barren mountains, do not produce a single plant worthy to engage the attention of the speculative botanist.

It is necessary in this narration to take notice of that disgusting apron of the Hottentot women, which has long made a figure in history. It is still fashionable among a certain horde. I say it is fashionable (observes our author); for, instead of being the gift of nature, it ought to be considered as one of the most monstrous refinements ever invented by I know not what coquetry, altogether peculiar to a certain small corner of the world. This singularity is nothing else but a prolongation of the nymphæ, occasioned by weights suspended from them. They may hang down about nine inches, more or less, according to the age of the person, or the assiduous care which is bestowed on this singular decoration.

A physiognomist, or, if the reader pleases, a modern wit, would entertain his company by assigning to the Hottentot, in the scale of beings, a place between a man and the ouran-outang. I cannot, however, consent to this systematic arrangement; the qualities which I esteem in him will never suffer him to be degraded so far; and I have found his figure sufficiently beautiful, because I experienced the goodness of his heart. It must indeed be allowed, that there is something peculiar in his features, which in a certain degree separates him from the generality of mankind. His cheek-bones are exceedingly prominent; so that his face being very broad in that part, and the jaw-bones, on the contrary, extremely narrow, his visage continues still decreasing even to the point of the chin. This configuration gives him an air of lankness, which makes his head appear very much disproportioned, and too small for his full and plump body. His flat nose rises scarcely half an inch at

its greatest elevation; and his nostrils, which are excessively wide, often exceed in height the ridge of his nose. His mouth is large and furnished with small teeth, well enamelled and perfectly white: his eyes, very beautiful and open, incline a little towards the nose, like those of the Chinese: and to the sight and touch his hair has the resemblance of wool; it is very short, curls naturally, and in colour is as black as ebony. He has very little hair, yet he employs no small care to pull out by the roots part of what he has; but the natural thinness of his eye-brows saves him from this trouble in that part. Though he has no beard but upon the upper lip, below the nose, and at the extremity of the chin, he never fails to pluck it out as soon as it appears. This gives him an effeminate look; which, joined to the natural mildness of his character, destroys that commanding fierceness usual among savages. The women, with more delicacy of features, exhibit the same characteristic marks in their figure: they are equally well made. Their breasts, admirably placed, have a most beautiful form while in the bloom of youth: and their hands are small, and their feet exceedingly well shaped, though they never wear sandals. The sound of their voice is soft; and their idiom, passing through the throat, is not destitute of harmony. When they speak, they employ a great many gestures, which give power and gracefulness to their arms.

The Hottentots are naturally timid; their phlegmatic coolness, and their serious looks, give them an air of reserve, which they never lay aside, even at the most joyful moments; while, on the contrary, all other black or tawny nations give themselves up to pleasure with the liveliest joy, and without any restraint.

A profound indifference to the affairs of life inclines them very much to inactivity and indolence: the keeping of their flocks, and the care of procuring a subsistence, are the only objects that occupy their thoughts. They never follow hunting as sportsmen, but like people oppressed and tormented by hunger. In short, forgetting the past, and being under no uneasiness for the future, they are struck only with the present; and it is that which alone engages their attention.

They are, however, (observes M. Vaillant) the best, the kindest, and the most hospitable of people. Whoever travels among them may be assured of finding food and lodging; and though they will receive presents, yet they never ask for any thing. If the traveller has a long journey to accomplish; and if they learn from the information he requires that there are no hopes of his soon meeting with other hordes, that which he is going to quit supply him with provisions as far as their circumstances will allow, and with every thing else necessary for his continuing his journey, and reaching the place of his destination. Such are these people, or at least such did they appear to me, in all the innocence of manners, and of a pastoral life. They excite the idea of mankind in a state of infancy.

CAFFRARIA.

THE country known by the general denomination of Caffraria, is a very extensive region, bounded on the north by Negroland and Abyssinia; on the west by part of Guinea, Congo, and the sea; on the

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south by the Cape of Good Hope; and on the east by the sea. It is divided into several territories and kingdoms, of which little is known, and is computed to be 700 miles long and 660 broad.

We shall give a more particular description of the people from two modern writers; the first celebrated for his botanical knowledge; the other for his taste in natural history, but more especially for his very entertaining and interesting travels into the interior parts of Africa, which, it is hoped, will not prove unacceptable to the reader.

The men among the Caffrees, says lieutenant Paterfon, are from five feet ten inches to six feet high, and well proportioned, and in general evince great courage in attacking lions or any beasts of prey.

The colour of the Caffrees is a jet black, their teeth white as ivory, and their eyes large. The clothing of both sexes is nearly the same, consisting entirely of the hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth. The men wear tails of different animals tied round their thighs; pieces of brass in their hair, and large ivory rings on their arms: they are also adorned with the hair of lions, and feathers fastened on their heads, with many other fantastical ornaments.

They are extremely fond of dogs, which they exchange for cattle; and to such a height do they carry this passion, that if one particularly pleases them, they will give two bullocks in exchange for it. Their whole exercise through the day is hunting, fighting, or dancing. They are expert in throwing their lances; and in time of war use shields made of the hides of oxen.

The women are employed in the cultivation of their gardens and corn. They cultivate several vegetables, which are not indigenous to their country, such as tobacco, water melons, a sort of kidney-beans, and hemp. The women also make baskets, and the mats which they sleep on. The men have great pride in their cattle; they cut their horns in such a way as to be able to turn them into any shape they please; and they teach them to answer a whistle. When they wish their cattle to return home, they go a little way from the house, and blow this small instrument, which is made of ivory or bone, and so constructed as to be heard at a great distance, and in this manner bring all their cattle home without any difficulty.

The soil of this country is a blackish loamy ground, and so extremely fertile, that every vegetable substance, whether sown or planted, grows here with great luxuriance. There are great variations in the climate; but I had no thermometer to observe the degrees of heat. It seldom rains except in the summer season, when it is accompanied with thunder and lightning. The country, however, is extremely well supplied with water, not only from the high land towards the north, which furnishes abundance throughout the year, but from many fountains of excellent water, which are found in the woods. From what I observed in this country, I am induced to believe, that it is greatly superior to any other known part of Africa. The woods produce a variety of arborescent plants, and some of a great size; they are inhabited by elephants, buffaloes, &c. There were also varieties of beautiful birds and butterflies; but they were so shy, that I was able only to preserve two birds of that country.

To judge of the Caffrees by those I had seen, says M. Vaillant, they are taller than the Hottentots of the colonies, or even than the Gonaquas, though they greatly resemble the latter, but are more robust, and possess a greater degree of pride and courage. The features of the Caffrees are likewise more agreeable, none of their faces contracting to-

wards the bottom, nor do the cheek-bones of these people project in the uncouth manner of the Hottentots; neither have they large flat faces and thick lips like their neighbours, the negroes of Mosambique, but a well formed contour, an agreeable nose, with eyes sparkling and expressive: so that, setting aside our prejudice with regard to colour, there are many women among them who might be thought handsome by the side of an European lady. They do not disfigure themselves by daubing their eye-brows, like the Hottentots, but are very much tattooed, particularly about the face.

The hair of the Caffrees, which is strong and curling, is never greased, but they anoint the rest of their bodies, with a view of making themselves active and strong. The men are more particular in decorations than the women, being very fond of beads and brass rings. They are seldom seen without bracelets on their legs and arms, made of the tusks of an elephant, which they saw to a convenient thickness, and then polish and round. As these rings cannot be opened, it is necessary to make them big enough to pass the hand through, so that they fall or rise according to the motion of the arm; sometimes they place small rings on the arms of their children, whose growth soon fills up the space, and fixes the ornament; a circumstance which is particularly pleasing to them.

They likewise make necklaces of the bones of animals, which they polish and whiten in the most perfect manner. Some content themselves with the leg-bone of a sheep hanging on the breast. In the warm season the Caffrees only wear their ornaments; when the weather is cold, they make use of crosses made of the skins of calves or oxen, which reach to the feet. One particularity which deserves attention, and does not exist elsewhere, is, that the Caffree women care little for ornaments. Indeed, they are well made, and pretty, when compared to other savages; and never use the uncouth profusion of Hottentot coquetry, not even wearing copper bracelets. Their aprons, like those of the Gonaquas, are bordered with small rows of beads, which is the only vanity they exhibit.

The skin that the female Hottentot ties about the loins, the Caffree woman wears as high as her shoulders, tying it over the bosom, which it covers. They have, like the men, a kross, or crak, of calf or ox skin, divested of the hair; but it is only in the cold or rainy season that either sex wear it. These skins are as soft and pliant as the finest stuffs. Let the weather or season prove ever so bad, neither men nor women cover their heads. Sometimes, indeed, I have seen the head of a Caffree adorned with a feather stuck in the hair, but this sight is by no means common.

One part of the daily occupation of the women is making earthenware, which they fashion as dexterously as their husbands; they likewise make a curious kind of baskets, of a texture so compact as to contain milk; and they also prepare the fields for seed, scratching the earth, rather than digging it, with wooden pick-axes.

The huts of the Caffrees are higher and more commodious than those of the Hottentots: they form perfect hemispheres, and are composed of wooden work, very strong and compact, covered both within and without with a mixture of earth, clay, and cow-dung. The opening, or door-way is so low, that to enter the dwelling you must crawl on your hands and knees, which makes it easier to defend themselves against animals, or the sudden attacks of an enemy. The hearth, or fire-place, is, in the centre, surrounded by a circular rim which rises two or three inches.

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The lands of Caffraria, either from their situation, or the number of small rivers that refresh them, are more fertile than those of the Hottentots. The Caffrees practise agriculture, which proves they are not naturally wanderers.

I have remarked, continues M. Vaillant, that, notwithstanding the beautiful forests that adorn Caffraria, and delightful pastures which spring up and almost cover the animals which feed on them; notwithstanding those rivers and streams which cross each other in a thousand different directions, to render them rich and fertile; their oxen, their cows, and almost all their animals, are much smaller than those of the Hottentots — a difference which undoubtedly arises from the nature of the sap, and a certain flavour predominant in every kind of grass. I have made the observation both on domestic and wild animals, which never acquire the size of those bred in the dry barren countries I have passed through.

Industry is a leading trait in the character of the Caffrees. Some arts, taught indeed by necessity, a love of agriculture, with a few religious dogmas, distinguish them as a more civilised people than those towards the south.

Circumcision, which is generally practised among them, proves that they either owe their origin to an ancient people, or have simply imitated the inhabitants of some neighbouring country, of whom they have no longer any remembrance; they do not use it (as they say) in any religious or mystical sense.

They acknowledge a Supreme Being, and believe in a future state, where the good will be rewarded, and the wicked punished; but have no idea of the creation, thinking the world had no beginning, and will ever continue in its present state. They have no sacred ceremonies. They instruct their own children, having no priests; but, instead of them, a kind of forcerers or conjurors, whom they greatly distinguish and revere.

The Caffrees are governed by a chief or king, whose power is very limited, receiving no tax, having no troops at his command, but being the father of a free people; neither attended nor feared, but respected and beloved, and frequently poorer than many of his subjects. Being permitted to take as many wives as he pleases, who think it an honour to belong to him, it is necessary that he should have a larger portion of land to cultivate, and a greater number of cattle to tend and feed; these being his only resources for the maintenance of his numerous family, he is frequently in danger of being ruined. His cabin is neither higher nor better decorated than the rest; his whole family and seraglio live round him, composing a group of a dozen or fifteen huts, the adjoining lands are generally of his own cultivation.

It is a custom among the Caffrees, for each to gather his own grain, which is their favourite nourishment, and which they grind or crush between two stones; for which reason, the families living separately, each surrounded by his own plantation of corn, occasions a small *horde* sometimes to occupy a league square of ground; a circumstance never seen among the Hottentots.

The distance of the different *hordes* makes it necessary that they should have chiefs, who are appointed by the king. When there is any thing to communicate, he sends for, and gives them orders, or rather information, which the chiefs bear to their several *hordes*.

The principal weapon of the Caffree is the lance or assaygay, which shows his disposition to be at once intrepid and noble, despising, as be-

low his courage, the envenomed dart, so much in use among his neighbours: seeking his enemy face to face, and never throwing his lance but openly. In war he carries a shield of about three feet in height, made of the thickest part of the hide of a buffalo; this defends him from the arrow or aslaygay; but is not proof against a musquet ball. The Caffree also manages with great skill, a club of about two feet and a half long, made of a solid piece of wood, three or four inches thick in the largest part, and gradually diminishing towards one of the ends. When in a close engagement, they strike with this weapon, or frequently throw it to the distance of fifteen or twenty paces, in which case it seldom fails of the intended effect.

The sovereignty here is hereditary, the eldest son ever succeeding. In default of male heirs, it is not the king's brother that succeeds, but the eldest nephew; and in case the king should have neither children nor nephews, the chiefs of the different hordes elect a king. Upon these occasions a spirit of party sometimes prevails, which gives rise to factions and intrigues that generally end in bloodshed.

Polygamy is customary among the Caffrees; their marriages are even more simple than those of the Hottentots, the parents of the bridegroom being always content with his choice; the friends of the bride are rather more difficult, but seldom refuse their consent; after which they rejoice, drink, and dance for weeks together, according to the wealth of the families; but these feasts are never held but on the first espousals. They have no musical instruments but such as are used by the Hottentots. As for their dances, the step is not unlike the English.

At the death of the father, the sons and the mother divide the property he has left between them. The daughters, claiming nothing, remain at home with their mother or brother, unless it pleases some man to take them; and if this circumstance takes place during the life of the parents, they receive cattle in proportion to the wealth of their father. The dead are seldom buried, but carried away from the kraal, by their family, and deposited in a deep trench common to the whole horde on such occasions, where the wild beasts repair at leisure, which preserves the air from those noxious vapours which otherwise the putrefaction would occasion. The honours of burial are only due to the king or chief of a horde; they cover these bodies with piles of stones in the form of a dome.

I am unacquainted with the disposition of the Caffrees respecting love and jealousy, but believe that they only feel the latter sensation in regard to their countrymen; voluntarily giving up their women, for a small consideration, to the first white man that expresses an inclination for them.

HISTORY.] The history of the continent of Africa is little known, and probably affords no materials which deserve to render it more so. We know from the ancients, who sailed a considerable way round the coasts, that the inhabitants were in the same rude situation near 2000 years ago, in which they are at present: that is, they had little of humanity about them but the form. This may either be accounted for by supposing that nature has placed some inseparable barrier between the natives of this division of Africa and the inhabitants of Europe, or that the former, being so long accustomed to a savage manner of life, and degenerating from one age to another, at length became hardly capable of making any progress in civility or science. It is very certain, that all the attempts of Europeans, particularly of the Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope, have been hitherto ineffectual for making the least im-

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pression on these savage mortals, or giving them the least inclination for, or even idea of, the European manner of living.

The Portuguese are sovereigns of the greatest part of the coast, and have a number of black princes their tributaries. There are some independent princes who have extensive dominions, particularly the kings of Dahome and Widah, the most noted of any for the infamous slave trade. Upwards of 200 years have the European nations traded with Africa in human flesh, and encouraged in the negro countries, wars, rapine, desolation, and murder, that the West India islands might be supplied with that commodity. The annual exportation of poor creatures from Africa has exceeded 100,000, many of whom are driven a thousand miles to the sea-coast, their villages having been surrounded in the night by an armed force, and the inhabitants dragged into perpetual captivity.

A sea officer lately visited all the chiefs of the negroes in our settlements, from Santa Apollonia to Athera, an extent of more than 250 miles, and found the police and punishment of all crimes regulated by the slave trade. Those who commit crimes or trespasses against their laws, are, at the decision of twelve elders, sold for slaves for the use of their government; and the support of their chiefs. Theft, adultery, and murder, are the highest crimes, and, whenever they are detected, subject the whole family to slavery. But any individual condemned to slavery for the crime of his relation, may redeem his own person, by furnishing two slaves in his room. Or when a man commits one of the above cardinal crimes, all the male part of his family are forfeited to slavery; if a woman, the female part is sold. "This traffic in crimes makes the chiefs vigilant. Nor do our planters, who purchase them, use any pains to instruct them in religion, to make them amends for the oppression thus exercised on them. I am sorry to say, they are unnaturally averse to every thing that tends to it; yet the Portuguese, French, and Spaniards, in their settlements, succeed in their attempts to instruct them, as much to the advantage of commerce as of religion. It is for the sake of Christianity, and the advantages accompanying it, that English slaves embrace every occasion of deserting to the settlements of those nations."

It is high time for the legislature to interfere and put an end to this most infamous of all trades, so disgraceful to the Christian name, and so repugnant to the principles of our constitution. Let the negroes already in our islands be properly treated, made free, and encouragement given to their population; measures that would be attended with no less profit than honour.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

OF the African islands, some lie in the Eastern or Indian Ocean, and some in the Western, or Atlantic. We shall begin with those in the Indian Ocean, the chief of which are Zocotra, Babelmandel, Madagascar, the Comora islands, Bourbon, and Mauritius. See the Map.

ZOCOTRA. This island is situated in east long. 55; north lat. 12. thirty leagues east of Cape Guardafui, on the continent of Africa; it is eighty miles long, and fifty-four broad, and has two good harbours,

where the European ships used formerly to put in when they lost their passage to India. It is a populous plentiful country, yielding most of the fruits and plants that are usually found within the tropics, together with frankincense, gum-tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mahometans, of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince or sheik who is probably tributary to the Porte.

BABELMANDEL. The island of Babelmandel gives name to the strait at the entrance of the Red Sea, where it is situated in East long. 44-50. north lat. 12; about four miles both from the Arabian and Abyssinian shores. The Abyssinians, or Ethiopians, and the Arabians, formerly contended with great fury for the possession of this island, as it commands the entrance into the Red Sea, and preserves a communication with the ocean. This strait was formerly the only passage through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but since the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, the trade by the Red Sea is of little importance. The island is of little value, being a barren sandy spot of earth not five miles round.

COMORA. These islands are five; Joanna, Mayotta, Mohilla, Angazei, and Comora, situated between 41 and 46 east long. and between 10 and 14 south lat. at an equal distance from Madagascar and the continent of Africa. Joanna, the chief, and which exacts tribute from the others, is about thirty miles long and fifteen broad, and affords plenty of provisions, and such fruits as are produced between the tropics. East India ships, bound to Bombay, usually touch here for refreshments. The inhabitants are negroes, of the Mahometan persuasion, and entertain our seamen with great humanity.

MADAGASCAR. This is the largest of the African islands, and is situated between 43 and 51 deg. east long. and between 10 and 26 south lat. 300 miles south-east of the continent of Africa; it being near 1000 miles in length from north to south; and generally between 200 and 300 miles broad. The sea rolls with great rapidity, and extremely rough, between this island and the continent of the Cape of Good Hope, forming a channel or passage, through which all European ships in their voyage to and from India, generally sail, unless prevented by storms.

Madagascar is a pleasant, desirable, and fertile country, abounding in sugar, honey, vines, fruit-trees, vegetables, valuable gums, corn, cattle, fowls, precious stones, iron, some silver, copper, steel, and tin. It affords an agreeable variety of hills, valleys, woods, and champaign: watered with numerous rivers, and well stored with fish. The air is generally temperate, and said to be very healthy, though in a hot climate. The inhabitants are of different complexions and religions; some white, some negroes, some Mahometans, some Pagans. The whites and those of a tawny complexion, who inhabit the coasts, are descended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language, and their religious rites; but here are no mosques, temples, nor any stated worship, except that they offer sacrifices of beasts on particular occasions; as when sick, when they plant yams, or rice, when they hold their assemblies, circumcise their children, declare war, enter into new-built houses, or bury their dead. Many of them observe the Jewish sabbath, and give some account of the sacred history, the creation and fall of man, as also of Noah, Abraham, Moses, and David; from whence it is conjectured they are descended from Jews who formerly settled here, though none knows how, or when. This island was discovered by the Portuguese, and the French took possession of it in 1641; but the people disliking

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their government, they were driven out in 1652; since which the natives have had the sole possession of the island, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon one another for slaves and plunder.

MAURITIUS, or Maurice, was so called by the Dutch, who first touched here in 1598, in honour of prince Maurice their stadtholder. It is situated in east long. 56, south lat. 20, about 400 miles east of Madagascar. It is of an oval form, about 150 miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, capable of holding fifty large ships, secure against any wind that blows, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is extremely healthy and pleasant. The mountains, of which there are many, and some so high that their tops are covered with snow, produce the best ebony in the world, besides various other kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly resemble ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow as wax. The island is watered with several pleasant rivers well stocked with fish; and though the soil is none of the most fruitful, yields plenty of tobacco, rice, fruit, and feeds a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and sheep. It was formerly subject to the Dutch, but is now in the possession of the French.

BOURBON. The isle of Bourbon is situated in east long. 54, south lat. 21, about 300 miles east of Madagascar, and is about ninety miles round. There are many good roads for shipping round Bourbon, particularly on the north and south sides; but hardly a single harbour where ships can ride secure against those hurricanes which blow during the monsoons. Indeed, the coast is so surrounded with blind rocks, sunk a few feet below the water, that coasting along shore is at all times dangerous. On the southern extremity is a volcano, which continually throws out flames and smoke, with a hideous roaring noise. The climate here, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refreshed with cooling gales, that blow morning and evening from the sea and land; sometimes, however, terrible hurricanes shake the whole island almost to its foundation; but generally without any other bad consequence than frightening the inhabitants. The island abounds in brooks and springs, and in fruits, grass, and cattle, with excellent tobacco (which the French have planted there), aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood and fruit trees. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and resins, particularly benzoin of an excellent sort, in great plenty. The rivers are well stocked with fish, the coast with land and sea tortoises, and every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergrise, coral, and the most beautiful shells, are found upon the shore. The woods are full of turtle doves, parquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful to the eye, and pleasant to the palate. The French first settled here in the year 1672, after they were driven from the island of Madagascar. They have now some considerable towns in the island, with a governor: and here their East India ships touch and take in refreshments.

There are a great many more small islands about Madagascar and on the eastern coast of Africa, laid down in maps, but no where described.

Leaving therefore the eastern world and the Indies, we now turn round the Cape of Good Hope, which opens to our view the Atlantic, an immense ocean lying between the two grand divisions of the globe, separating Europe, Asia, and Africa, or the old world, on the east; and America, or the new world, on the west; towards which division we now steer our course, touching in our way at the following islands upon the African coast, that have not yet been described, viz. St. Helena,

Ascension, St. Matthews, St. Thomas, &c. Goree, Cape Verd, the Canary and Madeira islands. See the Map.

St. HELENA. The first island on this side the Cape is St. Helena, situated in west long. 6-4; south lat. 16, being 1200 miles west of the continent of Africa, and 1800 east of South America. The island is a rock, about twenty-one miles in circumference, very high and very steep, and only accessible at the landing-place, in a small valley at the east end of it, which is defended by batteries of guns planted level with the water; and as the waves are perpetually dashing on the shore, it is generally difficult landing even there. There is no other anchorage about the island but at Chapel Valley Bay; and as the wind always blows from the south-east, if a ship overshoots the island ever so little, she cannot recover it again. The English plantations here afford potatoes and yams, with figs, plantains, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, and Indian corn; of the last, however, most part is devoured by rats, which harbour in the rocks, and cannot be destroyed; so that the flour they use, is almost wholly imported from England; and in times of scarcity they generally eat yams and potatoes instead of bread. Though the island appears on every side a hard barren rock, yet it is agreeably diversified with hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and garden stuff. They have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, poultry, ducks, geese, and turkeys, with which they supply the sailors, taking in exchange shirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of calico, silks, muslin, arrack, sugar, &c.

St. Helena is said to have been first discovered by the Portuguese on the festival of the empress Helena, mother of the emperor Constantine the Great, whose name it still bears. It does not appear that the Portuguese ever planted a colony here: and the English East India Company took possession of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1677, when the Dutch took it by surprise. However, the English, under the command of captain Munden, recovered it again within the space of a year, and at the same time took three Dutch East India ships that lay in the road. There are about 200 families in the island, most of them descended from English parents. The East India ships take in water and fresh provisions here in their way home; but the island is so small, and the wind so much against them, outward bound, that they then very seldom see it.

The company's affairs are here managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and store-keeper, who have standing salaries allowed by the company, besides a public table, well-furnished, to which all commanders, masters of ships, and principal passengers, are welcome.

ASCENSION. This island is situated in 7 deg. 40 min. south lat. 600 miles north-west of St. Helena: it received its name from its being discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension-day; and is a mountainous barren island, about twenty miles round, and uninhabited; but it has a safe convenient harbour, where the East India ships generally touch to furnish themselves with turtle, or tortoises, which are very plentiful here, and vastly large, some of them weighing above 100 pounds each. The sailors going ashore in the night-time, frequently turn two or three hundred of them on their backs before morning; and are sometimes so cruel, as to turn many more than they use, leaving them to die on the shore.

St. MATTHEW. This is a small island lying in 6-4 west long, and 1-30 south lat: 300 miles to the north-east of Ascension, and was first discovered by the Portuguese, who planted and kept possession of it

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some time; but afterwards deserted it. This island now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to settle there, except a small lake of fresh water.

The four following islands, viz. **St. THOMAS, ANABOA, PRINCES ISLAND,** and **FERNANDOPO,** are situated in the gulf of Guinea, between Congo and Benin; all of them were first discovered by the Portuguese, and are still in the possession of that nation, and furnish shipping with fresh water and provisions as they pass by.

CAPE VERD ISLANDS: These islands are so called from a cape of that name on the African coast, near the river Gambia, over against which they lie, at the distance of 300 miles between 23 and 26 deg. west long. and 14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were discovered in the year 1460, by the Portuguese, and are about twenty in number; but some of them, being only barren uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. **St. Jago, Bravo, Fogo, Mayo, Bonavista, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio,** are the most considerable, and are subject to the Portuguese. The air, generally speaking, is very hot, and in some of them very unwholesome. They are inhabited by Europeans, or the descendants of Europeans, and negroes.

St. Jago, where the Portuguese viceroy resides, is the most fruitful, best inhabited, and largest of them all, being 150 miles in circumference; yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is sugar, cotton, some wine, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and other tropical fruits, plenty of roots, and garden stuff; but the plant of most consequence to them is the madder, which grows in abundance among the cliffs. Here is also plenty of hogs and poultry, and some of the prettiest green monkeys, with black faces, that are to be met with any where. **Baya, or Praya** (famous for an action between an English and French Squadron), is situated on the east side, has a good port, and is seldom without ships; those outward-bound to Guinea or the East Indies, from England, Holland, and France, often touching here for water and refreshments.

In the island of **MAYO, or MAY,** immense quantities of salt are made by the heat of the sun from the sea water, which at spring tides is received into a sort of pan formed by a sand bank, which runs along the coast for two or three miles. Here the English drive a considerable trade for salt, and have commonly a man of war to guard the vessels that come to load with it, which in some years amount to a hundred or more. The salt costs nothing, except for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on asses to the boats, which is done at a very cheap rate. Several of our ships come hither for a freight of asses, which they carry to Barbadoes and other British plantations. The inhabitants of this island, even the governor and priests, are all negroes, and speak the Portuguese language. The negro governor expects a small present from every commander that loads salt, and is pleased to be invited aboard their ships. The sea water is so clear on this coast, that an English sailor who dropped his watch, perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives, who are in general expert at diving.

The island of **FOGO** is remarkable for being a volcano, continually sending up sulphureous exhalations; and sometimes the flame breaks forth like *Ætna*, in a terrible manner, throwing out pumice-stones, that annoy all the adjacent parts.

GOREE is situated within cannon-shot of Cape Verde, N. lat. 14-43. N. long. 17-20, and was so called by the Dutch from an island and

town of the same name in Holland. It is a small spot not exceeding two miles in circumference, but its importance arises from its situation for trade so near Cape Verde, and has been therefore an object of contention between European nations. It was first possessed by the Dutch, from whom, in 1663, it was taken by the English, but in 1665 it was retaken by the Dutch; and in 1667 subdued by the French, in whose possession it remained till the year 1759, when the British arms, every where triumphant, again reduced it; but it was restored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763. It was retaken by the English the last war, but given up again by the peace of 1783.

CANARIES. The Canaries, anciently called the Fortunate Islands, are seven in number, and situated between 12 and 19 deg. west long. and between 27 and 29 deg. north lat. about 150 miles south-west of Morocco. Their particular names are Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuerteventura, and Langarote. These islands enjoy a pure temperate air, and abound in the most delicious fruits, especially grapes, which produce those rich wines that obtain the name of Canary, whereof the greatest part is exported to England, which in time of peace is computed at 10,000 hogheads annually. The Canaries abound with those little beautiful birds that bear their name, and are now so common and so much admired in Europe; but their wild notes in their native land far excel those in a cage or foreign clime.

Grand Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about 150 miles in circumference, and so extremely fertile as to produce two harvests in a year. Teneriffe, the largest of these islands next to that of the Grand Canary, is about 120 miles round: a fertile country abounding in corn, wine, and oil, though it is pretty much encumbered with mountains, particularly the Peak. Captain Glas observes, that in coming in with this island, in clear weather, the Peak may be easily discerned at 120 miles distance, and in sailing from it at 150. The peak is an ascent in the form of a sugar-loaf, about fifteen miles in circumference, and, according to the account of Sprat, bishop of Rochester, published in the Philosophical Transactions, nearly three miles perpendicular; but lately ascertained to be only 13,265 feet. This mountain is a volcano, and sometimes throws out such quantities of sulphur and melted ore, as to convert the richest lands into barren deserts. These islands were first discovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans destroying that state, put a stop to the navigation on the west coast of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the rest of the world, until they were again discovered by the Spaniards in the year 1405, to whom they still belong. It is remarkable, that though the natives resembled the Africans in their stature and complexion, when the Spaniards first came among them, their language was different from that spoken on the continent; they retained none of their customs, were masters of no science, and did not know there was any country in the world besides their own.

MADEIRAS. The three islands called the Madeiras are situated according to the author of Anson's voyage, in a fine climate, in 32-33 north lat. and from 18-30 to 19-30 west long. about 100 miles north of the Canaries, and as many west of Saltee, in Morocco. The largest from which the rest derive the general name of Madeiras, on account of its being formerly almost covered with wood, is about seventy-five miles long, sixty broad, and 180 in circumference. It is composed of one continued hill of a considerable height, extending from east to west, the declivity of which, on the south side, is cultivated, and interspersed

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with vineyards; and in the midst of this slope the merchants have fixed their country seats, which form a very agreeable prospect. There is but one considerable town in the whole island, which is named Funchal, seated on the south part of the island, at the bottom of a large bay; towards the sea it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, and is the only place where it is possible for a boat to land; and even here the beach is covered with large stones, and a violent surf continually beats upon it.

Though this island seems to have been known to the ancients, yet it lay concealed for many generations, and was at length discovered by the Portuguese in 1419; but others assert that it was first discovered by an Englishman, in the year 1344. Be that as it may, the Portuguese took possession of it, and are still almost the only people who inhabit it. The Portuguese, at their first landing, finding it little better than a thick forest, rendered the ground capable of cultivation, by setting fire to this wood; and it is now very fertile, producing, in great abundance, the richest wine, sugar, the most delicious fruits, especially oranges, lemons, and pomegranates; together with corn, honey, and wax; it abounds also with boars and other wild beasts, and with all sorts of fowls, besides numerous groves of cedar trees, and those that yield dragon's blood, mastic, and other gums. The inhabitants of this isle make the best sweetmeats in the world, and succeed wonderfully in preserving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed pastes, which exceed those of Genoa. The sugar they make is extremely beautiful, and smells naturally of violets. This indeed is said to be the first place in the west, where that manufacture was set on foot, and from thence was carried to the Brasils in America. The Portuguese not finding it so profitable as at first, have pulled up the greatest part of their sugar-canes, and planted vineyards in their stead, which produce several sorts of excellent wine, particularly that which bears the name of the island, Malmsey, and Tent; of all which the inhabitants make and sell prodigious quantities. Not less than 20,000 hogshheads of Madeira, it is said, are yearly exported, the greatest part to the West Indies, especially to Barbadoes; the Madeira wine not only enduring a hot climate better than any other, but even being improved when exposed to the sun in barrels after the bung is taken out. It is said no venomous animal can live here. Of the two other islands, one is called Porto Santo, which lies at a small distance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compass, and extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ships may ride with safety against all winds, except the south west; and is frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward bound. The other island is an inconsiderable barren rock.

AZORES. Leaving the Madeiras, with which we close the account of Africa, we continue our course westward, through this immense ocean, which brings us to the Azores, or, as they are called, the Western islands, situated between 25 and 32 deg. west long. and between 37 and 40 north lat. 900 miles west of Portugal, and as many east of Newfoundland, lying almost in the mid-way between Europe and America. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St. Michael, or St. Michael, Terceira, St. George, Graciosa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were discovered in the middle of the fifteenth century, by Joshua Vander Berg, a merchant of Bruges, in Flanders, who, in a voyage to Lisbon, was, by stress of weather, driven to these islands, which he found destitute of inhabitants, and called them the Flemish islands. On his arrival at Lisbon, he boasted of this discovery, on

which the Portuguese set sail immediately, and took possession of them, which they still retain. They were called in general, the Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found among them. All these islands enjoy a very clear and serene sky, with a salubrious air, but are exposed to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently suffered: and also by inundations of the surrounding waves. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits, also cattle, fowl, and fish. It is said, that no poisonous or noxious animal breeds on the Azores, and that, if carried thither, they will expire in a few hours.

St. Michael, which is the largest, being near 100 miles in circumference, and containing 50,000 inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the English, in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Terceira is the most important of these islands, on account of its harbour, which is spacious, and has good anchorage; but is exposed to the south-east winds. Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the residence of the governor of these islands, as well as of the bishop.

A M E R I C A.

ITS DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST.

WE are now to treat of a country of vast extent and fertility, and which, though little cultivated by the hand of art, owes in many respects more to that of nature, than any other division of the globe. The particular circumstances of this country require that we should in some measure vary our plan, and before describing its present state, afford such information with regard to its discovery, as is most necessary for satisfying our readers.

Towards the close of the 15th century, Venice and Genoa were the only powers in Europe who owed their support to commerce. An interference of interests inspired a mutual rivalry; but in traffic Venice was much superior. She engrossed the whole commerce of India, then, and indeed always, the most valuable in the world, but hitherto entirely carried on through the inland parts of Asia, or by the way of Egypt and the Red Sea. In this state of affairs, Columbus, a native of Genoa, whose knowledge of the true figure of the earth, however attained, was much superior to the general notions of the age in which he lived, conceived a project of sailing to the Indies, by a bold and unknown route, and of opening to his country a new source of opulence and power. But this proposal of sailing westward to the Indies was rejected by the Genoese as chimerical, and the principles on which it was founded were condemned as absurd. Stung with disappointment and indignation, Columbus retired from his country, laid his scheme before the court of France, where his reception was still more mortifying, and where, according to the practice of that people, he was laughed at and ridiculed. Henry VII. of England was his next resort; but the cautious politics of that prince were the most opposite imaginable to a great but uncertain design. In Portugal, where the spirit of adventure and

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discovery about this time began to operate, he had reason to expect better success. But the Portuguese contented themselves with creeping along the coast of Africa, and discovering one cape after another; they had no notion of venturing boldly into the open sea. Such repeated disappointments would have broken the spirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expense, and he had nothing to defray it; His mind, however, still remained firm; he became the more intent on his design, the more difficulty he found in accomplishing it, and he was inspired with that noble enthusiasm which always animates an adventurous and original genius. Spain was now his only resource, and there, after eight years attendance, he succeeded, and chiefly through the interest of queen Isabella. Columbus now set sail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ships, upon the most adventurous attempt even undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were interested. In this voyage he had a thousand difficulties to contend with; the most striking was the variation of the compass, then first observed, and which seemed to threaten that the laws of nature were altered in an unknown ocean, and that the only guide he had left was ready to forsake him. His sailors, always discontented, now broke out into open mutiny, threatening to throw him overboard, and insisted on their return. But the firmness of the commander, and much more the discovery of land after a voyage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. Columbus first landed on one of the Bahama islands; but here, to his surprise and sorrow, discovered, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that these could not be the Indies he was in quest of. In steering southward, however, he found the island called Hispaniola, abounding in all the necessaries of life, inhabited by a humane and hospitable people, and, what was of still greater consequence, as it insured his favourable reception at home, promising from some samples he received, considerable quantities of gold. This island therefore, he proposed to make the centre of his discoveries; and having left upon it a few of his companions, as the ground-work of a colony, returned to Spain to procure the necessary reinforcements.

The court was then at Barcelona: Columbus travelled thither from Seville, amidst the acclamations of the people, attended by some of the inhabitants, the gold, the arms, the utensils, and ornaments of the country he had discovered. This entry into Barcelona was a species of triumph more glorious than that of conquerors, more uncommon, and more innocent. In this voyage he had acquired a general knowledge of all the islands in the great sea which divides North and South America; but he had no idea that there was an ocean between him and China. The countries which he had discovered were considered as a part of India. Even after the error which gave rise to this opinion was detected, and the true position of the new world was ascertained, the name has remained, and the appellation of *West Indies* is given by all the people of Europe to the country, and that of *Indians* to its inhabitants. Thus were the West Indies discovered by seeking a passage to the East, and even after the discovery, still conceived to be a part of the Eastern hemisphere. The present success of Columbus, his former disappointments, and the glory attending to unexpected a discovery, rendered the court of Spain as eager to forward his designs now, as it had been dilatory before. A fleet of seventeen sail was immediately prepared; all the necessaries for conquest or discovery were embarked; 1500 men, among whom were several of high rank and fortune, prepared to accompany Columbus, now appointed governor, with the

most ample authority. It is impossible to determine whether the genius of this great man, in first conceiving the idea of these discoveries, or his sagacity in the execution of the plan he had conceived, most deserves our admiration. Instead of hurrying from sea to sea, and from one island to another, which, considering the ordinary motives to action among mankind, was naturally to be expected, Columbus, with such a field before him, unable to turn on either hand without finding new objects of his curiosity and his pride, determined rather to turn to the advantage of the court of Spain the discoveries he had already made, than to acquire for himself the unavailing applause of visiting a number of unknown countries, from which he reaped no other benefit but the pleasure of seeing them. With this view he made for Hispaniola, where he established a colony, and erected forts in the most advantageous grounds for securing the dependence of the natives. Having spent a considerable time in this employment, and laboured for establishing this colony, with as much zeal and assiduity as if his views had extended no farther, he next proceeded to ascertain the importance of his other discoveries, and to examine what advantages were most likely to be derived from them. He had already touched at Cuba, which, from some specimens, seemed a rich discovery; but whether it was an island, or a part of some great continent, he was altogether uncertain. To ascertain this point was the present object of his attention. In coasting along the southern shore of Cuba, Columbus was entangled in a multitude of islands, of which he reckoned 160 in one day. These islands, which were well inhabited, and abounding in all the necessaries of life, gave him an opportunity of reflecting on this fertility of nature where the world expected nothing but the barren ocean; he called them *Jardin de la Reina*, or the Queen's Garden, in gratitude to his royal benefactress, who was always uppermost in his memory. In the same voyage, Jamaica was discovered. But to so many difficulties was Columbus exposed, on an unknown sea, among rocks, shelves, and sands, that he returned to Hispaniola, without learning any thing more certain with regard to Cuba, the main object of this enterprise.

By the first success of this great man, the public diffidence was turned into admiration; but by a continuance of the same success, their admiration degenerated into envy. His enemies in Spain set every spring in motion against him; and there is no difficulty in finding specious grounds of accusation against such as are employed in the execution of an extensive and complicated plan. An officer was dispatched from Spain, fitted by his character to act the part of a spy and informer, and whose presence plainly demonstrated to Columbus the necessity of returning to Europe, for obviating the objections or calumny of his enemies.

It was not without great difficulty that he was enabled to set out on a third expedition, still more famous than any he had hitherto undertaken. He designed to stand to the southward of the Canaries until he came under the equinoctial line, and then to proceed directly westward, that he might discover what opening that might afford to India, or what new islands, or what continent might reward his labour. In this navigation, after being long buried in a thick fog, and suffering numberless inconveniences from the excessive heats and rains between the tropics, they were at length favoured with a smart gale, and went before it seventeen days to the westward. At the end of this time, a seaman saw land; which was an island on the coast of Guiana, now called Trinidad. Having passed this island, and two others which lie in the

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mouth of the great river Oronoco, the admiral was surpris'd with an appearance he had never seen before: this was the frightful tumult of the waves, occasioned by a conflict between the tide of the sea and the rapid current of the immense river Oronoco. But sailing forward, he plainly discovered that they were in fresh water; and judging rightly that it was improbable any island should supply so vast a river, he began to suspect he had discovered the continent; but when he left the river, and found that the land continued on the westward for a great way, he was convinc'd of it. Satisfied with this discovery, he yielded to the uneasiness and distresses of his crew, and bore away for Hispaniola. In the course of this discovery, Columbus landed at several places, where in a friendly manner he traded with the inhabitants, and found gold and pearl in tolerable plenty.

About this time the spirit of discovery spread itself widely, and many adventurers all over Europe wisht to acquire the reputation of Columbus, without possessing his abilities. The Portuguese discovered Brasil, which makes at present the most valuable part of their possessions: Cabot, a native of Bristol, discovered the north-east coasts, which now compose the British empire in North America: and Amerigo Vesputio, a merchant of Florence, sail'd to the southern continent of America, and, being a man of address, had the honour of giving his name to half the globe. But no one is now impos'd on by the name; all the world knows that Columbus was the first discoverer. The being deprived of the honour of giving name to the new world, was one of the smallest mortifications to which this great man was compell'd to submit. For such were the clamours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that, after discovering the continent, and making settlements in the islands of America, he was treated like a traitor, and carried over to Europe in irons. He enjoy'd, however, the glory of rendering the one half of the world known to the other; a glory so much the more precious, as it was untainted by cruelty or plunder, which disfigur'd all the exploits of those who came after him, and accomplish'd the execution of his plan. He fully vindicated himself at court, was restor'd to favour, and undertook another voyage in which he suffer'd great fatigues. He return'd to Spain, and died at Valladolid, in 1506, in the 59th year of his age. The succeeding governors of Cuba and Hispaniola endeavour'd to purchase the same advantages by the blood of the natives, which Columbus had obtain'd by his good sense and humanity. These islands contain'd mines of gold: The Indians only knew where they were situat'd; and the extreme avarice of the Spaniards, too furious to work by the gentle means of persuasion, hurried them to acts of the most shocking violence and cruelty against those unhappy men, who, they believ'd, conceal'd from them part of their treasure. The slaughter once begun, they set no bounds to their fury; in a few years they depopulat'd Hispaniola, which contain'd three millions of inhabitants; and Cuba, that had about 600,000. Bartholomew de las Casas, a witness of those barbarous depopulations, says, that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt after men. The unhappy savages, almost naked and unarmed, were pursu'd like deer into the thick of the forests, devour'd by dogs, killed with gun-shot, or surpris'd and burnt in their habitations.

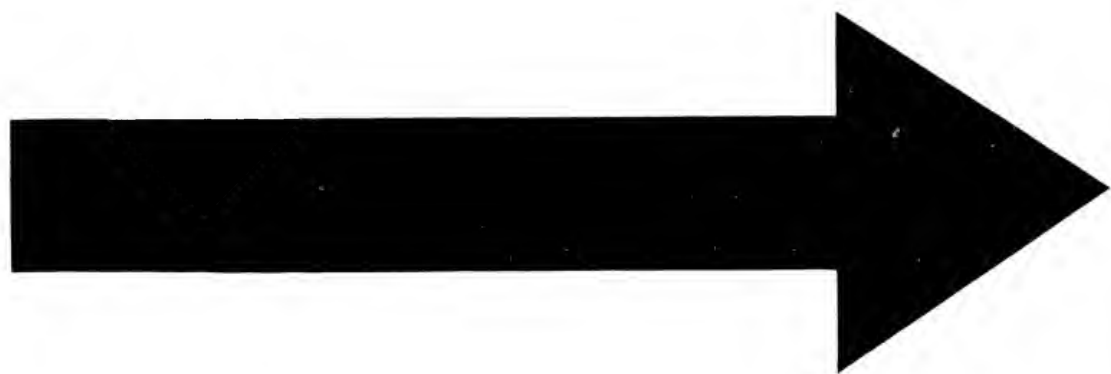
The Spaniards had hitherto only visit'd the continent: from what they saw with their eyes, or learned by report, they conjectur'd that this part of the new world would afford a still more valuable conquest. Fernando Cortez was dispatch'd from Cuba with 600 men, 18 horses,

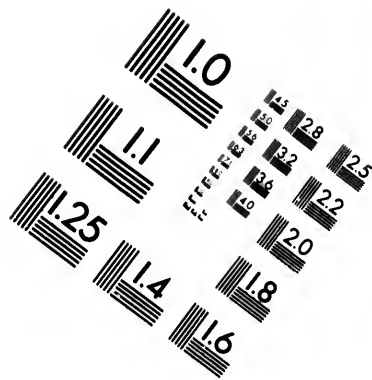
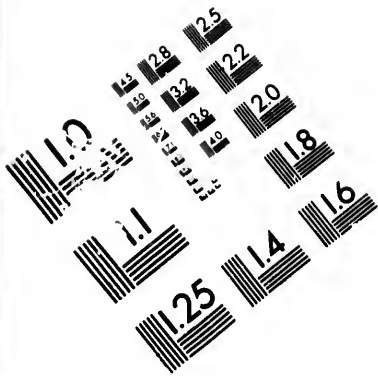
and a small number of field-pieces. With this inconsiderable force, he proposed to subdue the most powerful state on the continent of America; this was the empire of Mexico, rich, powerful, and inhabited by millions of Indians, passionately fond of war, and then headed by Montezuma, whose fame in arms struck terror in the neighbouring nations. Never history, to be true, was more improbable and romantic than that of this war. The empire of Mexico had subsisted for ages: its inhabitants, it is said, were not rude and barbarous; every thing announced a polished and intelligent people. They knew, like the Egyptians of old, whose wisdom is still admired in this particular, that the year consisted nearly of 365 days. Their superiority in military affairs was the object of admiration and terror over all the continent; and their government, founded on the sure basis of laws combined with religion, seemed to bid defiance to time itself. Mexico, the capital of the empire, situated in the middle of a spacious lake, was the noblest monument of American industry. It communicated with the continent by immense causeways, which were carried through the lake. The city was admired for its buildings, all of stone, its squares, and market-places, the shops which glittered with gold and silver, and the sumptuous palaces of Montezuma, some erected on columns of jasper, and containing whatever was most rare, curious, or useful. But all the grandeur of this empire could not defend it against the Spaniards. Cortez, in his march, met with a feeble opposition from the nations along the coast of Mexico, who were terrified at their first appearance: the warlike animals on which the Spanish officers were mounted, the artificial thunder which issued from their hands, the wooden castles which had waded them over the ocean, struck a panic into the natives, from which they did not recover until it was too late. Wherever the Spaniards marched, they spared no age or sex, nothing sacred or profane. At last, the inhabitants of Tlascala, and some other states upon the coast, despairing of being able to oppose them, entered into their alliance, and joined arms with those terrible, and, as they believed, invincible conquerors. Cortez, thus reinforced, marched onward to Mexico; and, in his progress, discovered a volcano of sulphur and salt-petre, whence he could supply himself with powder. Montezuma heard of his progress without daring to oppose it. This sovereign is reported, by the boasting Spaniards, to have commanded thirty vassals, of whom each could appear at the head of 100,000 combatants, armed with bows and arrows, and yet he dared not resist a handful of Spaniards, aided by a few Americans, whose allegiance would be shaken by the first reverse of fortune. Such was the difference between the inhabitants of the two worlds, and the fame of the Spanish victories, which always marched before them.

By sending a rich present of gold, which only whetted the Spanish avarice, Montezuma hastened the approach of the enemy. No opposition was made to their entry into his capital. A palace was set apart for Cortez and his companions, who were already treated as the masters of the new world. He had good reason, however, to distrust the affected politeness of this emperor, under which he suspected some plot for his destruction to be concealed; but he had no pretence for violence; Montezuma loaded him with kindness, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded, and his palace was surrounded with artillery, the most frightful of all engines to the Americans. At last, a circumstance took place which afforded Cortez a pretext for beginning hostilities. In order to secure a communication by sea to receive

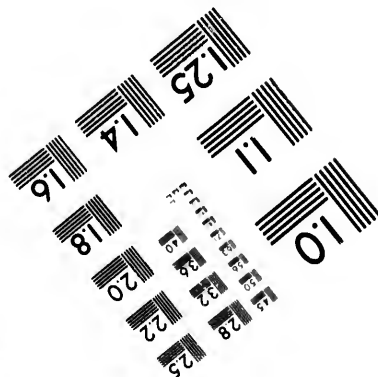
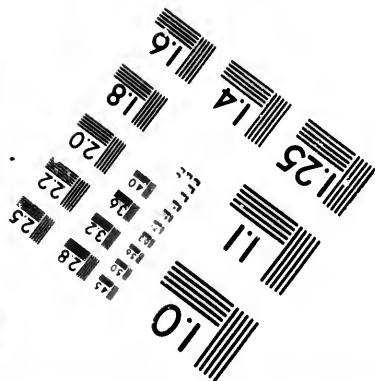
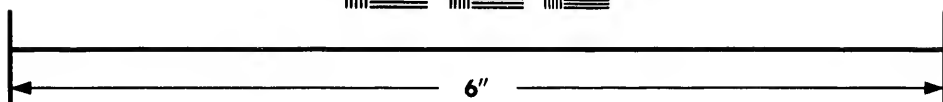
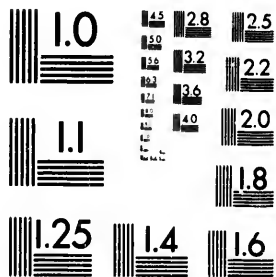
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the necessary reinforcements, he erected a fort, and left a small garrison behind him at Vera Cruz, which has since become an emporium of commerce between Europe and America. He understood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this garrison in his absence, and that a Spaniard was killed in the action; that Montezuma himself was privy to this violence, and had issued orders that the head of the slain Spaniard should be carried through his provinces, to destroy a belief, which then prevailed among them, that the Europeans were immortal. Upon receiving this intelligence, Cortez went in person to the emperor, attended by a few of his most experienced officers. Montezuma pleaded innocence, in which Cortez seemed extremely ready to believe him, though, at the same time, he alleged that the Spaniards in general would never be persuaded of it, unless he returned along with them to their residence, which would remove all jealousy between the two nations. The success of this interview showed the superiority of the European address. A powerful monarch, in the middle of his own palace, and surrounded by his guards, gave himself up a prisoner, to be disposed of according to the inclination of a few strangers who came to demand him. Cortez had now got into his hands an engine by which every thing might be accomplished. The Americans had the highest respect, or rather superstitious veneration, for their emperor. Cortez, therefore, by keeping him in his power, allowing him to enjoy every mark of royalty but his freedom, and, at the same time, from a thorough knowledge of his character, being able to flatter all his tastes and passions, maintained the easy sovereignty of Mexico, by governing its prince. Did the Mexicans, grown familiar with the Spaniards, begin to abate of their respect, Montezuma was the first to teach them more politeness. Was there a tumult excited through the cruelty or avarice of the Spaniards, Montezuma ascended the battlements of his prison, and harangued his Mexicans into order and submission. This farce continued a long time, but on one of these occasions, when Montezuma was shamefully disgracing his character, by justifying the enemies of his country, a stone, from an unknown hand, struck him on the temple, which, in a few days, occasioned his death. The Mexicans, now delivered from this emperor, who cooperated so strongly with the Spaniards, elected a new prince, the famous Guatimozin, who, from the beginning, discovered an implacable animosity against the Spanish name. Under his conduct, the unhappy Mexicans rushed against those very men, whom a little before they had offered to worship. The Spaniards, however, by the dexterous management of Cortez, were too firmly established to be expelled from Mexico. The immense tribute which the grandees of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain, amounted to 600,000 marks of pure gold, besides an amazing quantity of precious stones, a fifth part of which, distributed among his soldiers, stimulated their avarice and their courage, and made them willing to perish rather than part with so precious a booty. The Mexicans, however, made no small efforts for independence; but all their valour, and despair itself, gave way before what they called the Spanish thunder. Guatimozin and the empress were taken prisoners. This was the prince who, when he lay stretched on burning coals, by order of one of the receivers of the king of Spain's exchequer, who inflicted the torture to make him discover into what part of the lake he had thrown his riches, said to his high priest, condemned to the same punishment, and who loudly expressed his sense of the pains that he endured, "Do you imagine I lie on a bed of





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robes?" The high priest remained silent, and died in an act of obedience to his sovereign. Cortez, by getting a second emperor into his hands, made a complete conquest of Mexico; with which the golden Castile, Darien, and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaniards.

While Cortez and his soldiers were employed in reducing Mexico, they obtained intelligence of another great empire, situated towards the equinoctial line, and the tropic of Capricorn, which was said to abound in gold and silver, and precious stones, and to be governed by a prince more magnificent than Montezuma. This was the empire of Peru, which extended in length near 30 degrees, and was the only other country in America that deserved the name of a civilised kingdom. Whether it happened, that the Spanish government had not received certain intelligence concerning Peru, or that, being engaged in a multiplicity of other concerns, it did not choose to adventure on new enterprises, certain it is, that this extensive country, more important than Mexico itself, was reduced by the endeavors and at the expence of three private persons. The names of these were, Francis Pizarro, Almagro, and Lucques, a priest, but a man of considerable fortune. The two former were natives of Panama, men of doubtful birth, and of low education. Pizarro, the soul of the enterprise, could neither read nor write. They sailed over into Spain, and, without difficulty, obtained a grant of what they should conquer. Pizarro then set out for the conquest of Peru, with 250 foot, 60 horse, and 12 small pieces of cannon, drawn by slaves from the conquered countries. If we reflect that the Peruvians naturally entertained the same prejudices with the Mexicans, in favour of the Spanish nation, and were, beside, of a character still more soft and unwarlike, it need not surprize us, after what has been said of the conquest of Mexico, that, with this inconsiderable force, Pizarro should make a deep impression on the Peruvian empire. There were particular circumstances likewise which conspired to assist him, and which, as they discover somewhat of the history, religion, and state of the human mind, in this immense continent, it may not be improper to relate.

Mango Capac was the founder of the Peruvian empire. He was one of those uncommon men, who, calm and dispassionate themselves, can observe the passions of their fellow-creatures, and turn them to their own profit or glory. He observed that the people of Peru were naturally superstitious, and had a particular veneration for the sun. He pretended therefore to be descended from that luminary, whose worship he was sent to establish, and whose authority he was entitled to bear. By this story, romantic as it appears, he easily deceived a credulous people, and brought a large extent of territory under his jurisdiction; a larger still he subdued by his arms; but both the force and the deceit he employed for the most laudable purposes. He united and civilised the dispersed barbarous people; he subjected them to laws, and trained them to arms; he softened them by the institution of a benevolent religion; in short, there was no part of America, where agriculture and the arts were so assiduously cultivated, and where the people were of so mild and ingenuous manners. A race of princes succeeded Mango, distinguished by the title of Yncas, and revered by the people as descendants of their great god, the Sun. The twelfth of these was now on the throne, and named Atabalipa. His father, Guiana Capac, had conquered the province of Quito, which now makes a part of Spanish Peru. To secure himself in the possession, he had

married the daughter of the natural prince of that country, and of this marriage was sprung Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Huescar, of a different mother, had claimed the succession to the whole of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the younger by a double connection. A civil war had been kindled on this account, which, after various turns of fortune, and greatly weakening the kingdom, ended in favour of Atabalipa, who detained Huescar, as a prisoner, in the tower of Cusco, the capital of the Peruvian empire. In this feeble and disjointed state was the kingdom of Peru, when Pizarro advanced to attack it. The ominous predictions of religion, too, as in most other cases, joined their force to human calamities. Prophecies were recorded, dreams were recollected, which foretold the subjection of the empire by unknown persons, whose description exactly corresponded to the appearance of the Spaniards. In these circumstances, Atabalipa, instead of opposing the Spaniards, set himself to procure their favour. Pizarro, however, whose temper partook of the meanness of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with those he called barbarians, but who, however, though less acquainted with the cruel art of destroying their fellow-creatures, were more civilised than himself. While he was engaged in conference, therefore, with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previously instructed, furiously attacked the guards of that prince, and having butchered 5000 of them, as they were pressing forward, without regard to their particular safety, to defend the sacred person of their monarch, seized Atabalipa himself, whom they carried off to the Spanish quarters. Pizarro, with the sovereign in his hands, might already be deemed the master of Peru; for the inhabitants of this country were as strongly attached to their emperor as were the Mexicans. Atabalipa was not long in their hands before he began to treat of his ransom. On this occasion the ancient ornaments, amassed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treasures of the most magnificent temples, were brought out to save him, who was the support of the kingdom, and of the religion. While Pizarro was engaged in this negotiation, by which he proposed, without releasing the emperor, to get into his possession an immense quantity of his beloved gold, the arrival of Almagro caused some embarrassment in his affairs. The friendship, or rather the external show of friendship, between these men, was solely founded on the principle of avarice, and a bold enterprising spirit, to which nothing appeared too dangerous that might gratify their ruling passion. When their interests, therefore, happened to interfere, it was not to be thought that any measures could be kept between them. Pizarro expected to enjoy the most considerable share of the treasure arising from the emperor's ransom, because he had the chief hand in acquiring it. Almagro insisted on being upon an equal footing; and at length, lest the common cause should suffer by any rupture between them, this disposition was agreed to. The ransom was paid without delay, a sum exceeding their conception, but not capable to gratify their avarice. It amounted to 1,500,000 sterling, and, considering the value of money at that time, was prodigious: on the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the king of Spain, and the shares of the chief commanders and other officers, each private soldier had above 2000l. English money. With such fortunes it was not to be expected that a mercenary army would incline to be subjected to the rigours of military discipline. They insisted on being disbanded, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labour in quiet. Pizarro com-

plied with this demand, sensible that avarice would still detain a number in his army, and that those who returned with such magnificent fortunes, would induce new adventurers to pursue the same plan for acquiring gold. These wise reflections were abundantly verified; it was impossible to send out better recruiting officers than those who had themselves so much profited by the field; new soldiers constantly arrived, and the American armies never wanted reinforcements.

This immense ransom was only a farther reason for detaining Atabalipa in confinement, until they discovered whether he had another treasure to gratify their avarice. But whether they believed he had no more to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince, from whom they expected no farther advantage, or that Pizarro had conceived an aversion against the Peruvian emperor, on account of some instances of craft and duplicity which he observed in his character, and which he conceived might prove dangerous to his affairs, it is certain, that, by his command, Atabalipa was put to death. To justify this cruel proceeding, a sham charge was exhibited against the unhappy prince, in which he was accused of idolatry, of having many concubines, and other circumstances of equal impertinence. The only just ground of accusation against him was, that his brother, Huescar, had been put to death by his command; and even this was considerably palliated, because Huescar had been plotting his destruction, that he might establish himself on the throne. Upon the death of the Ynca, a number of candidates appeared for the throne. The principal nobility set up the full brother of Huescar; Pizarro set up a son of Atabalipa; and two generals of the Peruvians endeavoured to establish themselves by the assistance of the army. These distractions, which in another empire would have been extremely hurtful, and even here at another time, were at present rather advantageous to the Peruvian affairs. The candidates fought against one another: their battles accustomed these harmless people to blood, and such is the preference of a spirit of any kind raised in a nation to a total lethargy, that in the course of those quarrels among themselves, the inhabitants of Peru assumed some courage against the Spaniards, whom they regarded as the ultimate cause of all their calamities. The losses which the Spaniards met with in these quarrels, though considerable in themselves, were rendered dangerous, by lessening the opinion of their invincibility, which they were careful to preserve among the inhabitants of the new world. This consideration engaged Pizarro to conclude a truce; and the interval he employed in laying the foundations of the famous city of Lima, and in settling the Spaniards in the country. But as soon as a favourable opportunity offered, he renewed the war against the Indians, and, after many difficulties, made himself master of Cusco, the capital of the empire. While he was engaged in these conquests, new grants and supplies arrived from Spain. Pizarro obtained 200 leagues along the sea-coast, to the southward of what had been before granted, and Almagro 200 leagues to the southward of Pizarro's government. This division occasioned a warm dispute between them, each reckoning Cusco within his own district; but the dexterity of Pizarro brought about a reconciliation. He persuaded his rival that the country which really belonged to him, lay to the southward of Cusco, and that it was no way inferior in riches, and might be as easily conquered as Peru. He offered him his assistance in the expedition, the success of which he did not even call in ques-

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Almagro, that he might have the honour of subduing a Kingdom for himself, listened to his advice; and joining as many of Pizarro's troops to his own as he judged necessary, penetrated, with great danger and difficulty, into Chili; losing many of his men as he passed over mountains of an immense height, and always covered with snow. He reduced, however, a very considerable part of this country. But the Peruvians were now become too much acquainted with war not to take advantage of the division of the Spanish troops. They made an effort for regaining their capital, in which, Pizarro being indisposed, and Almagro removed at a distance, they were very nearly successful. The latter, however, no sooner got notice of the siege of Cusco, than relinquishing all views of distant conquests, he returned to secure the grand object of their former labours. He raised the siege with infinite slaughter of the assailants; but having obtained possession of the city, he was unwilling to give it up to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, and knew of no other enemy but the Peruvians. This dispute occasioned a long and bloody struggle between them, in which the turns of fortune were various, and the resentment fierce on both sides, because the fate of the vanquished was certain death. This was the lot of Almagro, who, in an advanced age, fell a victim to the security of a rival, in whose dangers and triumphs he had long shared, and with whom, from the beginning of the enterprise, he had been intimately connected. During the course of this civil war, many Peruvians served in the Spanish armies, and learned, from the practice of Christians, to butcher one another. That blinded nation, however, at length opened their eyes, and took a very remarkable resolution. They saw the ferocity of the Europeans, their unextinguishable resentment and avarice, and they conjectured that these passions would never permit their contests to subside. Let us retire, said they, from among them; let us fly to our mountains, they will speedily destroy one another, and then we may return in peace to our former habitations. This resolution was instantly put in practice; the Peruvians dispersed, and left the Spaniards in their capital. Had the force on each side been exactly equal, this singular policy of the natives of Peru might have been attended with success; but the victory of Pizarro put an end to Almagro's life, and to the hopes of the Peruvians, who have never since ventured to make head against the Spaniards.

Pizarro, now sole master of the field, and of the richest empire in the world, was still urged on by his ambition to undertake new enterprises. The southern countries of America, into which he had some time before dispatched Almagro, offered the richest conquest. Towards this quarter, the mountains of Potosi, composed of entire silver, had been discovered, the shell of which only remains at present. He therefore followed the track of Almagro into Chili, and reduced another part of that country. Orellana, one of his commanders, passed the Andes, and sailed down to the mouth of the river of Amazons: an immense navigation, which discovered a rich and delightful country; but as it is mostly flat, and therefore not abounding in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever since, neglected it. Pizarro meeting with repeated success, and having no superior to control, no rival to keep him within bounds, now gave loose reins to the natural ferocity of his temper, and behaved with the basest tyranny and cruelty against all who had not concurred in his designs. This conduct raised a conspiracy against him, to which he fell a sacrifice in his own palace, and in

the city of Lima, which he himself had founded. The partisans of old Almagro now declared his son, of the same name, their viceroy. But the greater part of the nation, though extremely well satisfied with the fate of Pizarro, did not concur with this declaration. They waited the orders of the emperor Charles V. then king of Spain, who sent over Vaca di Castro to be their governor. This man, by his integrity and wisdom, was admirably well fitted to heal the wounds of the colony, and to place every thing on the most advantageous footing, both for it and for the mother country. By his prudent management, the mines of la Plata and Potosi, which were formerly private plunder, became an object of public utility to the court of Spain. The parties were silenced or crushed; young Almagro, who would hearken to no terms of accommodation, was put to death, and a tranquillity, since the arrival of the Spaniards unknown, was restored to Peru. It seems, however, that Castro had not been sufficiently skilled in gaining the favour of the Spanish ministry by proper bribes or promises, which a ministry would always expect from the governor of so rich a country. By their advice a council was sent over to control Castro, and the colony was again unsettled. The party-spirit, but just extinguished, began to blaze anew; and Gonzalo, the brother of the famous Pizarro, set himself at the head of his brother's partisans, with whom many new malcontents had united. It was now no longer a dispute between governors about the bounds of their jurisdiction. Gonzalo Pizarro only paid a nominal submission to the king. He strengthened daily, and even went so far as to behead a governor, who was sent over to curb him. He gained the confidence of the admiral of the Spanish fleet in the South Seas, by whose means he proposed to hinder the landing of any troops from Spain, and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

Such was the situation of affairs, when the court of Spain, sensible of their mistake in not sending into America, men whose character and virtue only, and not importunity and cabal, pleaded in their behalf, dispatched, with unlimited powers, Peter de la Gasca, a man differing only from Castro, by being of a more mild and insinuating behaviour, but with the same love of justice, the same greatness of soul, and the same disinterested spirit. All those who had not joined in Pizarro's revolt, flocked to his standard; many of his friends, charmed with the behaviour of Gasca, forsook their old connections; the admiral was gained over by insinuation to return to his duty; and Pizarro himself offered a full indemnity, provided he would return to the allegiance of the Spanish crown. But so intoxicating are the ideas of royalty, that Pizarro was inclined to run every hazard, rather than submit to any officer of Spain. With those of his partisans, therefore, who still continued to adhere to his interest, he determined to venture a battle, in which he was conquered, and taken prisoner. His execution followed soon after; and thus the brother of him who conquered Peru for the crown of Spain, fell a sacrifice for the security of the Spanish dominion over that country.

The conquest of the great empires of Mexico and Peru is the only part of the American history which deserves to be treated under the present head. What relates to the reduction of the other parts of the continent or of the islands, if it contains either instruction or entertainment, shall be recorded under these particular countries. We now proceed to treat of the manners, government, religion, and whatever composes the character of the natives of America; and as these are ex-

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extremely similar all over this part of the globe, we shall speak of them in general, in order to save continual repetitions, noticing at the same time, when we enter upon the description of the particular countries, whatever is peculiar or remarkable in the inhabitants of each.

Of the Original Inhabitants of America.

THE discovery of America has not only opened a new source of wealth to the busy and commercial part of Europe, but an extensive field of speculation to the philosopher who would trace the character of man under various degrees of refinement, and observe the movements of the human heart, or the operations of the human understanding, when untutored by science or untainted by corruption. So striking seemed the disparity between the inhabitants of Europe and the natives of America, that some speculative men have ventured to affirm, that it is impossible they should be of the same species, or derived from one common source. This conclusion, however, is extremely ill founded. The characters of mankind may be infinitely varied according to the different degrees of improvement at which they are arrived, the manner in which they acquire the necessaries of life, the force of custom and habit, and a multiplicity of other circumstances too particular to be mentioned, and too various to be reduced under any general head. But the great outlines of humanity are to be discovered among them all, notwithstanding the various shades which characterize nations, and distinguish them from each other.

When the thirst of gold carried the inhabitants of Europe beyond the Atlantic, they found the inhabitants of the new world immersed in what they reckoned barbarity, but which, however, was a state of honest independence, and noble simplicity. Except the inhabitants of the great empires of Peru and Mexico, who, comparatively speaking, were refined nations, the natives of America were unacquainted with almost every European art; even agriculture itself, the most useful of them all, was hardly known, or cultivated very sparingly. The only method on which they depended for acquiring the necessaries of life, was by hunting the wild animals, which their mountains and forests supplied in great abundance. This exercise, which among them is a most serious occupation, gives a strength and agility to their limbs, unknown among other nations. The same cause, perhaps, renders their bodies, in general, where the rays of the sun are not too violent, uncommonly straight and well proportioned. Their muscles are firm and strong; their bodies and heads flatfish, which is the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce, their hair long, black, lank, and as strong as that of a horse. The colour of their skin is a reddish brown, admired among them, and heightened by the constant use of bear's fat and pain. The character of the Indians is altogether founded upon their circumstances and way of life. A people who are constantly employed in procuring the means of a precarious subsistence, who live by hunting the wild animals, and who are generally engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot be supposed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or high flow of spirits. The Indians, therefore, are, in general, grave even to sadness; they have nothing of that giddy vivacity peculiar to

some nations in Europe, and they despise it. Their behaviour to those about them is regular, modest, and respectful. Ignorant of the arts of amusement, of which that of laying trifles agreeably is one of the most considerable, they never speak but when they have something important to observe; and all their actions, words, and even looks, are attended with some meaning. This is extremely natural to men who are almost continually engaged in pursuits which to them are of the highest importance. Their subsistence depends entirely on what they procure with their hands; and their lives, their honour, and every thing dear to them, may be lost by the smallest inattention to the designs of their enemies. As they have no particular object to attach them to one place rather than another, they fly wherever they expect to find the necessities of life in greatest abundance. Cities, which are the effects of agriculture and arts, they have none. The different tribes or nations are for the same reason extremely small, when compared with civilized societies, in which industry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vast number of individuals, whom a complicated luxury renders useful to one another. These small tribes live at an immense distance; they are separated by a desert frontier, and hid in the bosom of impenetrable and almost boundless forests.

There is established in each society a certain species of government, which over the whole continent of America prevails with very little variation; because over the whole of this continent the manners and way of life are nearly similar and uniform. Without arts, riches, or luxury, the great instruments of subjection in polished societies, an American has no method by which he can render himself considerable among his companions, but by a superiority in personal qualities of body or mind. But as nature has not been very lavish in her personal distinctions, where all enjoy the same education, all are nearly equal, and will desire to remain so. Liberty, therefore, is the prevailing passion of the Americans, and their government, under the influence of this sentiment, is better secured than by the wisest political regulations. They are very far, however, from despising all sorts of authority; they are attentive to the voice of wisdom, which experience has conferred on the aged, and they enlist under the banners of the chief, in whose valour and military address they have learned to repose their confidence. In every society, therefore, there is to be considered the power of the chief and of the elders; and according as the government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a species of aristocracy. Among those tribes which are most engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant, because the idea of having a military leader, was the first source of his superiority, and the continual emergencies of the state requiring such a leader, will continue to support and even to enhance it. His power, however, is rather persuasive than coercive: he is revered as a father, rather than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no prisons, no officers of justice; and one act of ill-judged violence would deprive him of the throne. The elders, in the other form of government, which may be considered as an aristocracy, have no more power. In some tribes, indeed, there are a kind of hereditary nobility, whose influence being constantly augmented by time, is more considerable. But this source of power, which depends chiefly on the imagination, by which we annex to the merit of our contemporaries that of their forefathers, is too refined to be very common among the natives of America. In most countries, therefore, age alone is sufficient for acquiring respect, influence, and authority.

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It is age which teaches experience, and experience is the only source of knowledge among a barbarous people. Among the Indians, business is conducted with the utmost simplicity, and such as may recall to those who are acquainted with antiquity a picture of the most early ages. The heads of families meet together in a house or cabin appointed for the purpose. Here the business is discussed, and here those of the nation, distinguished for their eloquence or wisdom, have an opportunity of displaying those talents. Their orators, like those of Homer, express themselves in a bold figurative style, stronger than refined or rather softened nations can well bear, and with gestures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expressive. When the business is over, and they happen to be well provided in food, they appoint a feast upon the occasion, of which almost the whole nation partakes. The feast is accompanied with a song, in which the real or fabulous exploits of their forefathers are celebrated. They have dances too, though, like those of the Greeks and Romans, chiefly of the military kind; and their music and dancing accompanies every feast.

It often happens, that those different tribes or nations, scattered as they are at an immense distance from one another, meet in their excursions after prey. If there subsists no animosity between them, which seldom is the case, they behave in the most friendly and courteous manner. But if they happen to be in a state of war, or if there has been no previous intercourse between them, all who are not friends being deemed enemies, they fight with the most savage fury.

War, if we except hunting, is the only employment of the men; as to every other concern, and even the little agriculture they use, it is left to the women. Their most common motive for entering into a war, when it does not arise from an accidental rencounter or interference, is either to revenge themselves for the death of some lost friend, or to acquire prisoners, who may assist them in their hunting, and whom they adopt into their society. These wars are either undertaken by some private adventurers, or at the instance of the whole community. In the latter case, all the young men, who are disposed to go out to battle, for no one is compelled contrary to his inclination, give a piece of wood to the chief, as a token of their design to accompany him: For every thing among these people is transacted with a great deal of ceremony and many forms. The chief who is to conduct them, fasts several days, during which he converses with no one, and is particularly careful to observe his dreams, which the presumption natural to savages generally renders as favourable as he could desire. A variety of other superstitions and ceremonies are observed. One of the most hideous is setting the war-kettle on the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies, which among some nations must formerly have been the case, since they still continue to express it in clear terms, and use an emblem significant of the ancient usage. Then they dispatch a porcelane, or large shell, to their allies, inviting them to come along, and drink the blood of their enemies. For with the Americans, with the Greeks of old,

“A generous friendship no cold medium knows,

“Burns with one love, with one resentment glows.”

They think that those in their alliance must not only adopt their enemies, but have their resentment wound up to the same pitch with them. And, indeed, no people carry their friendships or their resentments so far as they do; and this is what should be expected from

their peculiar circumstances; that principle in human nature, which is the spring of the social affections, acts with so much the greater force the more it is restrained. The Americans, who live in small societies, who see few objects and few persons, become wonderfully attached to these objects and persons, and cannot be deprived of them without feeling themselves miserable. Their ideas are too confined, their breasts are too narrow to entertain the sentiment of general benevolence, or even of ordinary humanity. In this very circumstance, while it makes them cruel to an incredible degree, towards those with whom they are at war, it adds a new force to their particular friendships, and to the common tie which unites the members of the same tribe, or those different tribes which are in alliance with one another. Without attending to this real connection of facts we are going to relate would excite our wonder, without satisfying our reason, and we should be bewildered in a number of particulars seemingly opposite to one another, without being sensible of the general cause from which they proceed.

Having finished all the ceremonies previous to the war, they issue forth, with their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with streaks of vermilion, which give them a most horrid appearance. Then they exchange their clothes with their friends, and dispose of all their finery to the women, who accompany them, a considerable distance, to receive those last tokens of eternal friendship.

The great qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a surprize, and indeed, in these they are superior to all nations in the world. Accustomed to continual wandering in the forests, having their perceptions sharpened by keen necessity, and living in every respect according to nature, their external senses have a degree of acuteness which at first view appears incredible. They can trace out their enemies, at an immense distance, by the smoke of their fires, which they smell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they can count and distinguish with the utmost facility. They even distinguish the different nations with whom they are acquainted, and can determine the precise time when they passed, where an European could not, with all his glasses, distinguish footsteps at all. These circumstances, however, give them no superiority, because their enemies are equally skilful. When they go out, therefore, they take care to avoid making use of any thing by which they might run the danger of a discovery. They light no fire to warm themselves, or to prepare their victuals; they lie close to the ground all day, and travel only in the night; and marching along in files, he that closes the rear diligently covers with leaves the tracks of his own feet, and of theirs who preceded him. When they halt to refresh themselves, scouts are sent out to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place where they suspect an enemy may lie concealed. In this manner they enter unawares the villages of their foes, and while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, massacre all the children, women, and helpless old men, or make prisoners of as many as they can manage, or have strength enough to be useful to their nation. But when the enemy is apprised of their design, and coming on in arms against them, they throw themselves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to resemble. Then they allow a part to pass unmolested, when all at once, with a tremendous shout, rising up from their ambush, they pour a storm of musket-bullets on their foes. The party attacked return the same cry. Every one shelters himself with a tree, and returns to the fire of the adverse party, as soon as they raise themselves from the

ground to one party. But if the of the savs restrained, other with courage, an cruel comb would ton rouse the fu dies, tearing beasts, and it meets wit happy men, who have d to lament th and severe g their arrival; their dead b relates in a particular of to the people the shrieks of cries, accord or friendship each individu triumph of h unaccountabl sorrow, to an whose fate all the savages. We have al ments. Unite selves by the the most inter dom extend their nation; vidual who ha soners, who ha their conquer taken the capti distribution ma of a citizen. I was or other ac he becomes a m resentment for of any connect him to death, being collected, some great soler to the stake, w the ensuing scen enemies, on the the most refined of his body, and

ground to give a second fire. Thus does the battle continue until the one party is so much weakened as to be incapable of farther resistance. But if the force on each side continues nearly equal, the fierce spirits of the savages, inflamed by the loss of their friends, can no longer be restrained. They abandon their distant war, they rush upon one another with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and insulting their enemies with the bitterest reproaches. A cruel combat ensues: death appears in a thousand hideous forms, which would congeal the blood of civilised nations to behold, but which rouse the fury of savages. They trample, they insult over the dead bodies, tearing the scalp from the head, wallowing in their blood like wild beasts, and sometimes devouring their flesh. The flame rages on till it meets with no resistance; they the prisoners are secured, those unhappy men, whose fate is a thousand times more dreadful than theirs who have died in the field. The conquerors set up a hideous howling to lament the friends they have lost. They approach in a melancholy and severe gloom to their own village; a messenger is sent to announce their arrival; and the women, with frightful shrieks, come out to mourn their dead brothers, or their husbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates in a low voice to the elders, a circumstantial account of every particular of the expedition. The orator proclaims aloud this account to the people, and as he mentions the names of those who have fallen, the shrieks of the women are redoubled. The men too join in these cries, according as each is most connected with the deceased by blood or friendship. The last ceremony is the proclamation of the victory; each individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in the triumph of his nation; all tears are wiped from their eyes, and by an unaccountable transition, they pass in a moment from the bitterness of sorrow, to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the prisoners, whose fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characterises the savages.

We have already mentioned the strength of their affections or resentments. United as they are in small societies, connected within themselves by the firmest ties, their friendly affections, which glow with the most intense warmth within the walls of their own village, seldom extend beyond them. They feel nothing for the enemies of their nation; and their resentment is easily extended from the individual who has injured them, to all others of the same tribe. The prisoners, who have themselves the same feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The person who has taken the captive attends him to the cottage, where, according to the distribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to supply the loss of a citizen. If those who receive him have their family weakened by war or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member. But if they have no occasion for him, or their resentment for the loss of their friends be too high to endure the sight of any connected with those who were concerned in it, they sentence him to death. All those who have met with the same severe sentence being collected, the whole nation is assembled at the execution, as for some great solemnity. A scaffold is erected, and the prisoners are tied to the stake, where they commence their death-song, and prepare for the ensuing scene of cruelty, with the most undaunted courage. Their enemies, on the other side, are determined to put it to the proof, by the most refined and exquisite tortures. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the more vital parts. One plucks

out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the flesh with his teeth; a third thrusts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bowl of a pipe, made red-hot, which he smokes like tobacco; then they pound the toes and fingers to pieces between two stones, they pull off the flesh from the teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gashes in the fleshy parts of his limbs, which they fear immediately with red-hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching them alternately: they pull off this flesh thus mangled and roasted, bit by bit, devouring it with greediness, and smearing their faces with the blood in an enthusiasm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the flesh, they twist the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them, whilst others are employed in pulling and extending their limbs in every way that can increase the torment. This continues often five or six hours: and sometimes, such is the strength of the savages, days together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they shall inflict, and to refresh the strength of the sufferer, who, wearied out with such a variety of unheard-of torments, often falls into so profound a sleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake him, and renew his sufferings. He is again fastened to the stake, and again they renew their cruelty; they stick him all over with small matches of wood, that easily takes fire, but burns slowly; they continually run sharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thrust out his eyes; and lastly, after having burned his flesh from the bones with slow fires; after having so mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in such a manner as to carry nothing human in it; after having peeled the skin from the head, and poured a heap of red hot coals or boiling water on the naked skull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind and staggering with pain and weakness, assaulted and pelted upon every side with clubs and stones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every step, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compassion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into the kettle, and this barbarous employment is succeeded by a feast as barbarous.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into something worse than Furies, even outdo the men in this scene of horror; while the principal persons of the country sit round the stake, smoaking and looking on without the least emotion. What is most extraordinary, the sufferer himself, in the little intervals of his torments, smokes too, appears unconcerned, and converses with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there seems a contest, which shall exceed, they inflicting the most horrid pains, or he in enduring them, with a firmness and constancy almost above human; not a groan, not a sigh, not a distortion of countenance escapes him; he possesses his mind entirely in the midst of his torments; he recounts his own exploits; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their country-men, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, though his reproaches exasperate them to a perfect madness of rage and fury, he continues his insults even of their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out more exquisite methods, and more sensible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as the men; and it is as rare for any Indian to behave otherwise, as it would be for any European to suffer as an Indian. Such is the un-

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derful power of an early institution, and a ferocious thirst of glory. *I am brave and intrepid,* exclaims the savage in the faces of his tormentors: *I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures; those who fear them are cowards; they are less than women; life is nothing to those that have courage: may my enemies be confounded with despair and rage! Oh! that I could devour them, and drink their blood to the last drop!*

Nothing in the history of mankind forms a stronger contrast than this cruelty of the savages towards those with whom they are at war, and the warmth of their affection towards their friends, who consist of all those who live in the same village, or are in alliance with it; among these all things are common; and this, though it may in part arise from their not possessing very distinct notions of separate property, is chiefly to be attributed to the strength of their attachment; because in every thing else, with their lives as well as their fortunes, they are ready to serve their friends. Their houses, their provisions, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a guest. Has any one of these succeeded ill in his hunting? Has his harvest failed? or is his house buried? He feels no other effect of his misfortune, than that it gives him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his fellow citizens; but to the enemies of his country, or to those who have privately offended him, the American is implacable. He conceals his sentiments, he appears reconciled, until, by some treachery or surprise, he has an opportunity of executing a horrible revenge. No length of time is sufficient to allay his resentment; no distance of place great enough to protect the object; he crosses the steepest mountains, he pierces the most impracticable forests, and traverses the most hideous bogs and deserts for several hundreds of miles; bearing the inclemency of the seasons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirst, with patience and cheerfulness, in hopes of surprising his enemy, on whom he exercises the most shocking barbarities, even to the eating of his flesh. To such extremes do the Indians push their friendship or their enmity; and such indeed, in general, is the character of all strong and uncultivated minds.

But what we have said respecting the Indians would be a faint picture, did we omit observing the force of their friendship, which principally appears by the treatment of the dead. When any one of the society is cut off, he is lamented by the whole; on this occasion a thousand ceremonies are practised, denoting the most lively sorrow. Of these, the most remarkable, as it discovers both the height and continuance of their grief, is what they call the feast of the dead, or the feast of souls. The day of this ceremony is appointed by public order; and nothing is omitted, that it may be celebrated with the utmost pomp and magnificence. The neighbouring tribes are invited to be present and to join in the solemnity. At this time, all who have died since the last solemn occasion (which is renewed every ten years among some tribes, and every eight among others) are taken out of their graves; those who have been interred at the greatest distance from the villages are diligently sought for, and brought to this great rendez-vous of carcases.

It is not difficult to conceive the horror of this general disinterment. I cannot describe it in a more lively manner than it is done by Lafitau, to whom we are indebted for the most authentic account of those nations. Without question, says he, the opening of these tombs displays one of the most striking scenes that can be conceived; this humbling portrait of human misery, in death, which appears in a thousand various

shapes of horror in the several carcases, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a sort of parchement upon their bones; some look as if they were baked and smoked, without any appearance of rottenness; some are just turning towards the point of putrefaction; while others are all swarming with worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to strike us most, the horror of so shocking a sight, or the tender piety and affection of these poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing deserves our admiration more than that eager diligence and attention with which they discharge this melancholy duty of their tenderness, gathering up carefully even the smallest bones; handling the carcases, disgusting as they are with every thing loathsome, cleansing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their shoulders, through tiresome journeys of several days, without being discouraged from the offensiveness of the smell, and without suffering any other emotions to arise than those of regret for having lost persons who were so dear to them in their lives, and so lamented in their death.

They bring them into their cottages, where they prepare a feast in honour of the dead; during which their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourses which took place between them and their friends are piously called to mind. The strangers, who have come sometimes many hundred miles to be present on the occasion, join in the tender condolence; and the women, by frightful shrieks, demonstrate that they are pierced with the sharpest sorrow. The dead bodies are carried from the cabins for the general re-interment. A great pit is dug in the ground, and thither, at a certain time, each person, attended by his family and friends, marches in solemn silence, bearing the dead body of a son, a father, or a brother. When they are all convened, the dead bodies, or dust of those which were quite corrupted, are deposited in the pit; when the torrent of grief breaks out anew. Whatever they possess most valuable is interred with the dead. The strangers are not wanting in their generosity, and confer those presents which they have brought along with them for the purpose. Then all present go down into the pit, and every one takes a little of the earth, which they afterwards preserve with the most religious care. The bodies, ranged in order, are covered with entire new furs, and, over these, with bark, on which they throw stones, wood, and earth. Then taking the last farewell, they return each to his own cabin.

We have mentioned that in this ceremony the savages offer, as presents to the dead, whatever they value most highly. This custom, which is universal among them, arises from a rude notion of the immortality of the soul. They believe this doctrine most firmly, and it is the principal tenet of their religion. When the soul is separated from the body of their friends, they conceive that it still continues to hover around it, and to require, and take delight in, the same things with which it formerly was pleased. After a certain time, however, it forsakes this dreary mansion, and departs far westward into the land of spirits. They have even gone so far as to make a distinction between the inhabitants of the other world; some, they imagine, particularly those who in their life-time have been fortunate in war, possess a high degree of happiness, have a place for hunting and fishing, which never fails, and enjoy all sensual delights, without labouring hard in order to procure them. The souls of those, on the contrary, who happen to be conquered or slain in war, are extremely miserable after death.

Their taste for war, which forms the chief ingredient in their character, gives a strong bias to their religion. Atekou, or the god of battle, is revered as the great god of the Indians. Him they invoke before they go into the field; and, according as his disposition is more or less favourable to them, they conclude they shall be more or less successful. Some nations worship the sun or moon; among others there are a number of traditions, relative to the creation of the world, and the history of the gods: traditions which resemble the Grecian fables, but which are still more absurd and inconsistent. But religion is not the prevailing character of the Indians; and except when they have some immediate occasion for the assistance of their gods, they pay them no sort of worship. Like all rude nations, however, they are strongly addicted to superstition. They believe in the existence of a number of good and bad genii, spirits who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happiness or misery. It is from the evil genii, in particular, that our diseases proceed; and it is to the good genii we are indebted for a cure. The ministers of the genii are the jugglers, who are also the only physicians among the savages. These jugglers are supposed to be inspired by the good genii, most commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events; they are called in to the assistance of the sick, and are supposed to be informed by the genii whether their patients will recover, and in what manner they must be treated. But these spirits are extremely simple in their system of physic, and, in almost every disease, direct the juggler to the same remedy. The patient is enclosed in a narrow cabin, in the midst of which is a stone red hot; on this they throw water, until he is well soaked with the warm vapour and his own sweat. Then they hurry him from the bagnio, and plunge him suddenly into the next river. This coarse method, which costs many their lives, often performs very extraordinary cures. The jugglers have likewise the use of some specifics, of wonderful efficacy; and all the savages are dexterous in curing wounds by the application of herbs. But the power of these remedies is always attributed to the magical ceremonies with which they are administered.

It should be observed by the reader, that the particulars which have just been mentioned concerning the manners of the Americans, chiefly relate to the inhabitants of North America. The manners and general characteristics of great part of the original inhabitants of South America were very different. On the first appearance of the inhabitants of the New World, their discoverers found them to be in many particulars very unlike the generality of the people of the ancient hemisphere. They were different in their features and complexions; they were not only averse to toil, but seemed incapable of it; and when roused by force from their native indolence, and compelled to work, they sunk under tasks which the inhabitants of the other continent would have performed with ease. This feebleness of constitution seemed almost universal among the inhabitants of South America. The Spaniards were also struck with the smallness of their appetite for food. The constitutional temperance of the natives far exceeded, in their opinion, the abstinence of the most mortified hermits; while, on the other hand, the appetite of the Spaniards appeared to the Americans insatiably voracious; and they affirmed that one Spaniard devoured more food in a day than was sufficient for ten Americans. But though the demands of the native Americans for food were very sparing, so limited was their agriculture that they hardly raised what was sufficient for their own consumption. Many of the inhabitants of South America confined their industry

to rearing a few plants; which, in a rich and warm climate, were easily trained to maturity; but if a few Spaniards settled in any district, such a small addition of supernumerary mouths soon exhausted their scanty stores, and brought on a famine. The inhabitants of South America, compared with those of North America, are generally more feeble in their frame, less vigorous in the efforts of their minds, of a gentle, but dastardly spirit, more enslaved by pleasure, and sunk in indolence.

A GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF AMERICA.

THIS great western continent, frequently denominated the New World, extends from the 80th degree north, to the 56th degree south latitude; and where its breadth is known, from the 35th to the 76th degree of west longitude from London; stretching between 8 and 9000 miles in length, and its greatest breadth 3600. It lies in both hemispheres, has two summers, and a double winter, and enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords. It is washed by the two great oceans. To the eastward it has the Atlantic, which divides it from Europe and Africa; and to the west the Pacific, or Great South Sea, by which it is separated from Asia. By these seas it may, and does, carry on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world. It is composed of two great continents, one on the north, the other on the south, which are joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a kind of isthmus 1500 miles long, and in one part, at Darien, so extremely narrow, as to make the communication between the two oceans by no means difficult, being only sixty miles over. In the great gulf which is formed between the isthmus and the northern and southern continents, lie a multitude of islands, many of them large, most of them fertile, and denominated the West Indies, in contradistinction to the countries and islands of Asia, beyond the Cape of Good Hope, which are called the East Indies.

Before we proceed to treat of separate countries in their order, it will be proper to take notice of these mountains and rivers which disdain, as it were, to be confined within the limits of particular provinces, and extend over a great part of the continent. For though America, in general, be not a mountainous country, it has the greatest mountains in the world. In South America, the Andes, or Cordilleras, run from north to south along the coast of the Pacific Ocean. They exceed in length any chain of mountains in the other parts of the globe; extending from the isthmus of Darien to the straits of Magellan, they divide the whole southern parts of America, and run a length of 4300 miles. Their height is as remarkable as their length; for though in part within the torrid zone, they are constantly covered with snow. Chimborazo, the highest of the Andes, is 20,608 feet; of this about 2400 feet from the summit are always covered with snow. Carazon was ascended by the French astronomers, and is said to be 15,800 feet high. In North America, which is chiefly composed of gentle ascents or level plains, we know of no considerable mountains, except those towards the pole, and that long ridge which lies on the back of the American States, separating them from Canada and Louisiana, which we call the Apalachian or Allegany mountains; if that may be considered as a mountain,

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America is, without question, that part of the globe which is best watered: and that not only for the support of life, and all the purposes of fertility, but for the convenience of trade, and the intercourse of each part with the others. In North America, those vast tracts of country situated beyond the Apalachian mountains, at an immense and unknown distance from the ocean, are watered by inland seas, called the Lakes of Canada, which not only communicate with each other, but give rise to several great rivers, particularly the Mississippi, running from north to south till it falls into the Gulf of Mexico, after a course, including its turnings, of 4500 miles, and receiving in its progress the vast tribute of the Illinois, the Missouri, the Ohio, and other great rivers, scarcely inferior to the Rhine or the Danube; and on the north, the river St. Laurence, running a contrary course from the Mississippi, till it empties itself into the ocean near Newfoundland; all of them being almost navigable to their heads, lay open the inmost recesses of this great continent, and afford such an inlet for commerce, as must produce the greatest advantage, whenever the country adjacent shall come to be fully inhabited by an industrious and civilised people. The eastern side of North America, besides the noble rivers Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, and Potowmack, supplies several others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation: hence many parts of the settlements are so advantageously intersected with navigable rivers and creeks, that the planters, without exaggeration, may be said to have each a harbour at his door.

South America is, if possible, in this respect even more fortunate. It supplies much the two largest rivers in the world, the river of Amazons, and the Rio de la Plata, or Plate River. The first, rising in Peru not far from the South Sea, passes from west to east, and falls into the ocean between Brazil and Guiana, after a course of more than 3000 miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of great and navigable rivers. The Rio de la Plata rises in the heart of the country, and having its strength gradually augmented by an accession of many powerful streams, discharges itself with such vehemence into the sea, as to make its taste fresh for many leagues from land. Besides these, there are other rivers in South America, of which the Oronoko is the most considerable.

A country of such vast extent on each side of the equator, must necessarily have a variety of soils as well as climates. It is a treasury of nature, producing most of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in the other parts of the world; and many of them in greater quantities and higher perfection. The gold and silver of America have supplied Europe with such immense quantities of those valuable metals, that they are become vastly more common; so that the gold and silver of Europe now bear little proportion to the high price set upon them before the discovery of America.

This country also produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethysts, and other valuable stones, which, by being brought into Europe, have contributed likewise to lower their value. To these, which are chiefly the production of Spanish America, may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of less price, are of much greater use, and many of them make the ornament and wealth of the British empire in this part of the world. Of these are the plentiful supplies of cochineal, indigo, anatto, logwood, brasil, fustic, pimento, lignum vitæ, rice,

ginger, cocoa, or the chocolate nut; sugar, cotton, tobacco, banillas, red-wood, the balsams of Tolu, Peru, and Chili, that valuable article in medicine, the Jesuits' bark, mechoacan, saffra, saraparilla, cassia, tamarinds, hides, furs, ambergris, and a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, to which, before the discovery of America, we were either entire strangers, or forced to buy at an extravagant rate from Asia and Africa, through the hands of the Venetians and Genoese, who then engrossed the trade of the eastern world.

This continent has also a variety of excellent fruits, which here grow wild to great perfection; as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicagons, cherries, pears, apples, figs, grapes, great numbers of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots, and plants: and so fertile is the soil, that many exotic productions are nourished in as great perfection as in their native ground.

Though the Indians still live in the quiet possession of many large tracts, America, so far as known, is chiefly claimed, and divided into colonies, by three European nations, the Spanish, English, and Portuguese. The Spaniards, as they first discovered it, have the largest and richest portions, extending from New Mexico and Louisiana, in North America, to the Straits of Magellan, in the South Sea, excepting the large province of Brasil, which belongs to Portugal; for though the French and Dutch have some sorts upon Surinam and Guiana, they scarcely deserve to be considered as proprietors of any part of the southern continent.

Next to Spain, the most considerable proprietor of America was Great Britain, who derived her claim to North America from the first discovery of that continent by Sebastian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. anno 1497, about six years after the discovery of South America by Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This country was in general called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropriated solely to an island upon its coast. It was a long time before we made an attempt to settle this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon genius, and a brave commander, first showed the way, by planting a colony in the southern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of his mistress, queen Elizabeth.

The French, from this period until the conclusion of the war in 1763, laid a claim to, and actually possessed, Canada and Louisiana, comprehending all that extensive inland country, reaching from Hudson's Bay on the north, to Mexico, and the gulf of the same name, on the south: regions which all Europe could not people in the course of many ages.

The multitude of islands, which lie between the two continents of North and South America, are divided amongst the Spaniards, English, and French. The Dutch indeed possess three or four small islands, which in any other hands would be of no consequence; and the Danes have one or two, but they hardly deserve to be named among the proprietors of America. We shall now proceed to the particular provinces, beginning, according to our method, with the north; but Labrador, or New Britain, and the country round Hudson's Bay, with those vast regions towards the Pole, are little known.

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A summary view of the first settlements of NORTH AMERICA.

Names of places.	When settled.	By whom.
Quebec	1608	By the French.
Virginia	June 10, 1609	By Lord de la War.
Newfoundland	June 1610	By Governor John Guy.
New York	} about 1614	By the Dutch.
New Jersey		
Plymouth	1620	} By part of Mr. Robinson's congregation. By a small English colony, near the mouth of Piscataqua river.
New Hampshire	1623	
Delaware	} - 1627	By the Swedes and Fins.
Pennsylvania		
Massachusetts Bay	1628	By Capt. John Endicot and Company.
Maryland	1633	By Lord Baltimore, with a colony of Roman Catholics.
Connecticut	1635	By Mr. Fenwick, at Saybrook, near the mouth of Connecticut river.
Rhode Island	1635	By Mr. Roger Williams, and his persecuted brethren.
New Jersey	1664	} Granted to the Duke of York by Charles II. and made a distinct government and settled, some time before this by the English.
South Carolina	1669	
Pennsylvania	1682	By Governor Sale.
North Carolina	about 1728	Erected into a separate government, settled before by the English.
Georgia	1732	By General Oglethorpe.
Kentucky	1773	By Col. Daniel Boone.
Vermont	1777	By emigrants from Connecticut, and other parts of New England.
Territory NW. of Ohio River.	1787	By the Ohio and other companies.

The Grand Divisions of NORTH AMERICA.

Colonies.	Len.	Brea.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Towns.	Dist. & bearing from London.	Belongs to.
New Britain	850	750	318,750			Great Britain
Province of Quebec	600	200	100,000	Quebec		Ditto
New Scotland } New Brunf. }	350	250	57,000	Halifax Sheburne		Ditto
New England	550	200	87,400	Boston	2760 W.	United States
New York	300	150	24,000	New York		Ditto

Colonies.	Len.	Brea.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Towns.	Dist. & bearing from London.	Belongs to
New Jersey	160	60	10,000	Perth Amboy		United States
Pennsylvania	300	140	15,000	Philadelphia		Ditto
Maryland	140	135	12,000	Annapolis		Ditto
Virginia	750	240	80,000	Williamsburg		Ditto
North Caro.	700	380	120,000	Edenton		Ditto
South Caro.				Charles town		Ditto
Georgia				Savannah		Ditto
East Florida	500	440	100,000	St. Augustine		Spain
West Florida				Pensacola		Ditto
Louisiana	1200	645	576,000	New Orleans	4080 S.W.	Ditto
New Mexico	2000	1000	600,000	St. Fee		Ditto
& California				St. Juan	4320 SW.	Ditto
Mexico, or New Spain	2000	600	318,000	Mexico	4900 SW.	Ditto

The Thirteen United States 238,000 Sq. Miles.
 British Possessions in North America } Province of Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick } - 150,000

Grand Divisions of SOUTH AMERICA.

Nations.	Len.	Brea.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. & bearing from London.	Belongs to
Terra Firma	1400	700	700,000	Panama	4650 SW.	Spain
Peru	1800	600	970,000	Lima	5220 SW.	Ditto
Amazonia, a very large country, but little known to the Europeans, 1200 L. 960 B.						
Guiana	780	480	250,000	Surinam Cayene	3840 SW.	Dutch French
Brazil	1560	700	940,000	St. Sebastian	6000 SW.	Portugal
Parag. or LaPlata	1500	1000	1,000,000	Buen. Ayres	6640 SW.	Spain
Chill	1200	500	206,000	St. Jago	6600 SW.	Spain
Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia	1400	460	325,000	The Spaniards took possession of it, but did not think it worth while to settle there.		

West India Islands, lying in the Atlantic, between North and South America.

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St. Barth
Defcacia
Marigal
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* In the present war etc. But as the event the termination of hosti

The principal Islands of North America belonging to Europeans, are

ISLANDS.	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	Chief Towns.	Belongs to
Newfoundland	350	200	35,500	Placentia	Great Brit.
Cape Britain	210	80	4,000	Louifburg	Ditto
St. John's	60	30	500	Charl. Town	Ditto
The Bermuda Isles	20,000 acres		40	St. George	Ditto
The Bahama ditto	very numerous			Nassau	Ditto
Jamaica	140	60	6,000	Kingston	Ditto
Barbadoes	21	14	140	Bridgetown	Ditto
St. Christopher	20	7	80	Basse-terre	Ditto
Antigua	20	20	100	St. John's	Ditto
Nevis and Montserrat	each of these is 18 circum.			Charles Town Plymouth	Ditto Ditto
Barbuda	20	12	60		Ditto
Anguilla	30	10	60		Ditto
Dominica	28	13	150	Rouffeau	Ditto
St. Vincent	24	18	150	Kingston	Ditto
Granada	30	15	150	St. George's	Ditto
Tobago	32	9	108		France
Cuba	700	90	38,400	Havannah	Spain
Hilpaniola	450	150	36,000	St. Domingo	Do & France
Porto Rico	100	49	3,200	Porto Rico	Spain
Trinidad	90	60	2,897	St. Joseph	Ditto
Margarita	40	24	624		Ditto
Martinico	60	30	300	St. Peter's	France *
Guadaloupe	45	38	250	Basse-terre	Ditto *
St. Lucia	23	12	90		Ditto *
St. Bartholomew, Descada, and Matigalanta	all of them inconsiderable.				Ditto † Ditto Ditto
St. Eustatia	29	circum.		The Bay	Dutch
Carallou	30	10	342		Ditto
St. Thomas	15	circum.			Denmark
St. Croix	30	10		Basse End	Ditto

In the Gulf of St. Lawr.

West India Islands, lying in the Atlantic, between North and South America.

* British Islands in NORTH AMERICA, and the WEST INDIES. 36,250 square miles.
 † In the present war with France (1793) some of these Islands, and parts of others, have repeatedly changed their masters. But as the events of war are uncertain, it is impossible to ascertain with any precision to whom they belong, until the termination of hostilities.
 ‡ Lately ceded to Sweden by France.

BRITISH AMERICA.

NEW BRITAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 850 } Breadth 750 }	between { 50 and 70 North lat. } 50 and 100 West lon. }	318,750.

NEW BRITAIN, or the country lying round Hudson's Bay, and commonly called the country of the Esquimaux, comprehending Labrador, now North and South Wales, is bounded by unknown lands and frozen seas, about the pole, on the North; by the Atlantic ocean on the East; by the bay and river of St. Laurence and Canada, on the South; and by unknown lands on the West.

MOUNTAINS.] The tremendous high mountains in this country towards the North, their being covered with eternal snow, and the winds blowing from thence three quarters of the year, occasion a degree of cold in the winter over all this country, which is not experienced in any other part of the world in the same latitude.

RIVERS, BAYS, STRAITS, AND CAPES.] These are numerous, and take their names generally from the English navigators and commanders, by whom they were first discovered. The principal bay is that of Hudson, and the principal straits are those of Hudson, Davis, and Belleisle; and the chief rivers are the Moose, Severn, Rupert, Nelson, and Black River.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] This country is extremely barren. To the northward of Hudson's Bay, even the hardy pine-tree is seen no longer, and the cold womb of the earth has been supposed incapable of any better production than some miserable shrubs. Every kind of European seed committed to the earth in this inhospitable climate, has hitherto perished; but perhaps the seed of corn from the northern parts of Sweden and Norway would be more suitable to the soil. All this severity, and long continuance of winter, and the barrenness of the earth which comes from thence, is experienced in the latitude of fifty-two; in the temperate latitude of Cambridge.

ANIMALS.] These are the moose-deer, stags, rein-deer, bears, tigers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermins, wild cats, and hares. Of the feathered kind, they have geese, bustards, ducks, partridges, and all manner of wild fowls. Of fish, there are whales, morse, seals, cod-fish, and a white fish preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and fresh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout. There have been taken at Port Nelson, in one season, ninety thousand partridges, which are here as large as hens, and twenty-five thousand hares.

All the animals of these countries are clothed with a close, soft, warm fur. In summer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the co-

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hours of the several animals. When that season is over, which holds only for three months, they all assume the livery of winter, and every sort of beasts, and most of their fowls, are of the colour of the snow: every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a surprising phenomenon: but it is yet more surprising, that the dogs and cats from England, that have been carried into Hudson's Bay, on the approach of winter, have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, softer, and thicker coat of hair, than they had originally.

Before we advance farther in the description of America, it may be proper to observe in general, that all the quadrupeds of this new world are less than those of the old; even such as are carried from hence to breed there, are often found to degenerate, but are never seen to improve. If, with respect to size, we should compare the animals of the new and the old world, we shall find the one bear no manner of proportion to the other. The Asiatic elephant, for instance, often grows to above fifteen feet high, while the tapurettee, which is the largest native of America, is not bigger than a calf of a year old. The lama, which some also call the American camel, is still less. Their beasts of prey are quite divested of that courage which is so often fatal to man in Africa or Asia. They have no lions, nor, properly speaking, either leopard or tiger. Travellers, however, have affixed those names to such ravenous animals as are there found most to resemble those of the ancient continent. The congar, the taquar, and the taquetti among them are despicable, in comparison of the tiger, the leopard, and the panther of Asia. The tiger of Bengal has been known to measure six feet in length, without including the tail; while the congar, or American tiger, as some affect to call it, seldom exceeds three. All the animals, therefore, in the southern parts of America, are different from those of the southern parts of the ancient continent; nor does there appear to be any common to both, but those which, being able to bear the colds of the north, have travelled from one continent to the other. Thus, the bear, the wolf, the rein-deer, the stag, and the beaver, are known as well by the inhabitants of New Britain and Canada as Russia; while the lion, the leopard, and the tiger, which are natives of the south with us, are utterly unknown in southern America. But if the quadrupeds of America be smaller than those of the ancient continent, they are in much greater abundance; for it is a rule that obtains through nature, and evidently points out the wisdom of the author of it, that the smallest animals multiply in the greatest proportion. The goat, exported from Europe to Southern America, in a few generations becomes much less; but then it also becomes more prolific; and, instead of one kid at a time, or two at the most, generally produces five, six, and sometimes more. The wisdom of Providence in making formidable animals unprolific is obvious; had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion, the same degree of fecundity with the rabbit, or the rat, all the arts of man would soon be unequal to the contest, and we would soon perceive them become the tyrants of those who call themselves the masters of the creation.

PERSONS AND HABITS.] The men of this country show great ingenuity in their manner of kindling a fire, in clothing themselves, and in preserving their eyes from the ill effects of that glaring white which every where surrounds them, for the greatest part of the year: in other respects they are very savage. In their shapes and faces they do not resemble the Americans who live to the southward: they are much more like the Laplanders and the Samoeids of Europe already described.

DISCOVERY AND COMMERCE.] The knowledge of these northern seas and countries was owing to a project started in England for the discovery of a north-west passage to China and the East Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped, and as often revived, but never yet completed; and from the late voyages of discovery it seems manifest, that no practicable passage ever can be found. Frobisher only discovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and those straits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John Davis sailed from Portsmouth, and viewed that and the more northerly coasts; but he seems never to have entered the bay. Hudson made three voyages on the same adventure; the first in 1607; the second in 1608; and his third and last in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the straits that lead into this new Mediterranean, the bay known by his name, coasted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the discovery not being abated by the difficulties he struggled with in this empire of winter, and world of frost and snow, he staid here until the ensuing spring, and prepared, in the beginning of 1611, to pursue his discoveries; but his crew, who suffered equal hardships, without the same spirit to support them, mutinied, seized upon him, and seven of those who were most faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy seas in an open boat. Hudson and his companions were either swallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the inhospitable coast, were destroyed by the savages; but the ship and the rest of the men returned home.

Another attempt towards a discovery was made in 1746, by captain Ellis, who wintered as far north as fifty-seven degrees and a half; but though the adventurers failed in the original purpose for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of great advantage to this country. The vast countries which surround Hudson's Bay, as we have already observed, abound with animals, whose fur and skins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not consist of above nine or ten persons, for the exclusive trade to this bay, and they have acted under it ever since, with great benefit to the private men who compose the company, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to a much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of this exclusive company, whose interested spirit has been the subject of long and just complaint. The company employ but four ships and 130 seamen. They have several forts, viz. Prince of Wales, Churchill, Nelson, New Severn, and Albany, which stand on the west side of the bay, and are garrisoned by 186 men. The French attacked, took, and made some depredations on them the last war, it was said, to the amount of 400,000*l.* They export commodities to the value of 16,000*l.* and bring home returns to the value of 29,340*l.* which yield to the revenue 3,734*l.* This includes the fishery in Hudson's bay. This commerce, small as it is, affords immense profits to the company, and even some advantages to Great Britain in general; for the commodities we exchange with the Indians for their skins and furs, are all manufactured in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, such things are sent of which we have the greatest plenty, and which in the mercantile phrase, are drugs with us. Though the workmanship may happen to be in many respects so deficient, that no civilised people would take it off our hands, it may be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the skins and furs we bring from Hudson's Bay, enter largely into our manufactures, and afford us materials for trading with many nations of Europe, to great advantage.

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CANADA, or the PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600 } Breadth 200 }	between { 61 and 81 west longitude. 45 and 52 north latitude. }	100,000

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by New Britain and Hudson's Bay, on the North and East; by Nova Scotia, New England, and New York on the South; and by unknown lands on the West.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] The climate of this province is not very different from the colonies mentioned above; but as it is much farther from the sea, and more northerly than a great part of these provinces, it has a much severer winter; though the air is generally clear; but, like most of those American tracts, that do not lie too far to the northward, the summers are very hot, and exceedingly pleasant.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Though the climate be cold, and the winter long and tedious, the soil is in general very good, and in many parts both pleasant and fertile, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other sorts of grains, fruits, and vegetables; tobacco in particular thrives well, and is much cultivated. The isle of Orleans, near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St. Laurence, and other rivers, are remarkable for the richness of their soil. The meadow grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and breed vast numbers of great and small cattle. As we are now entering upon the cultivated provinces of British America, and as Canada is upon the back of the United States, and contains almost all the different species of wood and animals that are found in these provinces, we shall, to avoid repetitions, speak of them here at some length.

TIMBER AND PLANTS.] The uncultivated parts of North America contain the greatest forests in the world. They are a continued wood, not planted by the hands of men, and in all appearance as old as the world itself. Nothing is more magnificent to the sight; the trees lose themselves in the clouds; and there is such a prodigious variety of species, that even among those persons who have taken most pains to describe them, there is not one perhaps that knows half the number. The province we are describing produces, amongst others, two sorts of pines, the white and the red; four sorts of firs; two sorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and the female maple; three sorts of ash trees, the free, the mungrel, and the bastard; three sorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the soft, and the smooth; vast numbers of beech trees, and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, some of which, made out of one piece, will contain twenty persons; others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they sew together with the inner rind, and daub over the seams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter resembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of these canoes are made of boughs of trees. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitations in the hollow elms, and remain there till April. Here are also found cherry-trees, plum-trees, the vinegar-tree, the fruit of which, infused in water, produces vinegar; an aquatic plant, called alaco, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the white thorn; the

cotton-tree, on the top of which grow several tufts of flowers, which, when shaken in the morning before the dew falls off, produce honey; that may be boiled up into sugar, the seed being a pod, containing a very fine kind of cotton; the sun-plant, which resembles a marigold, and grows to the height of seven or eight feet; Turkey corn; French beans; gourds, melons, capillaire, and the hop plant.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and in some of the mountains, we are told, silver has been found. This country also abounds with coals.

RIVERS.] The rivers branching through this country are very numerous, and many of them large, bold, and deep. The principal are, the Outtauais, St. John, Seguinay, Despraires, and Trois Rivieres, but they are all swallowed up by the river St. Laurence. This river issues from the lake Ontario, and taking its course north-east, washes Montréal, where it receives the Outtauais, and forms many fertile islands. It continues the same course, and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the sea, where it is navigable for large vessels; and below Quebec, 320 miles from the sea, it becomes broad, and so deep, that ships of the line contributed, in the war before the last, to reduce that capital. After receiving in its progress innumerable streams, this great river falls into the ocean at Cape Rosieres, where it is ninety miles broad, and where the cold is intense, and the sea boisterous. In its progress it forms a variety of bays, harbours, and islands: many of them are fruitful, and extremely pleasant.

LAKES.] The great river St. Laurence is that only upon which the French (now subjects of Great Britain) have settlements of any note; but if we look forward into futurity, it is not improbable that Canada, and those vast regions to the west, will be enabled of themselves to carry on a considerable trade upon the great lakes of fresh water which these countries environ. Here are five lakes, the smallest of which is a piece of sweet water, greater than any in the other parts of the world; this is the lake Ontario, which is not less than 200 leagues in circumference. Erie, or Otwego, longer, but not so broad, is about the same extent. That of the Huron spreads greatly in width, and is in circumference not less than 300, as is that of Michigan, though, like lake Erie, it is rather long and comparatively narrow. But the lake Superior, which contains several large islands, is 500 leagues in the circuit. All of these are navigable by any vessels, and they all communicate with one another, except that the passage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by a stupendous fall or cataract, which is called the Falls of Niagara. The water here is about half a mile wide, where the rock crosses it, not in a direct line, but in the form of a half moon. When it comes to the perpendicular fall, which is 150 feet, no words can express the consternation of travellers at seeing so great a body of water falling, or rather violently thrown, from so great a height; upon the rocks below; from which it again rebounds to a very great height, appearing as white as snow, being all converted into foam, through those violent agitations. The noise of this fall is often heard at the distance of fifteen miles, and sometimes much farther. The vapour arising from the fall may sometimes be seen at a great distance, appearing like a cloud, or pillar of smoke, and in the appearance of a rainbow, whenever the sun and the position of the traveller favours. Many beasts and fowls here lose their lives, by attempting to swim, or cross the stream in the rapids above the fall, and are found dashed in pieces below; and sometimes the Indians, through carelessness or drunkenness, have met with the

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same fate; and perhaps no place in the world is frequented by such a number of eagles as are invited hither by the carnage of deer, elks, bears, &c. on which they feed. The river St. Laurence, as we have already observed, is the outlet of these lakes, by which they discharge themselves into the ocean. The French, when in possession of the province, built forts at the several straits by which these lakes communicate with each other, as well as where the last of them communicates with the river. By these they effectually secured to themselves the trade of the lakes, and an influence over all the nations of America which lay near them.

ANIMALS.] These make the most curious, and hitherto the most interesting part of the natural history of Canada. It is to the spoils of these that we owe the materials of many of our manufactures, and most of the commerce as yet carried on between us and the country we have been describing. The animals that find shelter and nourishment in the immense forests of Canada, and which indeed traverse the uncultivated parts of all this continent, are stags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, ferrets, weasels, squirrels of a large size and greyish hue, hares, and rabbits. The southern parts in particular breed great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a small size, divers sorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marshes, lakes, and pools, which in this country are very numerous, swarm with otters, beavers or castors, of which the white are highly valued, being scarce, as well as the right black kind. The American beaver, though resembling the creature known in Europe by that name, has many particulars which render it the most curious animal we are acquainted with. It is near four feet in length, and weighs sixty or seventy pounds; they live from fifteen to twenty years, and the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped, that continues not long at a time in the water, but yet cannot live without frequently bathing in it. The savages, who wage a continual war with this animal, believe it to be a rational creature, that it lived in society, and was governed by a leader, resembling their own sachem, or prince.—It must indeed be allowed, that the curious accounts given of this animal by ingenious travellers, the manner in which it contrives its habitation, provides food to serve during the winter, and always in proportion to the continuance and severity of it, are sufficient to show the near approaches of instinct to reason, and even in some instances the superiority of the former. Their colours are different; black, brown, white, yellow, and straw colour: but it is observed, that the lighter their colour, the less quantity of fur they are clothed with, and live in warmer climates. The furs of the beaver are of two kinds, the dry and the green; the dry fur is the skin before it is applied to any use; the green are the furs that are worn, after being sewed to one another, by the Indians, who besmear them with unctuous substances, which not only render them more pliable, but give the fine down that is manufactured into hats, that oily quality which renders it proper to be worked up with the dry fur. Both the Dutch and English have of late found the secret of making excellent cloths, gloves, and stockings, as well as hats, from the beaver fur. Besides the fur, this useful animal produces the true castoreum, which is contained in bags in the lower part of the belly, different from the testicles: the value of this drug is well known. The flesh of the beaver is a most delicious food, but when boiled it has a disagreeable relish.

The musk rat is a diminutive kind of beaver (weighing about five or

six pounds), which it resembles in every thing but its tail; and affords a very strong musk.

The elk is of the size of a horse or mule. Its flesh is very agreeable and nourishing, and its colour a mixture of light grey and dark red. They love the cold countries: and when the winter affords them no grass, they gnaw the bark of trees. It is dangerous to approach very near this animal when he is hunted, as he sometimes springs furiously on his pursuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the hunter throws his clothes to him, and while the deluded animal spends his fury on these, he takes proper measures to dispatch him.

There is a carnivorous animal here, called the carcajou, of the feline or cat kind, with a tail so long, that Charlevoix says he twisted it several times round his body. Its body is about two feet in length, from the end of the snout to the tail. It is said, that this animal, winding himself about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, with his strong tail round his body, and tear his throat open in a moment.

The buffalo is a kind of wild ox, of much the same appearance with those of Europe: his body is covered with a black wool, which is highly esteemed. The flesh of the female is very good; and the buffalo hides are as soft and pliable as chamois leather, but so very strong, that the bucklers which the Indians make of them are hardly penetrable by a musket ball. The Canadian roebuck is a domestic animal, but differs in no other respect from those of Europe. Wolves are scarce in Canada, but they afford the finest furs in all the country. Their flesh is white, and good to eat; they pursue their prey to the tops of the tallest trees. The black foxes are greatly esteemed, and very scarce; but those of other colours are more common: and some on the Upper Mississippi are of a silver colour, and very beautiful. They live upon water fowls, which they decoy within their clutches by a thousand antic tricks, and then spring upon and devour them. The Canadian pole-cat has a most beautiful white fur, except the tip of his tail, which is as black as jet. Nature has given this animal no defence but its urine, the smell of which is nauseous and intolerable; this, when attacked, it sprinkles plentifully on its tail, and throws it on the assailant. The Canadian wood-rat is of a beautiful silver colour, with a bushy tail, and twice as big as the European; the female carries under her belly a bag, which she opens and shuts at pleasure; and in that she places her young when pursued. Here are three sorts of squirrels; that called the flying squirrel will leap forty paces and more, from one tree to another. This little animal is easily tamed, and is very lively. The Canadian porcupine is less than a middling dog; when roasted, he eats full as well as a sucking pig. The hares and rabbits differ little from those in Europe, only they turn grey in winter. There are two sorts of bears here, one of a reddish, and the other of a black colour; but the former is the most dangerous. The bear is not naturally fierce, unless when wounded or oppressed with hunger. They run themselves very poor in the month of July, when it is somewhat dangerous to meet them: during the winter they remain in a kind of torpid state. Scarcely any thing among the Indians is undertaken with greater solemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed several in one day, is more eagerly sought after, than that of one who has rendered himself famous in war. The reason is, because the chase supplies the family with both food and raiment.

Of the feathered creation they have eagles, falcons, goshawks, ter-

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cols, partridges, grey, red, and black, with long tails, which they spread out as a fan, and make a very beautiful appearance. Woodcocks are scarce in Canada, but snipes, and other water game, are plentiful. A Canadian raven is said by some writers to eat as well as a pullet, and an owl better. Here are black-birds, swallows, and larks; no less than twenty-two different species of ducks, and a great number of swans, turkeys, geese, bustards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large water-fowl; but always at a distance from houses. The Canadian wood-pecker is a beautiful bird. Thrushes and goldfinches are found here; but the chief Canadian bird of melody is the white-bird, which is a kind of ortolan, very showy, and remarkable for announcing the return of spring. The fly-bird, or humming-bird, is thought to be the most beautiful of any in nature; with all his plumage, he is no bigger than a cock-chaffer, and he makes a noise with his wings like the humming of a large fly.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattle-snake chiefly deserves attention. Some of these are as big as a man's leg, and they are long in proportion. What is most remarkable in this animal is the tail, which is scaly like a coat of mail, and on which it is said there grows every year one ring or row of scales; so that its age may be known by its tail, as we know that of a horse by its teeth. In moving, it makes a rattling noise, from which it takes its name. The bite of this serpent is mortal, if a remedy is not applied immediately. In all places where this dangerous reptile is bred, there grows a plant, which is called rattle-snake herb, the root of which (such is the goodness of Providence) is a certain antidote against the venom of this serpent, and that with the most simple preparation; for it requires only to be pounded or chewed, and applied like a plaster to the wound. The rattle-snake seldom bites passengers, unless it is provoked; and never darts itself at any person without first rattling three times with its tail. When pursued, if it has but a little time to recover, it folds itself round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itself with great fury and violence against its pursuers; nevertheless, the savages chase it, and find its flesh very good: it also possesses medicinal qualities.

Some writers are of opinion that the fisheries in Canada, if properly improved, would be more likely to enrich that country than even the fur trade. The river St. Laurence contains perhaps the greatest variety of fish of any in the world, and these in the greatest plenty and of the best sorts.

Besides a great variety of other fish in the rivers and lakes, are sea-wolves, sea-cows, porpoises, the lencornet, the goberque, the sea plaife; salmon, trout, turtle, lobsters, the chaourafon, sturgeon, the achigau; the gilthead, tunny, shad, lamprey, smelts, conger-eels, mackarel, soals, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards. The sea-wolf, so called from its howling, is an amphibious creature; the largest are said to weigh two thousand pounds; their flesh is good eating; but the profit of it lies in the oil, which is proper for burning and currying of leather; their skins make excellent coverings for trunks, and though not so fine as Morocco leather, they preserve their freshness better, and are less liable to cracks. The shoes and boots made of those skins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, make excellent and lasting covers for seats. The Canadian sea-cow is larger than the sea-wolf, but resembles it in figure: it has two-teeth of the thickness and length of a man's arm, that, when grown, look like horns, and are very fine ivory, as well as its other teeth. Some of the porpoises of the river St. Laurence are said to

yield a hoghead of oil; and of their skins waistcoats are made, which are excessively strong, and musket proof. The leucorhynchus is a kind of cuttle fish, quite round, or rather oval; there are three sorts of them, which differ only in size; some being as large as a hoghead, and others but a foot long; they catch only the last, and that with a torch; they are excellent eating. The gobouque has the taste and smell of a small cod. The sea-plaife is good eating; they are taken with long poles armed with iron hooks. The chaourafon is an armed fish, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, resembling a pike; it is covered with scales that are proof against a dagger; its colour is a silver grey; and there grows under its mouth a long bony substance, ragged at the edges. One may easily conceive, that an animal so well fortified is a ravager among the inhabitants of the water; but we have few instances of fish making prey of the feathered creation, which this fish does, however, with much art. He conceals himself among the canes and reeds, in such a manner that nothing is to be seen besides his weapon, which he holds raised perpendicularly above the surface of the water; the fowls which come to take rest, imagining the weapon to be only a withered reed, perch upon it; but they are no sooner alighted, than the fish opens its throat, and makes such a sudden motion to seize his prey, that it seldom escapes him. This fish is an inhabitant of the lakes. The sturgeon is both a fresh and salt-water fish, taken on the coast of Canada and the lakes, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick. There is a small kind of sturgeon, the flesh of which is very tender and delicate. The achigau, and the gilthead, are fish peculiar to the river St. Laurence. Some of the rivers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs but little from those of the Nile.

[INHABITANTS AND PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Before the late war, the banks of the river St. Laurence, above Quebec, were vastly populous; but we cannot precisely determine the number of French and English settled in this province, who are undoubtedly upon the increase. In the year 1783 Canada and Labrador were supposed to contain about 130,000 inhabitants*. The different tribes of Indians in Canada are almost innumerable; but these people are observed to decrease in population where the Europeans are most numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate use of spirituous liquors, of which they are excessively fond. But as liberty is the ruling passion of the Indians, we may naturally suppose, that as the Europeans advance, the former will retreat to more distant regions.

Quebec, the capital, not only of this province, but of all Canada, is situated at the confluence of the rivers St. Laurence and St. Charles, or the Little River, about 320 miles from the sea. It is built on a rock, partly of marble, and partly of slate. The town is divided into an upper and a lower; the houses in both are of stone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are strong, though not regular. The town is covered with a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor resides. The number of inhabitants have been computed at 12 or 15,000. The river, which from the sea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all on a sudden to about a mile wide. The haven, which lies opposite the town, is safe and commodious, and about five fathoms deep. The harbour is flanked by two bastions, that are raised

* In 1784, general Haldimand ordered a census of the inhabitants to be taken, when they amounted to 113,012 English and French, exclusive of 10,000 loyalists, settled in the upper parts of the province.

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2½ feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montréal, which is about 170 miles, in sailing up the river St. Laurence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landscapes, the banks being in many places very bold and steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty close all the way; several gentlemen's houses, neatly built, show themselves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flourishing colony; but there are few towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well settled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters live wholly within themselves. Many beautiful islands are interspersed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After passing the Richelieu islands, the air becomes so mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himself transported to another climate; but this is to be understood of the summer months.

The town called Trois Rivières, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montréal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the river St. Laurence. It is much resorted to by several nations of Indians, who, by means of these rivers, come hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and skins. The country is pleasant, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handsome houses stand on both sides of the rivers.

Montréal stands on an island in the river St. Laurence, which is ten leagues in length and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the south shore. While the French had possession of Canada, both the city and island of Montréal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them so well, that the whole island was become a most delightful spot, and produced every thing that could administer to the conveniences of life. The city forms an oblong square, divided by regular and well-formed streets; and when it fell into the hands of the English, the houses were built in a very handsome manner; and every house might be seen at one view from the harbour, or from the southernmost side of the river, as the hill, on the side of which the town stands, falls gradually to the water. This place is surrounded with a wall and a dry ditch; and its fortifications have been much improved by the English. Montréal is nearly as large as Quebec; but since it fell into the hands of the English it has suffered much by fires.

GOVERNMENT.] Before the late war, the French lived in affluence, being free from all taxes, and having full liberty to hunt, fish, fell timber, and to sow and plant as much land as they could cultivate. By the capitulation granted to the French, when this country was reduced, both individuals and communities were entitled to all their former rights and privileges.

In the year 1774, an act was passed by the parliament of Great Britain, for making more effectual provision for the government of the province of Quebec. By this it was enacted, that it should be lawful for his majesty, his heirs, and successors, by warrant under his or their signet or sign manual, and with the advice of the privy-council, to constitute and appoint a council for the affairs of the province of Quebec, to consist of such persons resident there, not exceeding twenty-three, nor less than seventeen, as his majesty, his heirs, and successors, shall be pleased to appoint; and upon the death, removal, or absence of any of the members of the said council, in like manner to constitute and

appoint others to succeed them. And this council, so appointed and nominated, or the majority of them, are vested with power and authority to make ordinances for the peace, welfare, and good government of the province, with the consent of the governor, or, in his absence, of the lieutenant-governor, or commander in chief for the time being. The council, however, are not empowered to lay taxes, except for the purpose of making roads, reparation of public buildings, or such local conveniences. By this act, all matters of controversy relative to property and civil rights are to be determined by the French laws of Canada; but the criminal law of England is to be continued in the province. The inhabitants of Canada are also allowed by this act not only to profess the Romish religion, but the popish clergy are invested with a right to claim and obtain their accustomed dues from those of the same religion.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] The nature of the climate, severely cold in winter, and the people manufacturing nothing, shows what Canada principally wants from Europe: wine, or rather rum, cloths, chiefly coarse linen, and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, tobacco, a sort of duffil blankets, guns, powder, balls, and flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds.

While this country was possessed by the French, the Indians supplied them with peltry; and the French had traders, who, in the manner of the original inhabitants, traversed the vast lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible industry and patience, carrying their goods into the remotest parts of America, and amongst nations entirely unknown to us. These again brought the market home to them, as the Indians were thereby habituated to trade with them. For this purpose, people from all parts, even from the distance of 1000 miles, came to the French fair at Montréal, which began in June, and sometimes lasted three months. On this occasion, many solemnities were observed, guards were placed, and the governors assisted, to preserve order, in such a concourse, and so great a variety of savage nations. But sometimes great disorder and tumults happened; and the Indians, being so fond of brandy, frequently gave for a dram all that they were possessed of. It is remarkable that many of these nations actually passed by our settlement of Albany, in New York, and travelled 250 miles farther, to Montréal, though they might have purchased the goods cheaper at the former. So much did the French exceed us in the arts of winning the affections of these savages.

Since we became possessed of Canada, our trade with that country has been computed to employ about 60 ships and 1000 seamen. Their exports, at an average of three years, in skins, furs, ginseng, snake-root, capillaire, and wheat, amount to 105,500*l*. Their imports from Great Britain, in a variety of articles, are computed at nearly the same sum. It is unnecessary to make any remarks on the value and importance of this trade, which not only supplies us with unmanufactured materials, indispensably necessary in many articles of our commerce, but also takes in exchange the manufactures of our own country, or the productions of our other settlements in the East and West Indies*.

But whatever attention be paid to the trade and peopling of Canada, it will be hardly possible to overcome certain inconveniences, proceeding from natural causes; principally the severity of the winter, which

* The amount of the exports from this province in the year 1786 was £.343,263. Amount of imports the same year was £.325,116.

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is so excessive from December to April, that the greatest rivers are frozen over; and the snow lies commonly from four to six feet deep on the ground, even in those parts of the country which lie three degrees south of London, and in the temperate latitude of Paris. Another inconvenience arises from the falls in the river St. Laurence, below Montréal, which render it difficult for very large ships to penetrate to that emporium of inland commerce; but vessels from 300 to 400 tons are not prevented by these falls from going there annually.

[HISTORY.] See the general account of America.

NOVA SCOTIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 350 } Breadth 250 }	between	{ 43 and 49 north latitude { 60 and 67 west longitude	} 57,000

[BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the river St. Laurence on the North; by the Gulf of St. Laurence, and the Atlantic Ocean, East; by the same ocean, South; and by Canada and New England, West. In the year 1784, this province was divided into *two governments*: the province and government now styled NEW BRUNSWICK, is bounded on the westward of the river Ste. Croix, by the said river to its source, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the southern boundary of the province of Quebec, to the northward by the same boundary as far as the western extremity of the Bay de Chaleurs, to the Eastward by the said bay to the Gulf of St. Laurence to the bay called Bay Verte, to the south by a line in the centre of the Bay of Fundy, from the river Ste. Croix aforesaid, to the mouth of the Musquat River, by the said river to its source, and from thence by a due line across the isthmus into the Bay Verte, to join the eastern lot above described, including all islands within six leagues of the coast.

[RIVERS.] The river of St. Laurence forms the northern boundary. The rivers Rigouche and Nipisquit run from West to East, and fall into the Bay of St. Laurence. The rivers of St. John, Passamagnadi, Penobscot, and Ste. Croix, which run from North to South, fall into Fundy Bay, or the sea a little to the eastward of it.

[SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] The seas adjoining to it are, the Atlantic Ocean, Fundy Bay, and the Gulf of St. Laurence. The lesser bays are Chenigto and Green Bay upon the isthmus, which join the north part of Nova Scotia to the south; and the bay of Chaleurs on the north-east; the bay of Chedibusto on the south-east; the bay of the islands, the ports of Bart, Chebucto, Prosper, St. Margaret, La Heve, port Malrois, port Rossignol, port Vert, and port Joly, on the south; port La Tour, on the south-east; port St. Mary, Annapolis, and Minas, on the south side of Fundy Bay, and port Roseway, now the most populous of all.

The chief capes are, Cape Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, Cape Port, and Epis, on the East; Cape Forgeri, and Cape Canceau, on the south-east; Cape Blanco, Cape Vert, Cape Theodore, Cape Dore, Cape

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La Heve, and Cape Negro, on the south; Cape Sable and Cape Fourche on the south-west.

LAKES.] The lakes are very numerous, but have not yet received particular names.

CLIMATE.] The climate of this country, though within the temperate zone, has been found rather unfavourable to European constitutions. They are wrapped up in the gloom of a fog during great part of the year, and for four or five months it is intensely cold; but though the cold in winter and the heat in summer are great, they come on gradually, so as to prepare the body for enduring both.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] From such an unfavourable climate little can be expected. Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, till lately, was almost a continued forest; and agriculture, though attempted by the English settlers, made little progress. In most parts, the soil is thin and barren, the corn it produces is of a shrivelled kind, like rye, and the grass intermixed with a cold spongy moss. However, it is not uniformly bad; there are tracts in the peninsula to the southward, which do not yield to the best land in New England; and by the industry and exertions of the loyalists from the other provinces, are now cultivated, and likely to be fertile and flourishing. In general, the soil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is extremely proper for ship-building, and produces pitch and tar. Flattering accounts have been given of the improvements making in the new settlements and Bay of Fundy. A great quantity of land has been cleared, which abounds in timber; and ship-loads of good masts and spars have been shipped from thence already.

ANIMALS.] This country is not deficient in the animal productions of the neighbouring provinces, particularly deer, beavers, and otters. Wild fowl and all manner of game, and many kind of European fowls and quadrupeds have, from time to time, been brought into it, and thrive well. At the close of March, the fish begin to spawn, when they enter the rivers in such shoals, as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and the sturgeon and salmon in May. But the most valuable appendage of New Scotland is the Cape Sable coast, along which is one continued range of cod fishing-banks, navigable rivers, basons, and excellent harbours.

HISTORY, SETTLEMENT, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE.} Notwithstanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was here that some of the first European settlements were made. The first grant of lands in it was given by James I. to his secretary, sir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Since then, it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the English nation, backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the English, till the peace of Utrecht; and their design in acquiring it does not seem to have so much arisen from any prospect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehension that the French, by possessing this province, might have had it in their power to annoy our other settlements. Upon this principle, 3000 families were transported, in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country. The town they erected is called Halifax, from the earl of that name, to whose wisdom and care we owe this settlement. The town of Halifax stands upon Chebucto Bay, very commodiously situated for the fishery, and has a communication with most parts of the province, either by land carriage, the sea, or navigable rivers, with a fine harbour, where a small squadron of ships of war

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ties during the winter, and in summer puts to sea, under the command of a commodore, for the protection of the fishery. The town has an entrenchment, and is strengthened with forts of timber. The other towns of less note are Annapolis Royal, which stands on the east side of the Bay of Fundy, and though but a small place, was formerly the capital of the province. It has one of the finest harbours in America, capable of containing a thousand vessels at anchor, in the utmost security. St. John's is a new settlement at the mouth of the river of that name, that falls into the Bay of Fundy, on the west side.

Since the conclusion of the American war, the emigration of loyalists to this province from the United States has been very great: by them new towns have been raised, as Shelburne, which extends two miles on the water-side, and is said to contain already 9000 inhabitants. Of the old settlements, the most flourishing and populous are Halifax, and the townships of Windsor, Norton, and Cornwallis, between Halifax and Annapolis. Of the new settlements, the most important are Shelburne, Parr-town, Digby, and New Edinburgh. Large tracts of land have been lately cultivated, and the province is now likely to advance in population and fertility.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

OF the rise, progress, and most remarkable events of that war, between Great Britain and her American colonies, which at length terminated in the establishment of the United States of America, we have already given an account in our view of the principal transactions in the history of Great Britain. It was on the fourth of July, 1776, that the congress published a solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name and by the authority of the inhabitants of the United Colonies of New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; and that, as such, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. They also published articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they assumed the title of "The United States of America;" and by which each of the colonies contracted a reciprocal treaty of alliance and friendship, for their common defence, for the maintenance of their liberties, and for their general and mutual advantage; obliging themselves to assist each other against all violence that might threaten all or any one of them, and to repel in common all the attacks that might be levelled against all or any one of them, on account of religion, sovereignty, commerce, or under any other pretext whatsoever. Each of the colonies reserved to themselves alone the exclusive right of regulating their internal government, and of framing laws in all matters not included in the articles of confederation. But for the more convenient management of the general interest of the United States, it was determined, that delegates

should be annually appointed, in such manner as the legislature of each state should direct, to meet in congress on the first Monday in November of every year, with a power reserved to each state to recall its delegates or any of them at any time within the year, and to send others in their stead for the remainder of the year. No state was to be represented in congress by less than two, nor more than seven members; and no person was capable of being a delegate for more than three years, in any term of six years; nor was any person, being a delegate, capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or any other for his benefit, should receive any salary, fees, or emolument of any kind. In determining questions in the United States in congress assembled, each state was to have one vote, and to abide by the determination of the United States in congress assembled, on all questions submitted to them by the confederation. The articles of the confederation were to be inviolably observed by every state, and the union to be perpetual; nor was any alteration thenceforth to be made in any of them, unless previously agreed to in a congress of the United States, and afterwards confirmed by the legislature of that state. It was on the 30th of January, 1778, that the French king concluded a treaty of amity and commerce with the thirteen United Colonies of America, as independent states. Holland acknowledged them as such April 19, 1782; and, on the 30th of November, 1782, provisional articles were signed at Paris, by the British and American commissioners, in which his Britannic majesty acknowledged the Thirteen Colonies to be free, sovereign, and independent states; and these articles were afterwards ratified by a definitive treaty. Sweden acknowledged them as such, February 5, 1783; Denmark the 25th of February; Spain in March, and Russia in July, 1783.

The following calculations were made from actual measurement of the best maps, by THOMAS HUTCHINS, Esq. Geographer to the United States.

The territory of the United States contains,	
by computation, a million square miles, in	
which are	640,000,000 of acres.
Deduct for water	51,000,000
Acres of land in the United States	589,000,000

That part of the United States comprehended between the west temporary line of Pennsylvania on the east, the boundary line between Britain and the United States, extending from the river St. Croix to the north-west extremity of the Lake of the Woods, on the north, the river Mississippi to the mouth of the Ohio on the west, and the river Ohio on the south, to the aforementioned bounds of Pennsylvania, contains, by computation, about four hundred and eleven thousand square miles; in which are,

	263,040,000 of acres.
Deduct for water	43,040,000
To be disposed of by order of congress	220,000,000

The whole of this immense extent of unappropriated western territory, containing, as above stated, 220,000,000 of acres, has been, by

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the cession of some of the original thirteen states, and by the treaty of peace, transferred to the federal government, and is pledged as a fund for sinking the continental debt. It is in contemplation to divide it into new states, with republican constitutions, similar to the old states near the Atlantic Ocean.

Estimate of the number of acres of water, north and westward of the river Ohio, within the territory of the United States.

	Acres.
In Lake Superior	21,952,780
Lake of the Woods	1,133,800
Lake Rain, &c.	165,200
Red Lake	551,000
Lake Michigan	10,368,000
Bay Puan	1,216,000
Lake Huron	5,009,920
Lake St. Clair	89,500
Lake Erie, western part,	2,252,800
Sundry small lakes and rivers	301,000
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	43,040,000

Estimate of the number of acres of water within the Thirteen United States.

In Lake Erie, westward of the line extended from the north-west corner of Pennsylvania, due north, to the boundary between the British territory and the United States	Acres. 410,000
In Lake Ontario	2,390,000
Lake Champlain	500,000
Chesapeak Bay	1,700,000
Albemarle Bay	330,000
Delaware Bay	630,000
All the rivers within the Thirteen States, including the Ohio,	2,000,000
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	7,960,000
Total	<hr/> 51,000,000

POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES.] According to the census taken by order of Congress, in 1790, the number of the inhabitants of the United States of America was 3,930,000 nearly. In this number none of the inhabitants of the territory N. W. of the river Ohio, and but a part of the inhabitants south of the river Ohio, are included. These added would undoubtedly have increased the number to 3,950,000 * at the period the census was taken. The increase since, on supposition that the inhabitants of the United States double once in twenty years, has been about 600,000, so that now there are probably 4,550,000 souls in the American United States.

* Morfe's American Geography, vol. i. p. 207.

NEW ENGLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 350 } Breadth 140 }	between	{ 41 and 46 north latitude 67 and 74 west longitude	}	87,000

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED on the North by Canada, on the East by Nova Scotia and the Atlantic Ocean; on the South by the Atlantic, and Long-island Sound; and on the West by New York*.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns:
The northern division; } or government.	New Hampshire	Portsmouth.
The middle division	Massachusetts Colony	{ BOSTON, N. lat. 42- 25 W. long. 70-37.
The south division	Rhode-Island, &c.	Newport.
The west division	Connecticut	{ New London. Hartford.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY,] New England is a high, hilly, and in MOUNTAINS, &c. } some parts a mountainous country. The mountains are comparatively small, running nearly north and south, in ridges parallel to each other. Between these ridges flow the great rivers in majestic meanders, receiving the innumerable rivulets and larger streams which proceed from the mountains on each side. To a spectator on the top of a neighbouring mountain, the vales between the ridges, while in a state of nature, exhibit a romantic appearance. They seem an ocean of woods, swelled and depressed in its surface, like that of the great ocean itself.

There are four principal ranges of mountains, passing nearly from north-east to south-west, through New-England. They consist of a multitude of parallel ridges, each having many spurs, deviating from the course of the general range: which spurs are again broken into irregular hilly land. The main ridges terminate, sometimes in high bluff heads, near the sea-coast; and sometimes by a gradual descent in the interior parts of the country. These ranges of mountains are full of lakes, ponds, and springs of water, that give rise to numberless streams of various sizes. No country on the globe is better watered than New England †.

RIVERS.] Their rivers are, 1. Connecticut; 2. Thames; 3. Patuxent; 4. Merimac; 5. Piscataway; 6. Saco; 7. Casco; 8. Kennebeque; and, 9. Penobscot, or Pentagonet.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The most remarkable bays and harbours are those formed by Plymouth, Rhode Island, and Providence Plantations;

* Morse's American Geography.

† Morse.

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Monument Bay; West Harbour, formed by the bending of Cape Cod; Boston Harbour; Piscataway; and Casco Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape Cod, Marble Head, Cape Anne, Cape Netic, Cape Porpus, Cape Elizabeth, and Cape Small Point.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] New England, though situated almost ten degrees nearer the sun than the mother country, has an earlier winter, which continues longer, and is more severe than with us. The summer is extremely hot, and much beyond any thing known in Europe, in the same latitude. The clear and serene temperature of the sky, however, makes amends for the extremity of heat and cold, and renders the climate of this country so healthy, that it is reported to agree better with British constitutions, than any other of the American provinces. The winds are very boisterous in the winter season, and naturalists ascribe the early approach, and the length and severity of the winter, to the large fresh water lakes lying to the north-west of New England, which being frozen over several months, occasion those piercing winds which prove so fatal to mariners on this coast.

The sun rises at Boston, on the longest day, at twenty-six minutes after four in the morning, and sets at thirty-four minutes after seven in the evening, and on the shortest day, it rises at thirty-five minutes after seven in the morning, sets at twenty-seven minutes after four in the afternoon: thus their longest day is about fifteen hours, and the shortest about nine.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] We have already observed, that the lands lying on the eastern shore of America are low, and in some parts swampy, but farther back they rise into hills. In New England, towards the north-east, the lands become rocky and mountainous. The soil here is various, but best as you approach the southward. Round Massachusetts Bay the soil is black, and rich as in any part of England; and here the first planters found the grass above a yard high. The uplands are less fruitful, being for the most part a mixture of sand and gravel, inclining to clay. The low grounds abound in meadows and pasture land. The European grains have not been cultivated here with much success; the wheat is subject to be blasted; the barley is a hungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy. But the Indian corn flourishes in high perfection; and makes the general food of the lower sort of people. They have likewise malt, and brew it into a beer, which is not contemptible. However, the common table drink is cider and spruce beer: the latter is made of the tops of the spruce fir, with the addition of a small quantity of melasses. They likewise raise in New England a large quantity of hemp and flax. The fruits of Old England come to great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples. Seven or eight hundred fine peaches may be found on one tree, and a single apple-tree has produced seven barrels of cider in one season.

But New England is chiefly distinguished for the variety and value of its timber, as oak, ash, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypress, beech, walnut, chestnut, hazel, sassafras, sumach, and other woods used in dying or tanning leather, carpenters' work, and ship building. The oaks here are said to be inferior to those of England; but the firs are of an amazing bulk, and formerly furnished the royal navy of England with masts and yards. They draw from their trees considerable quantities of pitch, tar, resin, turpentine, gums, and balm; and the soil produces hemp and flax. A ship may here be built and rigged out with the produce of

their forests, and indeed ship-building forms a considerable branch of their trade.

METALS.] Rich mines of iron, of a most excellent kind and temper, have been discovered in New England, which, if improved, may become very beneficial to the inhabitants.

ANIMALS.] The animals of this country furnish many articles of New England commerce. All kinds of European cattle thrive here, and multiply exceedingly; the horses of New England are hardy, mettlesome, and serviceable, but smaller than ours, though larger than the Welch. They have few sheep; and the wool, though of a staple sufficiently long, is not nearly so fine as that of England. Here are also elks, deer, hares, rabbits, squirrels, beavers, otters, monkeys, minxes, martens, racoons, sabbes, bears, wolves, which are only a kind of wild dogs, foxes, ounces, and a variety of other tame and wild quadrupeds. But one of the most singular animals, of this and the neighbouring countries, is the moose and moose deer, of which there are two sorts; the common light grey moose, which resembles the ordinary deer; these herd sometimes thirty together; and the larger black moose, whose body is about the size of a bull; his neck resembles a stag's, and his flesh is extremely grateful. The horns, when full grown, are about four or five feet from the head to the tip, and have shoots or branches to each horn, which generally spread about six feet. When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays his horns back on his neck, to place them out of his way: and these prodigious horns are shed every year. This animal does not spring or rise in going, like a deer; but a large one, in his common walk, has been seen to step over a gate five feet high. When unharboured, he will run a course of twenty or thirty miles before he takes to bay; but when chased, he generally rakes to the water.

There is hardly any where greater plenty of fowls, turkeys, geese, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, swans, heathcocks, herons, storks, black-birds, all sorts of barn-door fowl, vast flights of pigeons, which come and go at certain seasons of the year, cormorants, ravens, crows, &c. The reptiles are rattle-snakes, frogs, and toads, which swarm in the uncleared parts of these countries, where, with the owls, they make a most hideous noise in the summer evenings.

The seas round New England, as well as its rivers, abound with fish, and even whales of several kinds, such as the whalebone whale, the spermaceti whale which yields ambergrise, the fin-backed whale, the scrag whale, and the bunch whale, of which they take great numbers, and send besides some ships every year to fish for whales in Greenland, and as far as Falkland islands. A terrible creature, called the whale-killer, from twenty to thirty feet long, with strong teeth and jaws, persecutes the whale in these seas: but, afraid of his monstrous strength, they seldom attack a full grown whale, or indeed a young one, but in companies of ten or twelve. At the mouth of the river Penobscot, there is a mackarel fishery; they likewise fish for cod in the winter, which they dry in the frost.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, AND } There is not one of the colonies which can be compared, in
FACE OF THE COUNTRY. }
 the abundance of the people, the number of considerable and trading towns, and the manufactures that are carried on in them, to New England. The most populous and flourishing parts of the mother country hardly make a better appearance than the cultivated parts of this pro-

vince which reach about 60 miles back. There are here many gentlemen of considerable landed estates; but the great body of the people are landholders, and cultivators of the soil. The former attaches them to their country; the latter, by making them strong and healthy, enables them to defend it*. These freeholds generally pass to their children in the way of gavelkind; which keeps them from being hardly ever able to emerge out of their original happy mediocrity. In no part of the world are the ordinary sort so independent, or possess more of the conveniences of life; they are used from their infancy to the exercise of arms; and before the contest with the mother country, they had a militia which was by no means contemptible; but their military strength is now much more considerable.

The inhabitants of New England are almost universally of English descent; and it is owing to this circumstance, and to the great and general attention that has been paid to education, that the English language has been preserved among them so free of corruption. It is true, that from laziness, inattention, and want of acquaintance with mankind, many of the people in the country have accustomed themselves to use some peculiar phrases, and to pronounce certain words in a flat, drawing manner. Hence foreigners pretend they know a New Englandman from his manner of speaking. But the same may be said with regard to a Pennsylvanian, a Virginian, a Carolinian; for all have some phrases and modes of pronunciation peculiar to themselves, which distinguish them from their neighbours.

The New Englanders are generally tall, stout, and well built. They glory, and perhaps with justice, in possessing that spirit of freedom, which induced their ancestors to leave their native country, and to brave the dangers of the ocean, and the hardships of settling in a wilderness. Their education, laws, and situation, serve to inspire them with high notions of liberty. — In New England, learning is more generally diffused among all ranks of people, than in any other part of the globe; arising from the excellent establishment of schools in every township. A person of mature age, who cannot both read and write, is rarely to be found. By means of this general establishment of schools, the extensive circulation of newspapers (of which not less than 30,000 are printed every week in New England, and sent to almost every town and village in the country), and the consequent spread of learning, every township, throughout this country, is furnished with men capable of conducting the affairs of their town with judgment and discretion †.

New England contains, according to the censers of 1790, 1,009,522 souls, and should any great and sudden emergency require it, could furnish an army of 164,600 men ‡. The inhabitants of Massachusetts Bay are estimated at 378,787.

Connecticut is said, in proportion to its extent, to exceed every other colony of British America, as well in the abundance of people as cultivation of soil. In 1790 the population amounted to 237,946, of whom 2,764 were slaves. The men, in general, throughout the province, are robust, stout, and tall. The greatest care is taken of the limbs and bodies of infants, which are kept straight by means of a board; a practice learned of the Indian women, who abhor all crooked people; so that deformity is here a rarity. The women are fair, handsome, and genteel; and modest and reserved in their manners and

* Morfe's American Geography. † Morfe's American Geography. ‡ Morfe.

behaviour. The inhabitants of Connecticut are extremely hospitable to strangers.

New Hampshire, of late years, has greatly increased in population: the number of inhabitants in 1790 was reckoned to amount to 141,385; and of Rhode Island province to 67,877.

RELIGION.] Calvinism, from the principles of the first settlers, has been very prevalent in New England: many of the inhabitants also formerly observed the sabbath with a kind of Jewish rigour; but this hath of late been much diminished. There is at present no established religion in New England; but every sect of Christians is allowed the free exercise of its religion, and is equally under the protection of the law*. They annually celebrate fasts and thanksgivings. In the spring, the several governors issue their proclamations, appointing a day to be religiously observed in fasting, humiliation, and prayer, throughout their respective states, in which the predominating vices, that particularly call for humiliation, are enumerated. In autumn, after harvest, that gladsome æra of the husbandman's life, a day of public thanksgiving is appointed, enumerating the public blessings received in the course of the year. This pious custom originates with their venerable ancestors, the first settlers. The custom so rational, and so well calculated to cherish in the minds of the people a sense of their dependance on the GREAT BENEFACTOR of the world for all their blessings, it is hoped, will ever be sacredly preserved †. The Connecticut province has lately provided a bishop for the episcopals among them, by sending one of their number to Scotland to be ordained by the nonjuring bishops of the episcopal church in that kingdom.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Boston, the capital of New England, stands on a peninsula at the bottom of Massachusetts Bay, about nine miles from its mouth. At the entrance of this bay are several rocks, which appear above water, and upwards of a dozen small islands, some of which are inhabited. There is but one safe channel to approach the harbour, and that so narrow, that two ships can scarcely sail through abreast; but within the harbour there is room for 500 sail to lie at anchor, in a good depth of water. On one of the islands of the bay, stands Fort William, the most regular fortress in all the plantations. This castle is defended by 100 guns, twenty of which lie on a platform level with the water, so that it is scarcely possible for an enemy to pass the castle. To prevent surprize, they have a guard placed on one of the rocks, at two leagues distance, from whence they make signals to the castle when any ships come near it. There is also a battery of guns at each end of the town. At the bottom of the bay is a noble pier, near 2000 feet in length; along which, on the north side, extends a row of warehouses for the merchants, and to this pier ships of the greatest burden may come and unload, without the help of boats. The greatest part of the town lies round the harbour, in the shape of a half moon; the country beyond it rising gradually, and affording a delightful prospect from the sea. The head of the pier joins the principal street of the town, which is, like most of the others, spacious and well built. The trade of Boston was so considerable in the year 1768, that 1200 sail entered or cleared at the custom-house there.

Cambridge, in the same province, four miles from Boston, has a university, containing two spacious colleges, called by the names of Harvard

* By a late account, there are 400 Independent and Presbyterian churches in this province, 84 Baptist, and 31 of other denominations.

† Morse's American Geography.

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College, and Stoughton Hall, with a well-furnished library. It consists of a president, five fellows, a treasurer, three professors, four tutors, and a librarian. The college charter was first granted in 1650, and renewed in 1692, and is held under the colony seal.

The other towns in New England, the chief of which have already been mentioned, are generally neat, well built, and commodiously situated upon fine rivers, with capacious harbours.

[COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] New England has no one staple commodity. The ocean and the forests afford the two principal articles of export; and therefore the trade is great, as it supplies a large quantity of goods from within itself; but it is yet greater, as the people in this country are in a manner the carriers for all the colonies of North America, and to the West Indies, and even for some parts of Europe. The commodities which the country yields are principally pig and iron, which were imported to Great Britain duty free: also masts and yards, pitch, tar, and turpentine, for which they contracted largely with the royal navy; pot and pearl-ashes, staves, lumber, boards; all sorts of provisions, which they sent to the French and Dutch sugar islands, and formerly to Barbadoes, and the other British isles, as grain, biscuit, meal, beef, pork, butter, cheese, apples, cider, onions, mackarel, and cod-fish dried. They likewise sent thither cattle, horses, planks, hoops, shingles, pipe-staves, oil, tallow, turpentine, bark, calf-skins, and tobacco. Their eltry trade is not very considerable. They have a most valuable fishery upon their coasts in mackarel and cod, which employs vast numbers of their people; with the produce of which they trade to Spain, Italy, the Mediterranean, and the West Indies, to a considerable amount. Their whale fishery has been already mentioned. The arts most necessary to subsistence are those which the inhabitants of New England have been at the greatest pains to cultivate. They manufacture coarse linen and woollen cloth for their own use; hats are made here, which find a good vent in all the other colonies. Sugar-baking, distilling, paper-making, and salt-works, are upon the improving hand. The business of ship-building is one of the most considerable which Boston, Newbury, or the other sea-port towns in New England carry on. Ships are sometimes built here upon commission; but frequently the merchants of New England have them constructed upon their own account; and loading them with the produce of the colony, naval stores, fish, and fish-oil principally, they send them upon a trading voyage to Spain, Portugal, or the Mediterranean: where, having disposed of their cargo, they make what advantage they can by freight, until such time as they can sell the vessel herself to advantage, which they seldom fail to do in a reasonable time.

It was computed, that, before the late unhappy differences arose, the amount of English manufactures, and India goods sent into this colony from Great Britain, was not less, at an average of three years, than 395,000*l*. Our imports from the same were calculated at 370,500*l*.

[HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] New England is at present divided into the four provinces of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. As early as 1606, King James I. had by letters patent erected two companies, with a power to send colonies into those parts, then comprehended under the general name of Virginia, as all the north-east coast of America was sometimes called. No settlements, however, were made in New England by virtue of this authority. The companies contented themselves with sending out a ship or two, to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fish upon their coast.

This continued to be the only sort of correspondence between Great Britain and this part of America, till the year 1620. By this time the religious dissensions, by which England was torn to pieces, had become warm and furious. Archbishop Laud persecuted all sorts of non-conformists with an unrelenting severity. Those men, on the other hand, were ready to submit to all the rigour of persecution rather than give up their religious opinions, and conform to the ceremonies of the church of England, which they considered as abuses of the most dangerous tendency. There was no part of the world into which they would not fly, in order to obtain liberty of conscience. America opened an extensive field. Thither they might transport themselves, and establish whatever sort of religious polity they were inclined to. With this view, having purchased the territory, which was within the jurisdiction of the Plymouth company, and having obtained from the king the privilege of settling it in whatever way they chose, 150 persons embarked for New England, and built a city, which, because they had sailed from Plymouth, they called by that name. Notwithstanding the severity of the climate, the unwholesomeness of the air, and the distances to which, after a long sea voyage, and in a country which was new to them, they were exposed; notwithstanding the want of all sorts of conveniences, and even of many of the necessaries of life, those who had constitutions fit to endure such hardships, not dispirited, or broken by the death of their companions, and supported by the vigour then peculiar to Englishmen, and the satisfaction of finding themselves beyond the reach of the spiritual arm, set themselves to cultivate this country, and to take the best steps for the advancement of their infant colony. New adventurers, encouraged by their example, and finding themselves, for the same reasons, uneasy at home, passed over into this land of religious and civil liberty. By the close of the year 1630, they had built four towns, Salem, Dorchester, Charles-town, and Boston, which last has since become the capital of New England. But as necessity is the natural source of that active and frugal industry which produces every thing great among mankind, so an uninterrupted flow of prosperity and success occasions those dissensions which are the bane of human affairs, and often subvert the best founded establishments.

The inhabitants of New England, who had fled from persecution, became in a short time strongly tainted with this illiberal vice, and were eager to introduce an uniformity in religion among all who entered their territories. The minds of men were not in that age superior to many prejudices. They had not that open and generous way of thinking which at present distinguishes the natives of Great Britain; and the doctrine of universal toleration, which, to the honour of the first settlers in America, began to appear among them, had few abettors, and many opponents. Many of them were bigoted Calvinists; and though they had felt the weight of persecution themselves, they had no charity for those who professed sentiments different from their own. It was not the general idea of the age, that men might live comfortably together in the same society, without maintaining the same religious opinions; and whenever these were at variance, the members of different sects kept at a distance from each other, and established separate governments. Hence several slips, torn from the original government of New England by religious violence, planted themselves in a new soil, and spread over the country. Such was that of New Hampshire, which continues to this day a separate jurisdiction; such too was that of Rhode Island, whose inhabitants were driven out from the Massachusetts colony (for that is the name by

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which the government first erected in New England was distinguished) for supporting the freedom of religious sentiments, and maintaining that the civil magistrate had no right over the speculative opinions of mankind. These liberal men founded a city, called Providence, which they governed by their own principles; and, such is the connection between justness of sentiment and external prosperity, that the government of Rhode Island, though small, became extremely populous and flourishing. Another colony, driven out by the same persecuting spirit, settled on the river Connecticut, and received frequent reinforcements from England, of such as were dissatisfied either with the religious or civil government of that country.

America indeed was now become the main resource of all discontented and enterprising spirits; and such were the numbers which embarked for it from England, that in 1637, a proclamation was published, prohibiting any person from sailing thither, without an express licence from the government. For want of this licence, it is said, that Oliver Cromwell, Mr. Hampden, and others of the party, were detained from going into New England, after being on ship-board for that purpose.

These four provinces, though always confederates for their mutual defence, were at first, and still continue, under separate jurisdictions. They were all of them, by their charters, originally free, and in a great measure independent of Great Britain. The inhabitants had the choice of their own magistrates, the governor, the council, the assembly, and the power of making such laws as they thought proper, without sending them to Great Britain for the approbation of the crown. Their laws, however, were not to be opposite to those of Great Britain. Towards the latter end of the reign of Charles II. when he and his ministers wanted to destroy all charters and liberties, the Massachusetts colony was accused of violating their charter, in like manner as the city of London, and by a judgment in the King's Bench of England, was deprived of it. From that time to the revolution, they remained without any charter. Soon after that period, they received a new one, which, though very favourable, was much inferior to the extensive privileges of the former. The appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, was vested in the crown; the power of the militia was wholly in the hands of the governor, as captain-general; all judges, justices, and sheriffs, to whom the execution of the law was entrusted, were nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council: the governor had a negative on the choice of counsellors, peremptory and unlimited; and he was not obliged to give a reason for what he did in this particular, or restrained to any number: authentic copies of the several acts passed by this colony, as well as others, were to be transmitted to the court of England, for the royal approbation; but if the laws of this colony were not repealed within three years after they were presented, they were not repealable by the crown after that time; no laws, ordinances, election of magistrates, or acts of government whatsoever, were valid without the governor's consent in writing; and appeals for sums above 300l. were admitted to the king and council. Notwithstanding these restraints, the people had still a great share of power in this colony; for they not only chose the assembly, but this assembly, with the governor's concurrence, chose the council, resembling our house of lords; and the governor depended upon the assembly for his annual support.

But the government of New England has been entirely changed, in

consequence of the revolt of the colonies from the authority of Great Britain; of the origin and progress of which an account has been given in another place. It was on the 25th of July, 1776, that, by an order from the council at Boston, the declaration of the American Congress, absolving the United Colonies from their allegiance to the British crown, and declaring them free and independent, was publicly proclaimed from the balcony of the state-house in that town.

A constitution, or form of government, for the commonwealth of Massachusetts, including a declaration of rights, was agreed to, and established by the inhabitants of that province, and took place in October, 1780. In the preamble to this it was declared, that the end of the institution, maintenance, and administration of government, is to secure the existence of the body politic: to protect it, and to furnish the individuals who compose it, with the power of enjoying, in safety and tranquillity, their natural rights, and the blessings of life; and that whenever these great objects are not obtained, the people have a right to alter the government, and to take measures necessary for their prosperity and happiness. They expressed their gratitude to the Great Creator of the universe, for having afforded them, in the course of his providence, an opportunity, deliberately and peaceably, without fraud, violence, or surprise, of entering into an original, explicit, and solemn compact with each other; and of forming a new constitution of civil government for themselves and their posterity. They declared that it was the right, as well as the duty, of all men in society, publicly, and at stated seasons, to worship the Supreme Being; and that no subject should be hurt, molested, or restrained in his person, liberty, or estate, for worshipping God in the manner and season most agreeable to the dictates of his own conscience; or for his religious profession or sentiments: provided he did not disturb the public peace, or obstruct others in their religious worship.

It was also enacted, that the several towns, parishes, precincts, and other bodies politic, or religious societies, should, at all times, have the exclusive right of electing their public teachers, and of contracting with them for their support and maintenance. That all monies paid by the subject to the support of public worship, and of the public teachers, should, if he required it, be uniformly applied to the support of the public teacher or teachers of his own religious sect or denomination, provided there were any on whose instructions he attended; otherwise it might be paid towards the support of the teacher or teachers of the parish or precinct in which the said monies should be raised. That every denomination of Christians, demeaning themselves peaceably, and as good subjects of the commonwealth, should be equally under the protection of the law; and that no subordination of any sect or denomination to another should ever be established by law.

It was likewise declared, that as all power resided originally in the people, and was derived from them, the several magistrates and officers of government, vested with authority, whether legislative, executive, or judicial, are their substitutes and agents, and are at all times accountable to them. That no subject should be arrested, or deprived of his property or privileges, but by the judgment of his peers, or the law of the land. That the legislature should not make any law that should subject any person to a capital or infamous punishment, excepting for the government of the army or navy, without trial by jury. That the liberty of the press is essential to the security of free-

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dom in a state; and that it ought not, therefore, to be restrained in that commonwealth. That the people have a right to keep, and bear arms, for the common defence; but that as in times of peace armies are dangerous to liberty, they ought not to be maintained without the consent of the legislature; and that the military power should always be held in an exact subordination to the civil authority.

The legislature of Massachusetts consists of a senate, and a house of representatives; which, together with the governor and lieutenant-governor, are elected annually by the people: electors must be twenty-one years of age, have freeholds of the annual value of three pounds, or personal estate to the value of sixty pounds. To be eligible to the office of governor or lieutenant-governor, the candidate must have resided in the state seven years, and during that time have been seised of a freehold of one thousand pounds. Senators must have resided five years in the state, and have possessed a freehold to the value of three hundred pounds, or personal property to the value of six hundred pounds. A representative must have resided one year in the town which he is chosen to represent, and have been seisin therein of freehold estate to the value of one hundred pounds, or been possessed of personal property to the value of two hundred pounds. From the persons returned as senators and counsellors, being forty in all, nine are annually elected by joint ballot of both houses for the purpose of advising the governor in the execution of his office. All judicial officers, the attorney and solicitor-general, sheriffs, &c. are, with the advice of the council, appointed by the governor. The judges (except justices of the peace, whose commissions expire in seven years, but may be renewed) hold their offices during good behaviour.

The constitution of New Hampshire is not materially different from that of Massachusetts. The supreme executive authority is also vested in a governor and council of *five* members, and the legislative in a senate and house of representatives, which together are here styled "the general court."

The legislatures of Rhode Island and Connecticut are constituted with an upper and lower house. In Rhode Island, the upper house is composed of the governor, deputy-governor, and ten assistants; who, together with the secretary and treasurer, are chosen by the freemen annually. The lower house is composed of deputies from the several towns. All judicial and executive magistrates are appointed by the two houses annually; and all military officers appointed in like manner, but without any precise limitation of time. What has been just said of the constitution of Rhode Island, is applicable to Connecticut. One or two variations in point of name and number constitute the only difference; except that in Rhode Island a freeman elector must have freehold estate of the value of two pounds, or personal of forty pounds. In all these states the government is arranged on the most frugal scale; the salaries of governors and chief justices amounting to no more than three or four hundred pounds per annum; and those of other officers proportionally moderate.

It is worthy of notice, that during the war between Great Britain and the colonies, an act was passed on the 4th of May, 1780, by the council and house of representatives of Massachusetts's Bay, for incorporating and establishing a society for the cultivation and promotion of the arts and sciences. It is entitled, "The American Academy of Arts and Sciences;" the first members were named in the act: and they were never to be more than two hundred, nor less than forty. It was de-

clared in the act, that the end and design of the institution of the said academy, was to promote and encourage the knowledge of the antiquities of America, and of the natural history of the country; and to determine the uses to which its various natural productions might be applied; to promote and encourage medicinal discoveries; mathematical disquisitions; philosophical inquiries and experiments; astronomical, meteorological, and geographical observations; and improvements in agriculture, arts, manufactures, and commerce; and, in short, to cultivate every art and science which might tend to advance the interest, honour, dignity, and happiness, of a free, independent, and virtuous people.

N E W Y O R K .

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length, 50	} between	{ 40 and 45 north latitude.	} 24,000.
Breadth, 300		{ 72 and 76 west longitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] NEW YORK is bounded on the South and South-West by Hudson's and Delaware rivers, which divide it from New Jersey and Pennsylvania; and on the East and North-East by New England and the Atlantic Ocean; and on the North-West by Canada.

This province, including the island of New York, Long Island, and Staten Island, is divided into the twenty-one following counties :

Counties.	Chief Towns.
New York	NEW YORK. { 40-40 N. lat. 74-00 W. long.
Albany	Albany
Ulster	Kingston
Duchess	Poughkeepsie
Orange	Orange
West Chester	Bedford, White plains
King's	Flatbush, Brooklyn
Queen's	Jamaica
Suffolk	East Hampton, Huntingdon
Richmond	Richmond
Washington	Salem
Columbia	Hudson, Kinderhook
Clinton	Platsburg
Montgomery	Johnstown
Ranselaer	Lansinburg
On'aris	Canadaque
Herkemer	German Flats
Ortogo	Cooper's Town
Tyoga	Chemango, Union Town
Saratoga	Saratoga
Onondago	None

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RIVERS.] The principal of these are Hudson's and the Mohawk; the former abounds with excellent harbours, and is well stored with great variety of fish: on this the cities of New York and Albany are situated.

The tide flows a few miles above Albany, which is six hundred miles from New York. It is navigable, for sloops of eighty tons, to Albany, and for ships to Hudson. About sixty miles above New York the water becomes fresh. The river is stored with a variety of fish, which renders a summer passage to Albany delightful and amusing to those who are fond of angling. On the Mohawk is a large cataract, called the Cohoes, the water of which is said to fall thirty feet perpendicular; but, including the descent above, the fall is as much as sixty or seventy feet, where the river is a quarter of a mile in breadth.

CAPIES.] These are Cape May on the east entrance of Delaware river; Sandy Hook, near the entrance of Raritan river; and Montock Point at the east end of Long Island.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This province, lying to the south of New England, enjoys a more happy temperature of climate. The air is very healthy, and agrees well with all constitutions. The face of the country, resembling that of the other British American colonies, is low, flat, and marshy towards the sea. As you recede from the coast, the eye is entertained with the gradual swelling of hills, which become large in proportion as you advance into the country. The soil is extremely fertile, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, barley, flax, and fruits, in great abundance and perfection. The timber is much the same with that of New England. A great deal of iron is found here.

CITIES, POPULATION, AND COMMERCE.] The city of New York stands on the south-west end of York Island, which is twelve miles long, and near three in breadth, extremely well situated for trade, at the mouth of Hudson's river, where it is three miles broad, and proves a noble conveyance from Albany, and many other inland towns towards Canada, and the lakes. This city is in length above a mile, and its mean breadth a quarter of a mile. This city and harbour are defended by a fort and battery: in the fort is a spacious mansion-house, for the use of the governor. Many of the houses are very elegant; and the city, though irregularly built, affords a fine prospect. A fourth part of the city was burnt down by some incendiaries in 1776, on the king's troops taking it. A great part of the inhabitants, reckoned in 1790, at 33,131, are descended from the Dutch families who remained here after the surrender of the New Netherlands to the English, and the whole province in 1790 was numbered at 340,120, of whom 21,324 were slaves*.

The city of Albany contains about 6000 inhabitants, collected from almost all parts of the northern world. As great a variety of languages are spoken in Albany as in any town in the United States. Adventurers in pursuit of wealth are led here by the advantages for trade which this place affords. Situated on one of the finest rivers in the world, at the head of sloop-navigation, surrounded with a rich and extensive back country, and the store-house of the trade to and from Canada and the lakes, it must flourish, and the inhabitants cannot but grow rich.

* Morfe's American Geography.

The city of Hudson, however, is their great rival, and has had the most rapid growth of any place in America, if we except Baltimore in Maryland. It is 130 miles north of New York. It was not begun till the autumn of 1783*.

The situation of New York, with respect to foreign markets, has decidedly the preference to any of the states. It has at all seasons of the year a short and easy access to the ocean. It commands the trade of a great proportion of the best settled and best cultivated parts of the United States. It has been supported by well-informed gentlemen, that more wealth is conveyed down Connecticut river, and through the Sound to New York, than down the Hudson. This is not improbable, as the banks of the Connecticut are more fertile and much thicker, and more extensively settled than the banks of Hudson †. The commodities in which they trade are wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef, and other kinds of animal food. Their markets are the same with those which the New Englanders use; and they have a share in the logwood trade, and that which is carried on with the Spanish and French plantations. They used to take almost the same sort of commodities from England with the inhabitants of Boston. At an average of three years, their exports were said to amount to 526,000l. and their imports from Great Britain to 531,000l.

AGRICULTURE AND MANUFACTURES.] New York is at least half a century behind her neighbours in New England, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, in point of improvement in agriculture and manufactures. Among other reasons for this deficiency, that of want of enterprise in the inhabitants is not the least. Indeed their local advantages are such, that they have grown rich without enterprise. Besides, lands have hitherto been cheap, and farms of course large, and it requires much less ingenuity to raise one thousand bushels of wheat upon sixty acres of land, than to raise the same quantity upon thirty acres. So long, therefore, as the farmer in New York can have sixty acres of land to raise one thousand bushels of wheat, he will never trouble himself to find out how he can raise the same quantity upon half the land. It is population alone that stamps a value upon lands, and lays a foundation for high improvements in agriculture. When a man is obliged to maintain a family upon a small farm, his invention is exercised to find out every improvement that may render it more productive. This appears to be the great reason why the lands on Delaware and Connecticut rivers produce to the farmer twice as much clear profit as lands in equal quantity, and of the same quality upon the Hudson. If the preceding observations be just, improvements will keep pace with population and increasing value of lands.

Improvements in manufactures never precede, but invariably follow improvements in agriculture. This observation applies more particularly to the country. The city of New York contains a great number of people who are employed in the various branches of manufactures, viz. wheel carriages of all kinds, loaf sugar, bread, beer, shoes and boots, sadlery, cabinet-work, cutlery, hats, clocks, watches, mathematical and musical instruments, ships, and every thing necessary for their equipment. A glass work, and several iron works have been established ‡.

* Morfe.

† Morfe.

‡ Morfe's American Geography.

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RELIGION AND LEARNING.] It is ordained by the late constitution of New York, that the free exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and worship, without discrimination or preference, shall forever be allowed within that state to all mankind.

A college was erected at New York, by act of parliament, about the year 1755; but, as the assembly was at that time divided into parties, it was formed on a contracted plan, and has for that reason never met with the encouragement which might naturally be expected for a public seminary in so populous a city. It is now called Columbia College. It has about one hundred students in the four classes, besides medical students.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The Swedes and Dutch were the first Europeans who formed settlements on this part of the American coast. The tract claimed by the two nations extended from the 38th to the 41st degree of latitude, and was called the New Netherlands. It continued in their hands till the time of Charles II. who obtained it from them by right of conquest in 1664; and it was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Breda, 1667. The New Netherlands were not long in our possession before they were divided into different provinces. New York took that name from the king's brother, James duke of York, to whom the king granted it, with full powers of government, by letters patent, dated March 20, 1664. On James's accession to the throne, the right to New York became vested in the crown, and it became a royal government. The king appointed the governor and council; and the people, once in seven years, elected their representatives to serve in general assemblies. These three branches of the legislature (answering to those of Great Britain) had power to make any laws not repugnant to those of England; but, in order to their being valid, the royal assent to them was first to be obtained.

By the constitution of the state of New York, established in 1777, the supreme legislative power is vested in two separate and distinct bodies of men; the one called, "The Assembly of the State of New York," consisting of seventy members, annually chosen by ballot; and the other, "The Senate of the State of New York," consisting of twenty-four, for four years, who together form the legislature, and meet once at least in every year, for the dispatch of business. The supreme executive power is vested in a governor, who continues in office three years, assisted by four counsellors, chosen by and from the senate. Every male inhabitant of full age, who shall possess a freehold of the value of twenty pounds, or have rented a tenement of the yearly value of forty shillings, and been rated and have paid taxes to the state for six months preceding the day of election, is entitled to vote for members of the assembly; but those who vote for the governor, and the members of the senate, are to be possessed of freeholds of the value of one hundred pounds. The delegates to the congress, the judges, &c. are to be chosen by ballot of the senate and assembly.

NEW JERSEY.

		SITUATION AND EXTENT.		
Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles;	
Length 160 } Breadth 50 }	between	{ 39 and 42 north lat. 74 and 76 west long. }	18,000	

BOUNDARIES.] NEW JERSEY is bounded on the West and South-west, by Delaware river and bay; on the South-east and East, by the Atlantic Ocean; and by the Sound, which separates Staten Island from the continent, and Hudson's River, on the North.

Divisions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
East Division contains	Middlesex	{ Perth Amboy and New Brunswick Shrewsbury and Freehold Elizabeth and Newark Boundbrook Hakkenfak
	Monmouth	
	Essex	
	Somerset	
West Division contains	Bergen	{ BURLINGTON { 40-8 N. lat. 75-0 W. long; Woodbury, and Gloucester Salem Hopewell, Bridgetown None Trenton Morristown Newtown
	Burlington	
	Gloucester	
	Salem	
	Cumberland	
	Cape May	
	Hunterdon	
	Morris	
Suffex		

RIVERS.] These are the Delaware, Raritan, and Passaic, on the latter of which is a remarkable cataract; the height of the rock from which the water falls is said to be about seventy feet perpendicular, and the river there eighty yards broad.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate is much the same with that of New York; the soil is various; at least one-fourth part of the province is barren sandy land, producing pines and cedars; the other parts in general are good, and produce wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c. in great perfection.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] According to the present constitution of this province, all persons are allowed to worship God in the manner that is most agreeable to their own consciences; nor is any person obliged to pay tithes, taxes, or any other rates, for the purpose of building or repairing any church or churches, for the maintenance of any minister or ministry, contrary to what he believes to be right, or has deliberately or voluntarily engaged himself to perform. There is to be no establishment of any one religious sect in this province, in preference to another: and no Protestant inhabitants are to be denied the enjoyment of any civil right, merely on account of their religious principles.

A college, called Nassau Hall, was established at the town of Princeton, in this province, by governor Belcher, 1746, which has a power of conferring the same degrees as Oxford or Cambridge. There are generally between eighty and a hundred students here, who come

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from all parts of the continent, some even from the extremities of it. There is another college at Brunswick, called Queen's College, founded a little before the war, and in considerable repute.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, } New Jersey is part of
 CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. } that vast tract of land,
 which, we have observed, was given by king Charles II. to his brother James, duke of York; he sold it, for a valuable consideration, to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret (from which it received its present name, because Sir George had estates in the island of Jersey), and they again to others, who in the year 1702 made a surrender of the powers of government to queen Anne, which she accepted; after which it became a royal government. By an account published in 1790, the number of inhabitants appears to have been about 184,139; of whom 11,423 were blacks*.

Perth-Amboy and Burlington were the seats of government; the governor generally resided in the latter, which is pleasantly situated on the fine river Delaware, within twenty miles of Philadelphia. Both have been lately made free ports for twenty-five years. The former is as good a port as most on the continent; and the harbour is safe, and capacious enough to contain many large ships.—In Bergen county is a very valuable copper-mine.

By the new Charter of Rights, established by the provincial congress, July 2, 1776, the government of New Jersey is vested in a governor, legislative council, and general assembly. The members of the legislative council are to be freeholders, and worth at least one thousand pounds real and personal estate; and the members of the general assembly to be worth five hundred pounds. All the inhabitants worth fifty pounds are entitled to vote for representatives in council and assembly, and for all other public officers. The election of the governor, legislative council, and general assembly, are to be annual; the governor and lieutenant-governor to be chosen out of and by the assembly and council. The judges of the supreme court are chosen for seven years, and the officers of the executive power for five years.

PENNSYLVANIA AND DELAWARE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 300 } Breadth 240 }	between { 74 and 81 west longitude. { 39 and 44 north latitude. }	} 45,000

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the country of the Iroquois, or Five Nations, on the North; by Delaware river, which divides it from the Jerseys, on the East; and by Maryland, on the South and West.

The state of PENNSYLVANIA contains twenty-three counties:

* Morfe's American Geography, vol. i. p. 453.

Counties.	Chief Towns.	} N. lat. 40. W. long. 75-20.
Philadelphia	PHILADELPHIA	
Chester	Chester	
Bucks	Newtown	
Berks	Reading	
Northampton	Easton	
Lancaster	Lancaster	
York	York	
Cumberland	Carlisle	
Montgomery	Norriston	
Dauphin	Louisburg	
Luzerne	Wilkesborough	
Northumberland	Sunbury	
Franklin	Chamberstown	
Huntingdon	Huntingdon	
Westmoreland	Greensburg	
Fayette	Union	
Washington	Washington	
Allegany	Pittsburg	
Delaware	Chester	
Mifflin	Lewiston	
Somerfet	None	
Lycoming	None	

Bedford, a county westward of the mountains upon the Ohio, purchased from the Indians, in 1768, by Mr. Penn, and established in 1771.

The Delaware State is divided into three counties

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Newcastle	Newcastle, Wilmington
Kent and Suffex	Dover
	Lewestown; Milford

which form a distinct state and government, having a governor, senate, and house of representatives. The senators are nine, three from each county; and the representatives twenty-seven. The former must be twenty-seven years old, and the latter twenty-four: and senators must have a freehold of two hundred acres, or real and personal estate to the value of one thousand pounds. The governor is not eligible more than three years in six: In other particulars the constitution of Delaware almost exactly agrees with that of Pennsylvania.

RIVERS.] The rivers are, Delaware, which is navigable more than two hundred miles above Philadelphia. The Susquehanna and Schuylkill are also navigable a considerable way up the country. These rivers, with the numerous bays and creeks in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largest fleets, render this province admirably suited to carry on an inland and foreign trade.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND } The face of the country, air, soil, and produce, do not materially differ from those of New York. If there be any difference, it is in favour of this province. The air is sweet and clear. The winters continue from December till March, and are so extremely cold and severe, that the river Delaware, though very broad, is often frozen over. The

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months of July, August, and September, are almost intolerably hot; but the country is refreshed by frequent cold breezes. It may be remarked, in general, that in all parts of the British plantations, from New York to the southern extremity, the woods are full of wild vines of three or four species, all different from those we have in Europe. But, whether from some fault in their nature, or in the climate, or the soil where they grow, or, what is much more probable, from a fault in the planters, they have yet produced no wine that deserves to be mentioned, though the Indians from them make a sort of wine with which they regale themselves. It may also be observed of the timber of these colonies, that towards the south it is not so good for shipping as that of the more northern provinces. The farther southward you go, the timber becomes less compact, and rives easily; which property, as it renders it less serviceable for ships, makes it more useful for staves.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, SETTLEMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. } This country, under the name of the New Netherlands, was originally possessed by the Dutch and Swedes. When these nations, however, were expelled from New York by the English, admiral Penn, who, in conjunction with Venables, had conquered the island of Jamaica (under the auspices of Cromwell) being in favour with Charles II. obtained a promise of a grant of this country from that monarch. Upon the admiral's death, his son, the celebrated quaker, availed himself of this promise, and, after much court-blotication, obtained the performance of it. Though as an author and a divine, Mr. Penn be little known, but to those of his own persuasion, his reputation, in a character no less respectable, is universal among all civilized nations. The circumstances of the times engaged vast numbers to follow him into his new settlement, to avoid the persecutions to which the quakers, like other sectaries, were then exposed; but it was to his own wisdom and ability, that they are indebted for that charter of privileges which placed this colony on so respectable a footing. Civil and religious liberty, in the utmost latitude, was laid down by that great man, as the chief and only foundation of all his institutions. Christians of all denominations might not only live unmolested, but have a share in the government of the colony. No laws could be made but by the consent of the inhabitants.—Even matters of benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have extended, were by Penn subjected to regulations. The affairs of widows and orphans were to be inquired into by a court constituted for that purpose. The causes between man and man were not to be subjected to the delay and chicanery of the law, but decided by wise and honest arbitrators. His benevolence and generosity extended also to the Indian nations: instead of taking immediate advantage of his patent, he purchased of these people the lands he had obtained by his grant, judging that the original property, and eldest right, was vested in them. William Penn, in short, had he been a native of Greece, would have had his statue placed next to those of Solon and Lycurgus. His laws, founded on the solid basis of equity, still maintain their force; and, as a proof of their effects, it is only necessary to mention, that land was lately granted at twelve pounds an hundred acres, with a quit-rent of four shillings reserved; whereas the terms on which it was formerly granted, were at twenty pounds the thousand acres, with one shilling quit-rent for every hundred. Near Philadelphia, before the commencement of the war with the mother-country, land rented at twenty shillings the acre;

and even at several miles distance from that city, sold at twenty years purchase.

In some years, more people transported themselves into Pennsylvania, than into all the other settlements together. Upon the principal rivers settlements are made, and the country has been cultivated 150 miles above Philadelphia. The inhabitants amounted, in 1790, to 434,373, including 3,737 slaves, or about ten for every square mile; and in the state of Delaware to 59,094, of whom 8,987 were slaves*.

The people are hardy, industrious, and most of them substantial, though but few of the landed people can be considered as rich; but, before the commencement of the civil war, they were all well lodged, well fed, and, for their condition, well clad; and this at the more easy rate, as the inferior people manufactured most of their own wear, both linens and woollens.

This province contains many very considerable towns, such as German-town, Chester, Oxford, Radnor, all of which, in any other colony, would deserve being taken notice of more particularly. But here the city of Philadelphia, which is beautiful beyond any city in America, and in regularity unequalled by any in Europe, totally eclipses the rest, and deserves our chief attention. It was built after the plan of the famous Penn, the founder and legislator of this colony. It is situated about 120 miles from the sea, between two navigable rivers; the Delaware, where it is above a mile in breadth on the east, and the Schylkill on the west, and extends in a line of two miles between them. When the original plan can be fully executed, every quarter of the city will form a square of eight acres, and almost in the centre of it is a square of ten acres, surrounded by the town-house, and other public buildings. The High-street is a hundred feet wide, and runs the whole breadth of the town; parallel to it run nine other streets, which are crossed by twenty-three more at right angles, all of them fifty feet wide, and communicating with the two rivers, which contribute not only to the beauty, but to the wholesomeness of the city. According to the original plan, every man in possession of one thousand acres, in the province, had his house either in one of the fronts facing the rivers, or in the High-street, running from the middle of one front to the middle of the other. Every owner of five thousand acres, besides the above-mentioned privilege, was entitled to have an acre of ground in the front of the house, and all others might have half an acre for gardens and court-yards. The proprietor's seat, which is the usual place of the governor's residence, and is about a mile above the town, is the first private building, both for magnificence and situation, in all British America. The market, and other public buildings, are proportionably grand. The quays are spacious and fine, and the principal quay is 200 feet wide.

There were in this city a great number of very wealthy merchants; which is no way surprising, when we consider the great trade which is carried on with the English, Spanish, French, and Dutch colonies in America; with the Azores, the Canaries, and the Madeira islands; with Great Britain and Ireland; with Spain, Portugal, and Holland. Besides the Indian trade, and the quantity of grain, provisions, and all kinds of the produce of this province, which is brought down the rivers upon which this city is so commodiously situated,

* Moise, vol. i. pages 479, and 503.

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Germans, who are settled in the interior parts of this province, employ several hundred waggons, drawn each by four horses, in bringing the product of their farms to this market. In the year 1749, three hundred and three vessels entered inwards to this port, and two hundred and ninety-one cleared outwards; but in the year 1786, the number of vessels entered at the custom-house was nine hundred and ten.

The commodities formerly exported into Pennsylvania, at an average of three years, amounted to the value of 611,000*l*. Those exported to Great Britain and other markets, besides timber, ships built for sale, copper ore, and iron in pigs and bars, consisted of grain, flour, and many sorts of animal food; and, at an average of three years, were calculated at 705,500*l*. Since the colony's independence, the new duty upon imported goods of two and a half per cent. *ad valorem*, produced from the first of March to the first of December, 1784, 132,000*l*. in Philadelphia, which corresponds to an importation of 3,168,000*l*.

There was an academy established at Philadelphia, which has been greatly encouraged by contributions from England and Scotland, and which, before the civil war broke out, bid fair to become a bright seminary of learning. It is now styled a UNIVERSITY; its funds were partly given by the state, and partly taken from the old college. And, in 1787, a college was founded at Lancaster; and, in honour of Dr. Franklin, called Franklin College.

Besides several other very improving institutions in this city, there is one which deserves a particular notice, which is THE AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY, HELD AT PHILADELPHIA, FOR PROMOTING USEFUL KNOWLEDGE. This society was formed January 2, 1769, by the union of two other literary societies that had subsisted for some time in Philadelphia; and were created one body corporate and politic, with such powers, privileges, and immunities, as are necessary for answering the valuable purposes which the society had originally in view, by a charter granted by the commonwealth of Pennsylvania, on the 15th of March, 1780. This society has already published two very valuable volumes of their transactions, one in 1771, the other in 1786. In 1771, this society consisted of nearly 300 members; and upward of 120 have since been added; a large proportion of whom are foreigners.

It was in Philadelphia that the general congress of America met, in September, 1774; and their meetings continued to be chiefly held there, till the king's troops made themselves masters of that city, on the 26th of September, 1777. But, in June, 1778, the British troops retreated to New York, and Philadelphia again became the residence of the congress.

In 1776, the representatives of the freemen of Pennsylvania met in a general convention at Philadelphia, and agreed upon the plan of a new constitution of government for that colony. According to the actual constitution, the legislative power is administered by a senate and house of representatives; the executive by a governor; and the judiciary by a supreme court, a court of common-pleas, and a court of quarter-sessions of the peace. The legislature and governor are elected by the freemen; the governor for three years; the representatives, and a fourth part of the senate, annually. The number of representatives must not be less than sixty, nor exceed one hundred; nor that of senators less than a fourth, nor greater than a third part of the number of representatives. The electors of the magistrates must have attained the age of twenty-one, have resided in the state two years, and paid taxes. The representatives must have been inhabitants of the state three years, and,

the last year previous to their election, have resided in the county which chooses them. The qualifications of twenty-five years of age, and of four years residence, are required in senators; and the governor must have attained the age of thirty, and have resided in the state seven years; and he is not eligible more than nine years in twelve. The senators are divided by lot into four classes, and the seats of one class vacated, and re-filled yearly.

MARYLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 140 } between { 75 and 80 west longitude } 14,000	Breadth 135 } { 37 and 40 north latitude }	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Pennsylvania, on the North; by the Delaware state, and the Atlantic ocean on the East; by Virginia, on the South; and by the Apalachian mountains on the West.

Maryland is divided into two parts by the bay of Chesapeake, viz. 1. The eastern; and, 2. The western division.

Divisions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
The East division contains the counties of	Worcester - - -	Princess Anne
	Somerset - - -	Snow Hill
	Dorset - - -	Dorset, or Dorchester
	Talbot - - -	Oxford
	Cecil - - -	
	Queen Anne's - -	Queen's Town
	Kent - - -	Chester
	Caroline - - -	Danton
	St. Mary's - - -	St. Mary
	Charles - - -	Bristol
The West division contains	Prince George - -	Masterkout
	Calvert - - -	Abington
	Ann Arundel - -	ANNAPOLIS, W. lon. 76-50. N. lat. 39.
	Baltimore - - -	Baltimore
	Frederic - - -	Frederic Town
	Washington - - -	Elizabeth Town
	Montgomery - - -	
	Hartford - - -	
Alleghany - - -	Cumberland	

RIVERS.] This country is indented with a vast number of navigable creeks and rivers. The chief are Potowmack, Pocomoac, Patuxent, Cheptonk, Severn, and Sassafras.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE. } In these particulars this province has nothing remarkable by which it may be distinguished from those already described. The hills in the

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land country are of so easy ascent, that they rather seem an artificial than a natural production. The climate is generally mild, and agreeably suited to agricultural productions, and a great variety of fruit-trees. In the interior hilly country the inhabitants are healthy; but in the flat country, in the neighbourhood of the marshes and stagnant waters, they are, as in the other southern states, subject to intermittents. The vast number of rivers diffuses fertility through the soil, which is admirably adapted to the rearing of tobacco and wheat (which are the staple commodities of that country), hemp, Indian corn, grain, &c.

POPULATION AND COMMERCE.] The number of inhabitants has of late years greatly increased, amounting at present to 319,728, of whom 103,036 are slaves; which is nearly 34 for every square mile. The commerce of Maryland depends on the same principles with that of Virginia, and is so closely connected with it, that any separation of them would rather confuse than instruct. It will be considered therefore under that head.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] Maryland, like the provinces we have formerly described, owes its settlement to religious considerations. As they, however, were peopled by Protestants, Maryland was originally planted by Roman Catholics. This sect, towards the close of Charles the First's reign, was the object of great hatred to the bulk of the English nation; and the laws in force against the Papists were executed with great severity. This in part arose from an opinion, that the court was too favourably disposed towards this form of religion. It is certain, that many marks of favour were conferred on the Roman Catholics. Lord Baltimore was one of the most eminent in great favour with the court, and on that account most odious to the generality of the English. This nobleman, in 1632, obtained a grant from Charles of that country, which formerly was considered as a part of Virginia, but was now called Maryland, in honour of queen Henrietta Mary, daughter to Henry IV. of France, and spouse to king Charles. The year following, about 200 popish families, some of considerable distinction, embarked with lord Baltimore, to enter into possession of this new territory. These settlers, who had that liberality and good breeding which distinguish gentlemen of every religion, bought their lands at an easy price, from the native Indians; they even lived with them for some time in the same city; and the same harmony continued to subsist between the two nations, until the Indians were imposed on by the malicious insinuations of some planters in Virginia, who envied the prosperity of this popish colony, and inflamed the Indians against them, by ill-grounded reports, such as were sufficient to stir up the resentment of men naturally jealous, and who from experience had reason to be so. The colony, however, was not wanting to its own safety on this occasion. Though they continued their friendly intercourse with the natives, they took care to erect a fort, and to use every other precaution for their defence against sudden hostilities; the defeat of this attempt gave a new spring to the activity of this plantation, which was likewise receiving frequent reinforcements from England of those who found themselves in danger by the approaching revolution. But, during the protectorship of Cromwell, every thing was overturned in Maryland. Baltimore was deprived of his rights; and a new governor, appointed by the protector, substituted in his room. At the restoration, however, the property of this province reverted to its natural possessor. Baltimore was reinstated in his rights, and fully discovered how well he deserved to be so. He established a perfect toleration in all religious matters; the colony increased and flourished,

and dissenters of all denominations, allured by the prospect of gain, Rocked into Maryland: But the tyrannical government of James II. again deprived this noble family of their possession, acquired by royal bounty, and improved by much care and expense.

At the revolution, lord Baltimore was again restored to all the profits of the government, though not to the right of governing, which could not consistently be conferred on a Roman catholic. But, after the family changed their religion, they obtained the power as well as the interest. The government of this country exactly resembled that in Virginia, except that the governor was appointed by the proprietor, and only confirmed by the crown. The government of Maryland is now vested in a governor, senate of 15, and house of delegates, all which are to be chosen annually. The governor is elected by ballot, by the senate and house of delegates. All freemen above twenty-one years of age, having a freehold of fifty acres, or property to the value of thirty pounds, have a right of suffrage in the election of delegates, which is *viva voce*. All persons appointed to any office of profit and trust, are to subscribe a declaration of their belief in the Christian religion.

In 1782, a college was founded at Chester town, in this province, under the name of *Washington College*, in honour of gen. Washington.

VIRGINIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 750 } Breadth 240 }	between { 75 and 90 west longitude { 36 and 40 north latitude }	80,000

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the river Potowmac, which divides it from Maryland, on the north-east; by the Atlantic ocean, on the east; by Carolina, on the south; and the river Mississippi, on the west.

It may be divided into 82 counties, which are mentioned in the following table, taken from Morse's American Geography.

Situation.	Counties.	Situation.	Counties.
West of the Blue Ridge.	{ Ohio	Between the Blue Ridge and the tide-waters.	{ Loudoun
	{ Monongalla		{ Fauquier
	{ Washington		{ Culpepper
	{ Montgomery		{ Spotsylvania
	{ Wythe		{ Orange
	{ Botetourt		{ Louisa
	{ Green-briar		{ Goochland
	{ Kanawa		{ Flavinia
	{ Hampshire		{ Albemarle
	{ Berkley		{ Amherst
	{ Frederick		{ Buckingham
	{ Shenandoah		{ Bedford
	{ Rockingham		{ Henry
	{ Augusta		{ Pittsylvania
{ Rockbridge	{ Halifax		

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Between Blue Ridge tide-water

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Situation.	Counties.	Situation.	Counties.
Between the Blue Ridge and side-waters.	Charlotte	Between York and Rappahannoc rivers.	Caroline
	Prince Edward		King William
	Cumberland		King and Queen
	Powhatan		Essex
	Amelia		Middlesex
	Nottaway		Gloucester
	Lunenburg		Fairfax
	Mecklenburg		Prince William
	Brunswick		Stafford
	Greenville		King George
Between James river and Carolina.	Dinwiddie	Between Rappahannoc and Potowmac rivers.	Richmond
	Chesterfield		Westmoreland
	Prince George		Northumberland
	Surry		Lancaster
	Suffex		Accomac
	Southampton		Northampton.
	Isle of Wight		
	Nansemond		
	Norfolk		
	Princess Ann		
Between James and York rivers.	Henrico	Eastern shore	
	Hanover		
	New Kent		
	Charles City		
	James City		
	Williamsburg		
	York		
	Warwick		
	Elizabeth City		

The following are new Counties.

- Campbell
- Franklin
- Harrison
- Randolph
- Hardy
- Pendleton
- Ruffel *

CAPEs, BAYs, AND RIVERs.] In sailing to Virginia or Maryland, you pass a strait between two points of land, called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a passage into the bay of Chesapeake, one of the largest and safest in the whole world; for it enters the country near 300 miles from the south to the north, is about eighteen miles broad for a considerable way, and seven where it is the narrowest, the waters in most places being nine fathoms deep. This bay, through its whole extent, receives a vast number of navigable rivers from the sides of both Maryland and Virginia. From the latter, besides others of less note, it receives James River, York River, the Rappahannoc, and the Potowmac: these are not only navigable for large ships into the heart of the country, but have so many creeks, and receive such a number of smaller navigable rivers, that Virginia is, without all manner of doubt, the country in the world of all others of the most convenient navigation. It has been observed, and the observation is not exaggerated, that every planter has a river at his door.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The whole face of this country is so extremely low towards the sea, that you are very near the shore before you can discover land from the mast-head. The lofty trees, which cover the soil, gradually rise as it were from the ocean, and afford an enchanting prospect. You travel 100 miles into the country, without meeting with a hill, which is nothing uncommon on this extensive coast of North America.

* Morse, vol. i. pp. 532, 533, 534.
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AIR AND CLIMATE.] In summer the heats here are excessive, though not without refreshing breezes from the sea. The weather is changeable, and the change is sudden and violent. Their winter frosts come on without the least warning. To a warm day there sometimes succeeds such an intense cold in the evening, as to freeze over the largest rivers.

The air and seasons here, depend very much upon the wind, as to heat and cold, dryness and moisture. In winter, they have a fine clear air, and dry, which renders it very pleasant. Their spring is about a month earlier than in England; in April they have frequent rains; in May and June, the heat increases; and the summer is much like our's, being refreshed with gentle breezes from the sea, that rise about nine o'clock, and decrease or increase as the sun rises or falls. In July and August, these breezes cease, and the air becomes stagnant, and violently hot: in September, the weather generally changes, when they have heavy and frequent rains, which occasion all the train of diseases incident to a moist climate, particularly agues and intermitting fevers. They have frequent thunder and lightning, but it rarely does any mischief.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Towards the sea-shore and the banks of the rivers, the soil of Virginia consists of a dark rich mould, which, without manure, returns plentifully whatever is committed to it. At a distance from the water, there is a lightness and sandiness of the soil, which, however, is of a generous nature, and, aided by a kindly sun, yields corn and tobacco extremely well.

From what has been said of the soil and climate, it is easy to infer the variety and perfection of the vegetable productions of this country. The forests are covered with all sorts of lofty trees; and no underwood or bushes grow beneath; so that people travel with ease through the forests on horseback, under a fine shade to defend them from the sun: the plains are enamelled with flowers and flowering shrubs of the richest colours and most fragrant scent. Silk grows spontaneously in many places, the fibres of which are as strong as hemp. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the snake-root, and ginseng, are here in great plenty. There is no sort of grain but might be cultivated to advantage. The inhabitants, however, are so engrossed with the culture of the tobacco-plant, that they think, if corn sufficient for their support can be reared, they do enough in this way. But flax and hemp are produced, not only for their own consumption, but for exportation, though not in such quantities as might be expected from the nature of the soil, admirably fitted for producing this commodity.

ANIMALS.] We shall here observe, that there were neither horses, cows, sheep, nor hogs, in America, before they were carried thither by the Europeans; but now they are multiplied so extremely, that many of them, particularly in Virginia, and the southern colonies, run wild. Before the war between Great Britain and the colonies, beef and pork were sold here from one penny to two-pence a pound; their fattest pullets at six-pence a-piece; chickens at three or four shillings a dozen; geese at ten-pence; and turkeys at eighteen-pence a-piece. But fish and wild-fowl were still cheaper in the season, and deer were sold from five to ten shillings a-piece. This estimate may serve for the other American colonies, where provisions were equally plentiful and cheap, and in some still lower. Besides the animals transported from Europe, those natural to the country are deer, of which there are great numbers, a sort of panther or tiger, bears, wolves, foxes, and racoons. Here is likewise that singular animal, called the opossum, which seems to be

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the wood-rat mentioned by Charlevoix, in his history of Canada. It is about the size of a cat; and besides the belly, common to it with other animals, it has another peculiar to itself, and which hangs beneath the former. This belly has a large aperture towards the hinder legs, which discovers a large number of teats on the usual parts of the common belly. Upon these, when the female of this creature conceives, the young are formed, and there they hang like fruit upon the stalk, until they grow to a certain bulk and weight; when they drop off, and are received into the false belly, from which they go out at pleasure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens them. In Virginia there are all sorts of tame and wild fowl: They have the nightingale, whose plumage is crimson and blue; the mocking-bird, thought to excel all others in his own note, and including that of every one; the humming-bird, the smallest of all the winged creation, and by far the most beautiful, all arrayed in scarlet, green, and gold. It sips the dew from the flowers, which is all its nourishment, and is too delicate to be brought alive into England.

[CHARACTER; MANNERS; CUSTOMS.] Virginia has produced some of the most distinguished actors in effecting the revolution in America. Her political and military character will rank among the first in the page of history. But it is to be observed, that this character has been obtained for the Virginians by a few eminent men, who have taken the lead in all their public transactions, and who, in short, govern Virginia; for the great body of the people do not concern themselves with politics, so that their government, though nominally republican, is, in fact, oligarchal, or aristocratical.

Several travellers give but a very indifferent account of the generality of the people of this province. The young men, observes one, generally speaking, are gamblers, cock-fighters, and horse-jockies. The ingenuity of a Locke, or the discoveries of a Newton, are considered as infinitely inferior to the accomplishments of him who is expert in the management of a cock-fight, or dextrous in manœuvring at a horse-race. A spirit for literary inquiries, if not altogether confined to a few, is, among the body of the people, evidently subordinate to a spirit of gambling and barbarous sports. At almost every tavern or ordinary, on the public road, there is a billiard table, a back-gammon table, cards, and other implements for various games. To these public-houses the gambling gentry in the neighbourhood resort, to *kill* time, which hangs heavily upon them; and at this business they are extremely expert, having been accustomed to it from their earliest youth. The passion for cock-fighting, a diversion not only inhumanly barbarous, but infinitely beneath the dignity of a man of sense, is so predominant, that they even advertise their matches in the public papers*. This dissipation of manners is the consequence of indolence and luxury, which are the fruit of African slavery.

[HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, TOWNS, AND COMMERCE.] This is the first country which the English planted in America. We derived our right, not only to this, but to all our other settlements; as has been already observed, from the discovery of Sebastian Cabot, who, in 1497, first made the northern continent of America, in the service of Henry VII. of England. No attempts, however, were made to settle it till the reign of queen Elizabeth. It was then that fir

*A traveller through Virginia observes: Three or four matches were advertised in the public prints at Williamsburgh; and I was witness of five in the course of my travels from that to Port Royal.

Walter Raleigh applied to court, and got together a company, which was composed of several persons of distinction, and several eminent merchants, who agreed to open a trade, and settle a colony, in that part of the world, which, in honour of queen Elizabeth, he called Virginia. Towards the close of the sixteenth century, several attempts were made for settling this colony, before any proved successful. The three first companies who failed to Virginia, perished through hunger and diseases, or were cut off by the Indians. The fourth was reduced almost to the same situation; and being dwindled to a feeble remainder, had set sail for England, in despair of living in such an uncultivated country, inhabited by such hostile and warlike savages. But, in the mouth of Chesapeake Bay they were met by lord Delaware, with a squadron loaded with provisions, and with every thing necessary for their relief and defence. At his persuasion, they returned: by his advice, prudence, and winning behaviour, the internal government of the colony was settled within itself, and put on a respectable footing with regard to its enemies. This nobleman, who had accepted the government of the unpromising province of Virginia from the noblest motives, was compelled, by the decayed state of his health, to return to England. He left behind him, however, his son, as deputy; with sir Thomas Gates, sir George Somers, the honourable George Piercy, and Mr. Newport, for his council. By them, James Town, the first town built by the English in the New World, was erected. The colony continued to flourish, and the true sources of its wealth began to be discovered and improved. The first settlers, like those of Maryland, were generally persons of consideration and distinction. It remained a steady ally to the royal party during the troubles of Great Britain. Many of the cavaliers, in danger at home, took refuge here; and, under the government of sir William Berkeley, held out for the crown, until the parliament, rather by stratagem than force, reduced them. After the restoration, there is nothing very interesting in the history of this province. Soon after this time, a young gentleman, named Bacon, a lawyer, availing himself of some discontents in the colony, on account of restraints in trade, became very popular, and threw every thing into confusion. His death, however, restored peace and unanimity.

The government of this province was not at first adapted to the principles of the English constitution, and to the enjoyment of that liberty to which a subject of Great Britain thinks himself entitled in every part of the globe. It was subject to a governor and council, appointed by the king of Great Britain. As the inhabitants increased, the inconveniency of this form became more grievous; and a new branch was added to the constitution, by which the people, who had formerly no consideration, were allowed to elect their representatives from each county into which this country is divided, with privileges resembling those of the representatives of the commons of England. Thus two houses, the upper and lower house of assembly, were formed. The upper house, which was before called the council, remained on its former footing; its members were appointed, during pleasure, by the crown; they were styled Honourable, and answered in some measure to the house of peers in the British constitution. The lower house was the guardian of the people's liberties. And thus, with a governor representing the king, an upper and lower house of assembly, this government bore a striking resemblance to our own. When any bill had passed the two houses, it came before the governor, who gave his assent or negative, as he thought proper. It now acquired the force of a law, until it was transmitted to England, and his majesty's pleasure known on that subject. The upper house of

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assembly acted not only as a part of the legislature, but also as privy council to the governor, without whose concurrence he could do nothing of moment: it sometimes acted as a court of chancery.

The present government of this province, as settled in convention at Williamsburg, July 5th, 1776, is, that the legislative, executive, and judiciary departments be separate and distinct; that the house of delegates be chosen annually by the freeholders, two for each county, and for the district of West Augusta; and one representative for the city of Williamsburg and town of Norfolk. The senate to consist of twenty-four members, also chosen by the freeholders of the state, divided into twenty districts. The executive is a governor and privy-council, of eight members, chosen annually by the joint ballot of the general assembly of the state, who also choose the delegates to congress, the judges, and other law officers, president, treasurer, secretary, &c. justices, sheriffs, and coroners, commissioned by the governor and council.

The inhabitants of Virginia amounted, according to the census of 1790, to 747,610, of which 292,627 were negroes. Kentucky, which till lately belonged to this state, contains 73,677 inhabitants, which, added to 747,610, makes 821,287. Williamsburg, till the year 1780, was the seat of the government, and contained 1800 inhabitants; Norfolk, the most populous town in Virginia, about 6000; and Richmond, the present seat of government, 4000; the towns in general not being large, owing to the interfection of the country by navigable rivers, which bring the trade to the doors of the inhabitants.

In the following account of the commerce of Virginia, is also included that of Maryland. These provinces were supposed to export, of tobacco alone, to the annual value of 768,000*l.* into Great Britain. This, at eight pounds per hoghead, makes the number of hogheads amount to 963,000*l.* Of these, it is computed, that about 13,500 hogheads were consumed at home, the duty on which, at 2*l.* 1*s.* per hoghead, came to 351,675*l.* the remaining 82,500 hogheads were exported by our merchants to the other countries of Europe, and their value returned to Great Britain. The advantages of this trade appear by the bare mention of it. It may not be improper to add, that this single branch employed 330 sail of ships, and 7960 seamen. Not only our wealth, therefore, but the very sinews of our national strength, were powerfully braced by it. The other commodities of these colonies, of which naval stores, wheat, Indian corn, iron in pigs and bars, are the most considerable, made the whole exportation, at an average of three years, amount to 1,040,000*l.* The exports of Great Britain, the same as to our other colonies, at a like average, came to 865,000*l.*

Here is a college founded by king William, called William and Mary college, who gave 2000*l.* towards it, and 20,000 acres of land, with power to purchase and hold lands to the value of 2000*l.* a year, and a duty of one penny per pound, on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. There is a president, six professors, and other officers, who are named by the governors or visitors. The honourable Mr. Boyle made a very large donation to the college for the education of Indian children. The presbyterian denomination of Christians is the most numerous in this province; for, though the first settlers were Episcopalians, yet through the indolence of the clergy, two-thirds of the people had become dissenters, at the commencement of the late revolution.

NORTH AND SOUTH CAROLINA, WITH GEORGIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 700 } Breadth 380 }	between { 76 and 91 west longitude. 30 and 37 north latitude. }	110,000.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Virginia, on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean, on the east; by the river St. John, which separates Georgia from Florida, on the south; and by the Apalachian, and other mountains, on the west.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Districts.	Counties.	Districts.	Counties.				
Edenton, 9 Counties.	Chowan Currituck Cambden. Pasquetank Perquimims Gates Hertford Bertie Tyrrel	Hillsborough, 6 Counties.	Orange Chatan Granville Cafwell Wake Randolph				
				Salisbury, 8 Counties.	Rowan Mecklenburg Rockingham Tredell		
						Morgan, 4 Counties.	Surry Montgomery Stokes Guildford
				Wilmington, 5 Counties.	New Hanover Brunswick Duplin Bladen Onflow		
						Newbern, 9 Counties.	Craven Beaufort Carteret Johnson Pitt Dobbs Wayne Hyde Jones

These three districts are on the sea-coast, extending from the Virginia line southward to South Carolina.

These five districts, beginning on the Virginia line, cover the whole state west of the three maritime districts before mentioned, and the greater part of them extend quite across the state from north to south.

Halifax, 7 Counties.	Halifax
	Northampton
	Martin
	Edgecomb
	Warren
	Franklin
	Nash

* Morfe's American Geography, vol. i. p. 576.

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SOUTH CAROLINA has seven districts, in which are 35 counties, as follows :

Counties.		Counties.
BEAUFORT DISTRICT, on the sea-coast, between Combahee and Savannah rivers. Chief town BEAUFORT. CHARLES-TOWN DISTRICT, between Santee and Combahee rivers. Chief town CHARLES-TOWN. W. long. 79-12. N. lat. 32-45. GEORGE-TOWN DISTRICT, between Santee river and North-Carolina. Chief town GEORGE-TOWN. CHERAW DISTRICT, west of George-town district, chief towns are	Hilton Lincoln Granville Shrewsbury Charles-town Washington Marion Berkeley Colleton Bartholomew Winyah Williamsburg Kingston Liberty	ORANGE DISTRICT, west of Beaufort district. Chief town ORANGE-BURGH. CAMDEN DISTRICT, west of George-town district. Chief town CAMDEN. NINETY-SIX DISTRICT, comprehends all other parts of the state, not included in the other district. Chief town CAMBRIDGE. Marlborough, Chesterfield, Darlington.
		Lewisburg Orange Lexington Winton Clarendon Richland Fairfield Cleremont Lancaster York Chester Abbeville Edgefield Newbury Union Laurens Spartanburgh Greenville Pendleton.

GEORGIA. That part of the state which has been laid out in counties, has been divided into three districts, which are subdivided into eleven counties.

Districts.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
Lower district.	Camden Glyn Liberty Chatham	St. Patrick Brunswick Sunbury SAVANNAH, N. lat. 32-5. W. long. 80-20. Ebenezer
Middle district.	Effingham Richmond Burke Washington	AUGUSTA Waynesburg Louisville Golphinton Washington
Upper district.	Wilkes Franklin Greene	Greensburgh *.

RIVERS.] These are the Roanoke, or Albemarle river; Pamlico; Neus; Cape Fear, or Clarendon river; Pedee; Santee; Savannah; Alatamaha, or George river, and St. Mary's, which divides Georgia

* Morse, vol. i. p. 610.

from Florida: all which rivers rise in the Apalachian mountains, and running east, fall into the Atlantic ocean. The back parts are watered by the Cherokees, Yafous, Mobile, Apalachicola, the Pearl river, and many other noble streams which fall into the Mississippi, or the Gulf of Mexico.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAGES.] The only sea bordering on this country is that of the Atlantic ocean; which is so shallow near the coast, that a ship of any great burden cannot approach it, except in some few places. There has not yet been found one good harbour in North Carolina; the best are those of Roanoke, at the mouth of Albemarle river, Pamlico, and Cape Fear. In South Carolina, there are the harbours of Winyaw, or George-Town, Charles-Town, and Port Royal. In Georgia, the mouths of the rivers Savannah and Alatomaha form good harbours.

The most remarkable promontories are, Cape Hatteras, in 35 degrees odd minutes north latitude, Cape Fear to the south of it, and Cape Carteret still farther south.

CLIMATE AND AIR.] There is not any considerable difference between the climate of these countries. In general, it agrees with that of Virginia; but where they differ, it is much to the advantage of Carolina. The summers, indeed, are of a more intense heat than in Virginia, but the winters are milder and shorter. The climate of Carolina, like all American weather, is subject to sudden transitions from heat to cold, and from cold to heat; but not to such violent extremities as Virginia. The winters are seldom severe enough to freeze any considerable water, affecting only the mornings and evenings; the frosts have never sufficient strength to resist the noon-day sun; so that many tender plants, which do not stand the winter of Virginia, flourish in Carolina, for they have oranges in great plenty near Charles-Town; and excellent in their kinds both sweet and sour.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND FACE.] In this respect, too, there is a considerable coincidence between these countries and Virginia: the Carolinas, however, in the fertility of nature, have the advantage; but Georgia has not so good a soil as the other provinces. The whole country is in a manner one forest, where the planters have not cleared it. The trees are almost the same in every respect with those produced in Virginia; and by the different species of these, the quality of the soil is easily known. The land in Carolina is easily cleared, as there is little or no underwood, and the forests mostly consist of tall trees at a considerable distance. Those grounds which bear the oak, the walnut, and the hichory, are extremely fertile; they are of a dark sand, intermixed with loam: and, as all their land abounds with nitre, it is a long time before it is exhausted; for here they never use any manure. The pine barren is the worst of all; this is an almost perfectly white sand; yet it bears the pine-tree, and some other useful plants; naturally yielding good profit in pitch, tar, and turpentine. When this species of land is cleared, for two or three years together it produces very good crops of Indian corn and peas; and, when it lies low, and is flooded, it even answers for rice. But what is most fortunate for this province is, that the worst part of its land is favourable to a species of the most valuable of all its products, to one of the kinds of indigo. The low, rich, swampy grounds bear their great staple, rice. The country near the sea is much the worst, in many parts little better than an unhealthy salt marsh; for Carolina is all an even plain for 80 miles from the sea, not a hill, not a

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rock, nor scarcely even a pebble to be met with. But the country, as you advance in it, improves continually; and at 100 miles distance from Charles-Town, where it begins to grow hilly, the soil is of a prodigious fertility, fitted for every purpose of human life; nor can any thing be imagined more pleasant to the eye than the variegated disposition of this back country. Here the air is pure and wholesome, and the summer heat much more temperate than on the flat sandy coast.

In Carolina, vegetation is incredibly quick. The climate and soil have something in them so kindly, that the latter, when left to itself, naturally throws out an immense quantity of flowers and flowering shrubs. All the European plants arrive at perfection here beyond that in which their native country affords them. With proper culture and encouragement, silk, wine, and oil, might be produced in these colonies; of the first we have seen samples equal to what is brought to us from Italy. Wheat in the back parts, yields a prodigious increase.

From what we have observed of these valuable provinces, their productions appear to be vines, wheat, rice, Indian corn, barley, oats, peas, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, oranges, citron, cypress, sassafras, oak, walnut, cassia, and pine trees; white mulberry trees for feeding silk-worms; sarsaparilla, and pines which yield turpentine, resin, tar, and pitch. There is a kind of tree from which runs an oil of extraordinary virtue for curing wounds; and another, which yields a balm thought to be little inferior to that of Mecca. There are other trees besides these, that yield gums: The Carolinas produce prodigious quantities of honey, of which they make excellent spirits, and mead as good as Malaga sack. Of all these the three great staple commodities at present are the indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine. Nothing surprises an European more at first sight than the size of the trees here, as well as in Virginia and other American countries. Their trunks are often from fifty to seventy feet high, without a branch or limb; and frequently above thirty-six feet in circumference. Of these trunks when hollowed, the people of Charles-Town, as well as the Indians, make canoes, which serve to transport provisions and other goods from place to place; and some of them are so large, that they will carry thirty or forty barrels of pitch, though formed of one piece of timber. Of these are likewise made curious pleasure boats.

ANIMALS.] The original animals of this country do not differ much from those of Virginia; but in Carolina they have a still greater variety of beautiful fowls. All the animals of Europe are here in plenty; black cattle are multiplied prodigiously; to have 200 or 300 cows is very common, but some have 1000 or upwards. These ramble all day at pleasure in the forest; but their calves being separated and kept in fenced pastures, the cows return every evening to them. The hogs range in the same manner, and return like the cows; these are very numerous, and many run quite wild, as well as horned cattle and horses, in the woods. It is surprising that the cattle should have increased so quickly since their being first imported from Europe, while there are such numbers of wolves, tigers, and panthers, constantly ranging the woods and forests. We have already observed, that these animals are less ravenous than the beasts of Africa and Asia; they very seldom attempt to kill either calves or foals in America, which, when attacked, are vigorously defended by their dams.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, } The first English expeditions into Carolina were
CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. } unfortunat. None of them had success till the year 1663, in the reign

of Charles II. At that time several English noblemen, and others of great distinction, obtained a charter from the crown, investing them with the property and jurisdiction of this country. They parcelled out the lands to such as were willing to go over into the new settlement, and to submit to a system of laws, which they employed the famous Locke to compose for them.

They began their first settlement at a point of land towards the southward of their district, between two navigable rivers. Here they laid the foundation of a city, called Charles-Town, which was designed to be, what it is now, the capital of the province. In time; however, the disputes between the church of England men and dissenters caused a total confusion in the colony. This was rendered still more intolerable by the incursions of the Indians, whom they had irritated by their intolerance and injustice. In order to prevent the fatal consequences of these intestine divisions and foreign wars, an act of parliament was passed, which put this colony under the immediate protection of the crown. The lords proprietors accepted a recompence of about 24,000*l.* for both the property and jurisdiction; and the constitution of this colony, in those respects in which it differed from the royal colonies, was altered. Earl Grenville, however, thought fit to retain his seventh share, which continued in the possession of his family. For the more convenient administration of affairs, Carolina was divided into two districts, and two governments. This happened in 1728, and from that time; peace being restored in the internal government, as well as with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, these provinces began to breathe: and their trade advanced with wonderful rapidity.

The settlement of Georgia was projected in 1732, when several public-spirited noblemen, and others, from compassion to the poor of these kingdoms, subscribed a considerable sum, which, with 10,000*l.* from the government, was given to provide necessaries for such poor persons as were willing to transport themselves into this province, and to submit to the regulations imposed on them. In process of time, new sums were raised; and new inhabitants sent over. Before the year 1752, upwards of 1000 persons were settled in this province. It was not, however, to be expected; that the inhabitants of Georgia, removed, as they were, at a great distance from their benefactors, and from the check and controul of those who had a natural influence over them, would submit to the magistrates appointed to govern them. Many of the regulations, too, by which they were bound, were very improper in themselves, and deprived the Georgians of privileges which their neighbours enjoyed, and which, as they increased in numbers and opulence, they thought it hard they should be deprived of. From these corrupt sources arose all the bad humours which tore to pieces this constitution of government. Dissensions of all kinds sprang up, and the colony was on the brink of destruction, when, in 1752, the government took it under their immediate care, removed their particular grievances, and placed Georgia on the same footing with the Carolinas.

The method of settling in Carolina, and indeed in other provinces of British America, was to pitch upon a void space of ground, and either purchase it at the rate of 20*l.* for 1000 acres, and one shilling quit-rent for every 100 acres; or otherwise, to pay a penny an acre quit-rent yearly to the proprietors, without purchase-money. The people of Carolina live in the same easy, plentiful, and luxurious manner with the Virginians already described. Poverty is here almost an entire stranger; and the planters are the most hospitable people that are to be

* The delicacy as it is called, locks of his army to the no experiment rec antagonist is l

met with, to all strangers, and especially to such as, by accidents or misfortunes, are rendered incapable of providing for themselves. The general topics of conversation among the men, when cards, the bottle, and occurrences of the day do not intervene, are negroes, the prices of indigo, rice, tobacco, &c.

Less attention and respect are paid to the women here, than in those parts of the United States, where the inhabitants have made a greater progress in the arts of civilised life. Indeed, it is a truth, confirmed by observation, that in proportion to the advancement of civilisation, in the same proportion will respect for women be increased: so that the progress of civilisation in countries, in states, in towns, and in families, may be remarked by the degree of attention which is paid by husbands to their wives, and by the young men to the young women.

The North Carolinians are accused of being rather too deficient in the virtues of temperance and industry; and it is said that a strange and very barbarous practice prevailed among the lower class of people, before the revolution, in the back parts of Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia, called *gouging**; but we have lately been informed that in a particular county, where at the court, twenty years ago, a day seldom passed without ten or fifteen boxing matches, it is now a rare thing to hear of a fight.

The only place in either of the Carolinas worthy of notice is Charles-Town, W. J. p. 79-12. N. Lat. 32-45, the metropolis of South Carolina. It is admirably situated at the confluence of two navigable rivers, one of which is navigable for ships twenty miles above the town, and for boats and large canoes near forty. The harbour is good in every respect, but that of a bar, which hinders vessels of more than 200 tons burthen, loaded, from entering. The fortifications, which were strong, are now demolished; the streets are well cut; the houses are large and well built; some of them are of brick, and others of wood, but all of them handsome and elegant, and rent is extremely high. The streets are wide and straight, intersecting each other at right angles; those running east and west extend about a mile from one river to the other. In 1787, it was computed that there were 1600 houses in this city, and 15,000 inhabitants, including 5400 slaves. In 1791, there were 16,359 inhabitants, of whom 7684 were slaves. This city has often suffered much by fire: the last and most destructive happened in June, 1796. The neighbourhood of Charles-Town is beautiful beyond description. Several handsome equipages are kept here. The planters and merchants are rich and well bred: and before the war between Great Britain and the colonies, the people were showy and expensive in their dress and way of living; so that every thing conspired to make this by much the liveliest and politest place, as well as the richest, in all America. It ought also to be observed, for the honour of the people of Carolina, that when, in common with the other colonies, they resolved against the use of certain luxuries, and even necessaries of life, those articles which improve the mind, enlarge the understanding, and correct

* The delicate and entertaining diversion, with propriety called *gouging*, is thus described. When two boxers are wearied with fighting and bruising each other, they come, as it is called, to *close quarters*, and each endeavours to twist his forefingers in the earlocks of his antagonist. When these are fast clinched, the thumbs are extended each way to the nose, and the eyes gently turned out of their sockets. The victor for his expertness receives shouts of applause from the sporting throng, while his poor *eyeless* antagonist is laughed at for his misfortune. MORSE.

the taste, were excepted; the importation of books was permitted, as formerly.

North and South Carolina joined with the other colonies in their revolt against Britain; and in 1780, Charles-Town, being besieged by the king's troops, surrendered on capitulation, with 6000 men in arms prisoners, on the 11th of May in that year, after the siege had continued seven weeks.

As South Carolina has met with infinitely more attention than the other provinces, the commerce of this country alone employed 140 ships, while that of the other two did not employ 60. Its exports to Great Britain of native commodities, on an average of three years, amounted to more than 395,000l. annual value; and its imports to 365,000l. The exports of North Carolina were computed at about 70,000l. and its imports at 18,000l. The trade of Georgia is likewise in its infancy; the exports amounted to little more than 74,000l. and the imports to 49,000l.

The trade between Carolina and the West Indies was the same in all respects with that of the rest of the colonies, and was very large; their trade with the Indians was in a very flourishing condition; and they formerly carried English goods on pack-horses 500 or 600 miles into the country west of Charles-Town.

The mouths of the rivers in North Carolina form but ordinary harbours, and do not admit, except one at Cape Fear, vessels of above 70 or 80 tons. This lays a weight upon their trade, by the expense of lightering.

Georgia has two towns already known in trade. Savannah, the capital, is commodiously situated for an inland and foreign trade, about ten miles from the sea, upon a noble river of the same name, which is navigable for 200 miles farther for large boats, to the second town, called Augusta, which stands in a country of the greatest fertility, and carries on a considerable trade with the Indians. From the town of Savannah you see the whole course of the river towards the sea; and, on the other hand, you see the river for about sixty miles up into the country. Here the rev. Mr. George Whitfield founded an orphan-house, which is now converted to a very different use, into a college for the education of young men, designed chiefly for the ministry.

By the estimate taken in 1790, of the population of these states, the number of inhabitants in North Carolina was 393,751, of whom 100,571 were slaves; in South Carolina, 249,073, of whom 107,094 were slaves; and in Georgia, 82,548, of whom 29,264 were slaves.

The government of North Carolina is now vested in a governor, senate, and house of commons, all elected annually; the executive power is a governor and seven counsellors: of South Carolina, in a governor, senate of twenty-three, and a house of representatives of 202 members: and that of Georgia, in a governor, executive council of twelve, and house of assembly of seventy-two representatives.

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NEW STATES FORMED IN NORTH AMERICA.

KENTUCKY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. M.
Length 250 } Breadth 200 }	between { 83 and 98 West Longitude } { 36 and 39 North Latitude }	5000

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED on the North West, by the river Ohio; West, by Cumberland river; South, by North Carolina; East, by Sandy river, and a line drawn due south from its source, till it meets the northern boundary of North Carolina.

Kentucky was originally divided into two counties, Lincoln and Jefferson. It has since been subdivided into the following nine:

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Jefferson, at the falls of the Ohio	Louisville
Fayette	Lexington
Bourbon	None
Mercer	Harrodstown
Nelson	Bardstown
Maddison	None
Lincoln	None
Woodford	None
Mason	Washington

The Ohio bounds Kentucky in its whole length. This state is watered by many rivers, and the greatest part of the soil is amazingly fertile, and is more temperate and healthy than any part in America. Here are buffaloes, bears, deer, elks, and many other animals, common to the United States, and others entirely unknown to them. The rivers abound in the finest fish; salmon, roach, perch, eel, and all kinds of hook-fish. The parouet is common here, as is the ivory-bill woodcock, of a whitish colour, with a white plume; the bill is pure ivory. Here is an owl like ours, but different in vociferation. It makes a surprising noise like a man in distress. The natural curiosities of this country are astonishing and innumerable. Caves are found amazingly large, in some of which you may travel several miles under a fine limestone rock, supported by curious arches and pillars. In most of them run streams of water. Near Lexington are to be seen curious sepulchres full of human skeletons. There are three springs or ponds of bitumen near Green River, which discharge themselves into a common reservoir, and when used in lamps, answer all the purposes of the finest oil*. There are many alum banks, and different places abounding with copper, which, when refined, is equal to any in the world. At a salt spring near the Ohio river, very large bones have been found, far surpassing the size of any species of animals now in America: the head appears to have been considerably above three feet long. Dr. Hunter

* Morfe's American Geography, p. 407.

said it could not be the elephant, and that from the form of the teeth it must have been carnivorous, and belonging to a race of animals now extinct. Specimens have been sent to France and England. What animal this is, and by what means its remains are found in these regions (where none such now exist), are very difficult questions, and variously resolved. The variety of conjectures only serves to show the futility of all.

The Mississippi and Ohio are the keys to the northern parts of the western continent. The usual route to Kentucky is from Philadelphia, or Baltimore, by the way of Pittsburgh. The distance from the mouth of the Ohio to New Orleans, which does not exceed 460 miles in a straight line, is 856 by water. The mouth empties itself by several channels into the Gulf of Mexico.

POPULATION.] An idea may be formed of the astonishing emigrations to this country, from the following account taken by the adjutant of the troops stationed at Fort Harmar, at the mouth of Muskingum.

From the 10th of October, 1786, to the 12th of May, 1787, 177 boats, containing 2689 souls, 1353 horses, 766 cattle, 112 waggons, and two phaetons, besides a very considerable number that passed in the night unobserved.

The population of this state in 1790 was 73,677. It is asserted that upwards of 20,000 persons emigrated hither in the year 1797. These people, collected from different states, of different manners, customs, religions, and political sentiments, have not been long enough together to form a uniform national character: Among the settlers there are many gentlemen of abilities, and many genteel families from several of the states; and they are in general more regular than people who settle new countries.

RELIGION.] The baptists are the most numerous religious sect in Kentucky. There are several large congregations of presbyterians, and some few of other denominations.

CONSTITUTION.] By the constitution of this state, formed and adopted in 1792, the legislative power is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives; the supreme executive in a governor; the judiciary in the supreme court of appeals, and such inferior courts as the legislature may establish. The representatives are chosen annually by the people; the senators and governor are chosen for four years, by electors appointed for that purpose; the judges are appointed, during good behaviour, by the governor, with the advice of the senate. The number of representatives cannot exceed one hundred, nor be less than forty; and the senate, at first consisting of eleven, is to increase with the house of representatives, in the ratio of one to four.

V E R M O N T.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 150 } Breadth 70 }	between } 42 and 44 North Latitude } 72 and 73 30' West Longitude	} 10,000

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] BOUNDED on the North, by Lower Canada; on the East, by Connecticut river, which divides it from New Hampshire; on the

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South, by Massachusetts; and on the West, by New York. It is naturally divided by the Green Mountain, which runs from south to north, and divides the state nearly in the middle. Its civil divisions are as follows:

	Counties.	Towns.
West of the Mountain	Bennington	Bennington
	Rutland	Rutland
	Addison	Addison
	Chiltendon	Colchester
	Franklin	
East of the Mountain	Orange	Newbury
	Windfor	Windfor
	Windham	Newfane and Putney
	Caledonia	
	Essex	

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers in this state are Michifcoui, Lamoille, Onion, and Otter creek rivers, which run from east to west into lake Champlain, West, Sexton's Block, Waterquechee, White, Ompompanoosuck, Weld's, Wait's, Passumpsick, and several smaller rivers, which run from west to east, into Connecticut river. Over the river Lamoille is a natural stone bridge; seven or eight rods in length. Otter creek is navigable for boats fifty miles. Its banks are excellent land, being annually overflowed and enriched. Memphremagog is the largest lake in this state. It is the reservoir of three considerable streams, Black, Barton, and Clyde rivers. One of these rises in Willoughby lake, and forms a communication between it and lake St. Peter's, in the river St. Laurence.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] This state, generally speaking, is hilly but not rocky. West of the mountain, from the county of Rutland, northward to the Canada line, is a flat country, well adapted for tillage. The state at large is well watered, and affords the best of pasturage for cattle. Some of the finest beef-cattle in the world are driven from this state: horses also are raised for exportation. Back from the rivers, the land is thickly timbered with birch, sugar-maple, ash, butter-nut, and white oak of an excellent quality. The soil is well fitted for wheat, rye, barley, oats, flax, hemp; &c.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] The inhabitants of this state trade principally with Boston, New York, and Hartford. The articles of export are pot and pearl ashes, beef, which is the principal article, horses, grain, some butter and cheese, lumber, &c. Vast quantities of pot and pearl ashes are made in every part of this state. But one of its most important manufactures is that of maple-sugar. It has been estimated by a competent judge, that the average quantity made for every family back of Connecticut river, is 200lb. a year. One man, with but ordinary advantages, in one month, made 550lb. of a quality equal to imported brown sugar. In two towns in Orange county, containing no more than forty families, 13,000lb. of sugar were made in the year 1791.

POPULATION.] In 1790, according to the census then taken, this state contained 85,539 inhabitants, consisting chiefly of emigrants from Connecticut and Massachusetts, and their descendents. Two townships in Orange county are settled principally by Scotch. The body of the people are congregationalists, the other denominations are presbyterians, baptists, and episcopalians. This state is rapidly peopling.

CHIEF TOWNS.] In a new and interior country, large populous towns are not to be expected. Bennington, situated near the south-west corner of the state, is one of the largest. It contains about 2400 inhabitants, a number of handsome houses, a congregational church, a court-house, and gaol.

Windford and Rutland, by a late act of the legislature, are alternately to be the seat of government for eight years. The former is situated on Connecticut river, and contains about 1600 inhabitants; the latter lies upon Otter creek, and contains upwards of 1400 inhabitants. Both are flourishing towns.

HISTORY.] The tract of country called Vermont, before the late war, was claimed both by New York and New Hampshire; and these interfering claims have been the occasion of much warm altercation. They were not finally adjusted till since the peace. When hostilities commenced between Great Britain and the colonies, the inhabitants of this district, considering themselves as in a state of nature, and not within the jurisdiction either of New York or New Hampshire, associated, and formed a constitution for themselves. Under this constitution they have continued to exercise all the powers of an independent state, and have prospered. On the 4th of March, 1791, agreeably to act of congress of December 6th, 1790, this state became one of the United States, and constitutes the fourteenth, and not the least respectable pillar of the American Union.

CONSTITUTION.] The legislature consists of a house of representatives, and a council of twelve, besides the governor, who is president, and the lieutenant-governor, who is officially a member. The freemen meet annually in their several towns to choose the governor, counselors, and other magistrates; and to the privilege of voting, all males, twenty-one years old, and of peaceable dispositions, are entitled; after taking the oath of fidelity to the state. The judges of the supreme and county courts, sheriffs, and justices of the peace, are appointed annually, by joint ballot of the council and house. The council may originate bills, other than money-bills, and suspend till the next session, such bills as they disapprove; but have not a final negative.

TERRITORY NORTH-WEST of the OHIO.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 900 } Breadth 700 }	between	{ 37 and 50 North Latitude } { 81 and 98 West Longitude }		411,000

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] THIS extensive tract of country is bounded, North, by part of the northern boundary line of the United States; East, by the lakes and Pennsylvania; South, by the Ohio river; West, by the Mississippi. Mr. Hutchins, the late geographer of the United States, estimates that this tract contains 263,040,000 acres, of which 43,040,000 are water. That part of this territory in which the Indian title is extinguished

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by being purchased from them, and which is settling under the government of the United States, is divided into the following five counties :

Countries.	When erected.	Counties.	When erected.
Washington,	July 26, 1788	Knox,	June 20, 1790
Hamilton,	Jan. 2, 1790	Wayne,	1796
St. Clair,	April 27, 1790		

RIVERS.] The Muskingum is a gentle river, confined by banks so high as to prevent its overflowing. It is 250 yards wide at its confluence with the Ohio, and navigable by large batteaus and barges to the Three Legs, and by small ones to the lake at its head. The Hockhocking resembles the Muskingum, though somewhat inferior in size. The Scioto is a larger river than either of the preceding and opens a more extensive navigation. One hundred and seventy-six miles above the Ohio, and eighteen miles above the Missouri, the Illinois empties itself into the Mississippi, from the north east, by a mouth about 400 yards wide.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, } SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, &c. } The lands on the various streams which fall into the Ohio, are interspersed with all the variety of soil that conduces to pleasantness of situation, and lays the foundation for the wealth of an agricultural and manufacturing people.

The sugar-maple is a most valuable tree. Any number of inhabitants may be constantly supplied with a sufficiency of sugar by preserving a few of these trees for the use of each family. One tree will yield about ten pounds of sugar a year, and the labour is very trifling.

Springs of excellent water abound in every part of this territory; and small and large streams, suitable for mills and other purposes, are interspersed, as if to prevent any deficiency of the conveniences of life.

No country is better stocked with wild game of every kind. Innumerable herds of deer and wild cattle are sheltered in the groves, and fed in the extensive bottoms that every where abound; an unquestionable proof of the great fertility of the soil. Turkeys, geese, ducks, swans, teal, pheasants, partridge, &c. are, from observation, believed to be in greater plenty here than the tame poultry are in any part of the old settlements in America.

The rivers are well stored with fish of various kinds, and many of them of an excellent quality. They are generally large, though of different sizes: the cat-fish, which is the largest, and of a delicious flavour, weighs from six to eighty pounds.

The number of old forts found in this western country are the admiration of the curious. They are mostly of an oblong form, situated on strong well-chosen ground, and contiguous to water. When, by whom, and for what purpose, these were thrown up, is uncertain. They are undoubtedly very ancient, as there is not the least visible difference in the age or size of the timber growing on or within these forts, and that which grows without; and the natives have lost all tradition respecting them.

GOVERNMENT.] By an ordinance of congress, passed the 13th of July, 1787, this country, for the purposes of temporary government, was erected into one district, subject, however, to a division, when circumstances shall make it expedient.

In the same ordinance, it is provided, that congress shall appoint a

governor, whose commission shall continue in force three years, unless sooner revoked.

The governor must reside in the district, and have a freehold estate therein of 1000 acres of land, while in the exercise of his office.

Congress, from time to time, are to appoint a secretary, to continue in office four years, unless sooner removed, who must reside in the district, and have an estate of 500 acres of land while in office.

Whenever population shall be sufficiently increased, this territory, as well as that to the south of the Ohio (which will be next described), is to be divided into separate states, which, by an act of congress, May, 1790, are to be admitted into the confederacy of the United states, on an equal footing with its original members.

TENNESSEE, or Territory South of the OHIO.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.	
Length	360	} between	}	81 and 91 West Longitude.
Breadth	105			35 and 36 30' North Latitude.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] **BOUNDED**, North, by Kentucky, and part of Virginia;

East, by the Stone, Yellow, Iron, and Bald Mountains, which divide it from North Carolina; South, by South Carolina and Georgia; West, by the Mississippi*.

This extensive territory is divided into three districts; Washington, Hamilton, and Mero; and fourteen counties, as follow:

	Counties.		Counties.	
Washington district	{	Washington	Mero district {	Davidson
		Sullivan		Sumner
		Greene		Robertson
		Carter		Montgomery
		Hawkins		
Hamilton district	{	Knox		
		Jefferson		
		Sevier		
		Blount		
		Grainger		

The population, according to an estimate made in November, 1795, was 77,262.

RIVERS AND MOUNTAINS.] The Tennessee, called also the Cherokee, and, absurdly, the Hogohege river, is the largest branch of the Ohio. It rises in the mountains of Virginia, latitude 37°, and pursues a course of about 1000 miles south and south west, nearly to latitude

* About seven and a half millions of acres of this tract only have been yet purchased from the Indians.

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34°, receiving from both sides a number of large tributary streams. It then wheels about to the north, in a circuitous course, and mingles with the Ohio, nearly sixty miles from its mouth.

The Cumberland mountain, in its whole extent from the great Kan-haway to Tennessee, consists of the most stupendous piles of craggy rocks, of any mountain in the western country. In several parts of it, for miles, it is inaccessible, even to the Indians on foot. In one place particularly, near the summit of the mountain, there is a most remarkable ledge of rocks, of about 30 miles in length, and 200 feet thick, showing a perpendicular face to the south-east, more noble and grand than any artificial fortification in the known world, and apparently equal in point of regularity. Through this stupendous pile, according to a modern hypothesis, had the waters of all the upper branches of the Tennessee to force their way.

The *enchanted mountain*, about two miles south of Brass-town is famed for the curiosities on its rocks. There are, in several rocks, a number of impressions resembling the tracks of turkeys, bears, horses, and human beings, as visible and perfect as they could be made in snow or sand. The latter were remarkable for having uniformly six toes each, one only excepted, which appeared to be the print of a negro's foot. One of these tracks was very large; the length of the feet sixteen inches, the distance of the extremities of the outer toes thirteen inches. One of the horse-tracks was of an uncommon size. The transverse and conjugate diameters were eight by ten inches: perhaps the horse which the great warrior rode. What appears most in favour of their being the real tracks of the animals they represent, is the circumstance of the horses feet having slipped several inches, and recovered again, and the figures having all the same direction, like the trail of a company on a journey. If it be a *lusus naturæ*, the old dame never sported more feriously; if the operation of chance, perhaps there was never more apparent design. If it be the work of art, it may be intended to perpetuate the remembrance of some remarkable event of war, or some battle fought there. The vast heaps of stones near the place, said to be tombs of warriors slain in battle, seem to favour the latter supposition. The texture of the rocks is soft: the part on which the sun had the greatest influence, and which was the most indurated, could easily be cut with a knife, and appeared to be of the nature of the pipe-stone. Some of the Cherokees entertain an opinion that it always rains when any person visits the place, as if sympathetic nature wept at the recollection of the dreadful catastrophe which these figures were intended to commemorate.

ANIMALS.] A few years since, this country abounded with large herds of wild animals, improperly called buffaloes; but the improvident or ill-disposed among the first settlers destroyed multitudes of them out of mere wantonness. They are still to be found on some of the south branches of Cumberland river. Elk or moose are seen in many places, chiefly among the mountains. The deer are become comparatively scarce, so that no person makes a business of hunting them for their skins only. Enough of bears and wolves yet remain. Beavers and otters are caught in plenty in the upper branches of Cumberland and Kentucky rivers.

COMMERCE.] This country furnishes many valuable articles of export, such as fine waggon and saddle-horses, beef, cattle, ginseng, deer-skins, and furs, cotton, hemp, and flax, which may be transported by land; also iron, lumber, pork, and flour, which might be exported in great

quantities, if the navigation of the Mississippi were opened; but there are few of the inhabitants who understand commerce, or are possessed of proper capitals; of course, it is badly managed.

RELIGION.] The presbyterians are the prevailing denomination of Christians in this district. They have a presbytery, called the Abingdon presbytery, established by act of synod, which, in 1788, consisted of twenty-three large congregations.

GOVERNMENT.] Similar to that established by congress in the territory of the United States north-west of the Ohio. The governor is the executive (and in his absence the secretary), and the governor and three judges, the legislative power, in the district.

HISTORY.] The eastern parts of this district were explored by colonels Wood, Patton, Buchanan, captain Charles Campbell, and Dr. T. Walker, (each of whom were concerned in large grants of land from the government) as early as between the years 1740 and 1750. In 1755, at the commencement of the French war, not more than fifty families had settled here, who were either destroyed or driven off by the Indians, before the close of the following year. It remained uninhabited till 1765, when the settlement of it recommenced; and in 1773, the country as far west as the long island of Holstein, an extent of more than 120 miles in length, from east to west, had become tolerably well peopled.

In 1785, in conformity to the resolves of congress, of April 23, 1784, the inhabitants of this district essayed to form themselves into a body politic, by the name of the State of FRANKLAND; but differing among themselves, as to the form of government, and other matters, in the issue of which, some blood was shed—and being opposed by some leading persons in the eastern parts, the scheme was given up, and the inhabitants remained in general peaceable, until 1790, when congress established their present government. Since this period, some incursions of the Indians excepted, the inhabitants have been peaceable and prosperous.

PRESENT AND FUTURE CONSTITUTION OF CONGRESS.} Such are the extensive dominions dependent on congress, which, together with a president chosen for four years, consists, since 1789, of a senate and house of representatives. The senate is composed of two senators from each state, elected for six years, and the house of representatives of one representative, chosen every second year, for every thirty-three thousand inhabitants in each state, until the number has exceeded one hundred; since which there is not to be less than one representative for every forty thousand, until the number of representatives amounts to two hundred. When this takes place, the proportion between the people and their representatives is to be so regulated by congress, that there shall not be less than two hundred representatives, nor more than one representative for every fifty thousand persons. This is the ultimate limit to which the Americans as yet look forward, in the constitution of the general government of their Union.

WEST INDIES.

WE have already observed, that between the two continents of America lie a multitude of islands which we call the West Indies, and which, such as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European

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powers, Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark. As the climate and seasons of these islands differ widely from what we can form any idea of by what we perceive at home, we shall, to avoid repetitions, speak of them in general, and mention some other particulars that are peculiar to the West Indies.

The climate in all our West India islands is nearly the same, allowing for those accidental differences which the several situations and qualities of the lands themselves produce. As they lie within the tropics, and the sun goes quite over their heads, passing beyond them to the north, and never returning farther from any of them than about thirty degrees to the south; they are continually subjected to the extreme of a heat which would be intolerable, if the trade-wind, rising gradually as the sun gathers strength, did not blow in upon them from the sea, and refresh the air in such a manner, as to enable them to attend to their concerns, even under the meridian sun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows smartly from the land, as it were from the centre, towards the sea, to all points of the compass at once.

In the same manner, when the sun has made a great progress towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him such a vast body of clouds, as shield the earth from his direct beams; and dissolving into rain, cool the air, and refresh the country, thirsty with the long drought, which commonly reigns from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the West Indies (and we may add in the East Indies) are by no means so moderate as with us. Our heaviest rains are but dews comparatively. They are rather floods of water, poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuosity; the rivers rise in a moment; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a short time all the low country is under water*. Hence it is, the rivers which have their source within the tropics, swell and overflow their banks at a certain season; but so mistaken were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, that they imagined it to be dried and scorched up with a continued and fervent heat, and to be for that reason uninhabitable; when, in reality, some of the largest rivers of the world have their course within its limits, and the moisture is one of the greatest inconveniences of the climate in several places.

The rains make the only distinction of seasons in the West Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no frosts, no snows, and but rarely some hail; the storms of hail are, however, very violent when they happen, and the hailstones very great and heavy.—Whether it be owing to this moisture, which alone does not seem to be a sufficient cause, or to a greater quantity of sulphureous acid which predominates in the air of this country, metals of all kinds, that are subject to the action of such causes, rust and canker in a very short time; and this cause, perhaps as much as the heat itself, contributes to make the climate of the West Indies unfriendly and unpleasant to a European constitution.

It is in the rainy season (principally in the month of August, more rarely in July and September) that they are assailed by hurricanes; the most terrible calamity to which they are subject (as well as the people in the East Indies) from the climate; this destroys, at a stroke, the labours of many years, and prostrates the most exalted hopes of the plant-

* See Waser's Journey across the Isthmus of Darien.

er, and often just at the moment when he thinks himself out of the reach of fortune. It is a sudden and violent storm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning; attended with a furious swelling of the seas, and sometimes with an earthquake; in short, with every circumstance, which the elements can assemble, that is terrible and destructive. First, they see, as the prelude to the ensuing havoc, whole fields of sugar-canes whirled into the air, and scattered over the face of the country; the strongest trees of the forest are torn up by the roots, and driven about like stubble; their wind-mills are swept away in a moment; their utensils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers, and stills of several hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houses are no protection; the roofs are torn off at one blast; whilst the rain, which in an hour rises five feet, rushes in upon them with irresistible violence.

The grand staple commodity of the West Indies is sugar; this commodity was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China in very early times, from whence we had the first knowledge of it; but the Portuguese were the first who cultivated it in America, and brought it into request, as one of the materials of a very universal luxury in Europe. It is not agreed whether the cane, from which this substance is extracted, be a native of America, or brought thither to their colony of Brasil, by the Portuguese, from India, and the coast of Africa; but, however that may be, in the beginning they made the most as they still do the best sugars which come to market in this part of the world. The juice within the sugar-cane is the most lively, elegant, and least cloying sweet in nature; and, sucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholesome. From the melasses, rum is distilled, and from the scummings of sugar, a meaner spirit is procured. Rum finds its market in North America, where it is consumed by the inhabitants, or employed in the African trade, or distributed from thence to the fishery of Newfoundland, and other parts; besides what comes to Great Britain and Ireland. However, a very great quantity of melasses is taken off raw, and carried to New England to be distilled there. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for the cattle, and the refuse of the cane, after grinding, serves for fire; so that no part of this excellent plant is without its use.

They compute, that, when things are well managed, the rum and melasses pay the charges of the plantation, and the sugars are clear gain. However, by the particulars we have seen, and by others which we may easily imagine, the expenses of a plantation in the West Indies are very great, and the profits, at the first view, precarious: for the chargeable articles of the wind-mill, the boiling, cooling, and distilling-houses, and the buying and subsisting a suitable number of slaves and cattle, will not suffer any man to begin a sugar plantation of any consequence, not to mention the purchase of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at least 5000*l*. There are, however, no parts of the world in which great estates are made in so short a time, from the produce of the earth, as the West Indies. The produce of a few good seasons generally provides against the ill effects of the worst, as the planter is sure of a speedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier sale than perhaps any other commodity in the world.

Large plantations are generally under the care of a manager, or chief overseer, who has commonly a salary of 150*l*. a year, with overseers under him in proportion to the greatness of the plantation; one to about

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thirty negroes, with a salary of about 40*l.* Such plantations, too, have a surgeon at a fixed salary, employed to take care of the negroes which belong to it. But the course which is the least troublesome to the owner of the estate, is, to let the land, with all the works, and the stock of cattle and slaves, to a tenant, who gives security for the payment of rent, and the keeping up repairs and stock. The estate is generally estimated to such a tenant at half the net produce of the best years; such tenants, if industrious and frugal men, soon make good estates for themselves.

The negroes in the plantations are subsisted at a very easy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a small portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it: some are subsisted in this manner, but others find their negroes a certain portion of Guinea and Indian corn, and to some a salt herring, or a small portion of bacon or salt pork, a day. All the rest of the charge consists in a cap, a shirt, a pair of breeches, and a blanket; and the profit of their labour yields 10*l.* or 12*l.* annually. The price of men, negroes upon their first arrival, is from 30*l.* to 36*l.* women and grown boys 50*s.* less: but such negro families as are acquainted with the business of the islands, generally bring above 40*l.* upon an average one with another: and there are instances of a single negro man expert in business bringing 150 guineas; and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of slaves he possesses.

To particularise the commodities proper for the West India market, would be to enumerate all the necessaries, conveniencies, and luxuries of life; for they have nothing of their own but cotton, coffee, tropical fruits, spices, and the commodities I have already mentioned.

Traders there make a very large profit upon all they sell; but from the numerous shipping constantly arriving from Europe, and a continual succession of new adventurers, each of whom carry out more or less as a venture, the West India market is frequently overstocked; money must be raised, and goods are sometimes sold at prime cost or under. But those who can afford to store their goods, and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftsmen, especially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers, and coopers, get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the West Indies, that physicians and surgeons even outdo the planter and merchant, in accumulating riches.

The present state of the population in the British West Indies appears to be about 65,000 whites and 455,000 blacks. There is likewise in each of the islands a considerable number of mixed blood, and native blacks of free condition. In Jamaica they are reckoned at 10,000; and they do not fall short of the same number in all other islands collectively taken. The whole inhabitants, therefore, may properly be divided into four great classes: 1. European whites; 2. Creole or native whites; 3. Creoles of mixed blood and free native blacks; 4. negroes in a state of slavery.

The islands of the West Indies lie in the form of a bow, or semicircle, stretching almost from the coast of Florida north, to the river Orinoco, in the main continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the first inhabitants; though this is a term that most geographers confine to the Leeward Islands. Sailors distinguish them into Windward and Leeward Islands, with regard to the usual courses of ships, from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthage, or New Spain

and Portobello.—The geographical tables and maps distinguish them into the great and little Antilles.

JAMAICA.] This island, which is the first belonging to Great Britain, and also the most important that we arrive at after leaving Florida, lies between the 75th and 79th degrees of west longitude from London, and between 17 and 18 north latitude. From the east and west it is in length about 140 miles, and in the middle about 60 in breadth, growing less towards each end, in the form of an egg. It lies near 4500 miles south-west of England.

This island is intersected with a ridge of steep rocks, heaped by the frequent earthquakes in a stupendous manner upon one another. These rocks, though containing no soil on their surface, are covered with a great variety of beautiful trees, flourishing in a perpetual spring; they are nourished by the rains which often fall, or the mists which continually brood on the mountains, and which, their root penetrating the crannies of the rocks, industriously seek out for their own support. From the rocks issue a vast number of small rivers of pure wholesome waters, which tumble down in cataracts, and together with the stupendous height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees through which they flow, form a most delightful landscape. On each side of this chain of mountains are ridges of lower ones, which diminish as they remove from it. On these coffee grows in great plenty. The valleys or plains between those ridges are level beyond what is ordinary in most other countries, and the soil is prodigiously fertile.

The longest day in summer is about thirteen hours, and the shortest in winter about eleven; but the most usual divisions of the seasons in the West Indies, are into the dry and wet seasons. The air of this island is, in most places, excessively hot, and unfavourable to European constitutions; but the cool sea-breezes, which set in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable: and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure, and cooling. It lightens almost every night, but without much thunder, which, when it happens, is very terrible, and roars with astonishing loudness; and the lightning in these violent storms frequently does great damage. In February or March, they expect earthquakes, of which we shall speak hereafter. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue sometimes for a fortnight together. In the plains are found several salt fountains; and in the mountains, not far from Spanish Town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtues. It gives relief in the dry belly-ach, which, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the most terrible endemial distempers of Jamaica.

Sugar is the greatest and most valuable production of this island. Cocoa was formerly cultivated in it to great extent. It produces also ginger, and the pimento, or, as it is called, Jamaica pepper; the wild cinnamon-tree, whose bark is so useful in medicine; the manchineel, whose fruit, though uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains one of the worst poisons in nature; the mahogany, in such use with our cabinet-makers, and of the most valuable quality; but this wood begins to wear out, and of late is very dear. Excellent cedars, of a large size and durable; the cabbage-tree, remarkable for the hardness of its wood, which when dry is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any kind of tool; the palma, affording oil, much esteemed by the savages, both in food and medicine; the soap-tree, whose berries answer all purposes of washing; the mangrove and olive-bark, useful to tanners; the fustic and red-

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wood to the dyers; and lately the logwood. The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated; and the cotton-tree is still so. No sort of European grain grows here; they have only maize, or Indian corn, Guinea corn, peas of various kinds, but none of them resembling ours, with variety of roots. Fruits, as has been already observed, grow in great plenty; citrons, Seville and China oranges, common and sweet lemons, limes, shadocks, pomegranates, mamees, fourfops, papas, pine-apples, custard apples, star-apples, prickly pears, allcada pears, melons, pom-pions, guavas, and several kinds of berries, also garden-stuffs in great plenty, and good. The cattle bred on this island are but few; their beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable; they have great plenty of hogs; many plantations have hundreds of them, and their flesh is exceedingly sweet and delicate. Their horses are small, mettlesome, and hardy, and, when well made, generally sell for 30 or 40*l.* sterling. Jamaica likewise supplies the apothecary with guaiacum, sarsaparilla, china, cassia, and tamarinds. Among the animals are the land and sea turtle, and the alligator. Here are all sorts of fowl, wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other islands; besides parroquets, pelicans, snipes, teal, Guinea hens, geese, ducks, and turkeys; the humming-bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fish. The mountains breed numberless adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marshes do the guana and the gallewasp; but these last are not venomous. Among the insects are the ciror, or chegoe, which eats into the nervous and membranous parts of the flesh of the negroes; and the white people are sometimes plagued with them. These insects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and shut themselves up in a bag. As soon as the person feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle, or point of a penknife, taking care to destroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. They sometimes get into the toes, and eat the flesh to the very bone.

This island was originally a part of the Spanish empire in America. Several descents had been made upon it by the English, prior to 1656; but it was not till this year that Jamaica was reduced under our dominion.—Cromwell had fitted out a squadron, under Penn and Venables, to reduce the Spanish island of Hispaniola, but there this squadron was unsuccessful. The commanders, of their own accord, to atone for this misfortune, made a descent on Jamaica, and having carried the capital, St. Jago, soon compelled the whole island to surrender. Ever since it has been subject to the English, and the government of it is one of the richest places, next to that of Ireland, in the disposal of the crown, the standing salary being 2,500*l.* per annum, and the assembly commonly voting the governor as much more; which, with the other perquisites, make it on the whole little inferior to 10,000*l.* per annum.

We have already observed, that the government of all the American islands is the same, namely, that kind which we have formerly described under the name of a royal government. Their religion too is universally of the church of England; though they have no bishop, the bishop of London's commissary being the chief religious magistrate in those parts.

About the beginning of this century, it was computed, that the number of whites in Jamaica amounted to 60,000, and that of the negroes to 120,000. At present the inhabitants are stated at 30,000 whites, 10,000 freed negroes and people of colour, and 250,000 negro slaves.

Indigo was once very much cultivated in Jamaica, and it enriched

the island to so great a degree, that in the parish of Vere, where this drug was chiefly cultivated, they are said to have had no less than 300 gentlemen's coaches; a number perhaps even the whole island exceeds not at this day; and there is great reason to believe, that there were many more persons of property in Jamaica formerly than there are now, though perhaps they had not those vast fortunes which dazzle us in such a manner at present. However, the Jamaicans were undoubtedly very numerous, until reduced by earthquakes, and by terrible epidemical diseases, which swept away vast multitudes. The decrease of inhabitants, as well as the decline of their commerce, arises from the difficulties to which their trade is exposed, of which they do not fail to complain to the court of Great Britain; that as they are of late deprived of the most beneficial part of their trade, the carrying of negroes and dry goods to the Spanish coast; the low value of their produce, which they ascribe to the great improvements the French make in their sugar colonies, who are enabled to undersell them by the lowness of their duties; and the trade carried on from Ireland and the northern colonies to the French and Dutch islands where they pay no duties, and are supplied with goods at an easier rate. Some of these complaints, which equally affect the other islands, have been heard, and some remedies applied; others remain unredressed. Both the logwood trade, and this contraband, have been the subjects of much contention, and the cause of a war between Great Britain and the Spanish nation.

Port Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It stood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the sea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The conveniency of this harbour, which was capable of containing a thousand sail of large ships, and of such depth as to allow them to load and unload at the greatest ease, induced the inhabitants to build their capital on this spot, though the place was a hot dry sand, and produced none of the necessaries of life, not even fresh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the resort of pirates, made it a place of great consideration. These pirates were called Buccaneers; they fought with an inconsiderate bravery, and then spent their fortune in this capital with an inconsiderate dissipation. About the beginning of the year 1692, no place, for its size, could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners. In the month of June, in this year, an earthquake, which shook the whole island to the foundations, totally overwhelmed this city, so as to leave, in one quarter, not even the smallest vestige remaining. In two minutes, the earth opened and swallowed up nine tenths of the houses, and two thousand people. The water gushed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people on heaps; but some of them had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters of houses, and were afterwards saved by boats. Several ships were cast away in the harbour, and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of sinking houses, and did not overset, but afforded a retreat to some hundreds of people, who saved their lives upon her. An officer, who was in the town at this time, says, the earth opened and shut very quick in some places, and he saw several people sink down to the middle, and others appeared with their heads just above ground, and were squeezed to death. At Savannah, above a thousand acres were sunk, with the houses and people in them; the place appearing for some time like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houses were seen. In some parts mountains were split; and at one place a plantation was removed to the distance of a mile. They again rebuilt the city; but it was a second time, tea

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years after, destroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour tempted them to build it once more; and once more, in 1722, was it laid in rubbish by a hurricane, the most terrible on record. Such repeated calamities seemed to mark out this place as a devoted spot; the inhabitants, therefore, resolved to forsake it for ever, and to reside at the opposite bay, where they built Kingston, which is lately become the capital of the island. It consists of upwards of one thousand houses, many of them handsomely built, and, in the taste of these islands, as well as the neighbouring continent, one story high, with porticos, and every convenience for a comfortable habitation in that climate. Not far from Kingston, stands St. Jago de la Vega, a Spanish town, which, though at present inferior to Kingston, was once the capital of Jamaica, and is still the seat of government, and the place where the courts of justice are held.

On the 3d of October, 1780, was a dreadful hurricane, which almost overwhelmed the little sea-port town of Savanna-la-Mar, in Jamaica, and part of the adjacent country. Very few houses were left standing, and a great number of lives were lost. Much damage was also done, and many persons perished, in other parts of the island.

The number of white inhabitants in this island in 1787 was 30,000; freed negroes 10,000; maroons 1400; and slaves 250,000; in all 304,000. The value of this island as British property is estimated as follows: 250,000 negroes, at 50*l.* sterling each, twelve millions and a half; the landed and personal property and building, to which they are appurtenant, twenty-five millions more; the houses and property in the towns, and the vessels employed in trade, one million and a half, in all thirty-nine millions. The exports of Jamaica for one year, ending the 5th of January 1788, amounted in sterling money to *£*.2,136,442, 17*s.* 3*d.* In 1787, the exports to the United States amounted to *£*.60,095, 18*s.* and importations from the United States to the value of 90,000*l.*

The whole produce of the island may be reduced to these heads: First, sugars, of which article was exported to Great Britain in 1787, 824,706 cwt. in 1790, 1,185,519 cwt. Most of this goes to London, Bristol, and Glasgow, and some part of it to North America, in return for the beef, pork, cheese, corn, peas, staves, planks, pitch, and tar, which they have from hence. Second, rum, of which they export about four thousand puncheons. The rum of this island is generally esteemed the best, and is the most used in Great Britain. Third, melasses, in which they make a great part of their returns for New England, where there are vast distilleries. All these are the produce of the grand staple, the sugar-cane. According to the late testimony of a respectable planter in Jamaica, that island has 280,000 acres in canes, of which 210,000 are annually cut, and make from 68 to 70,000 tons of sugar, and 4,200,000 gallons of rum. Fourth, cotton, of which they send out two thousand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconsiderable; but some cocoa and coffee are exported, with a considerable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, sweet-meats, mahogany, and manchineel planks. But some of the most considerable articles of their trade are with the Spanish continent of New Spain and Terra Firma; for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter, they carried on a vast and profitable trade in negroes, and all kinds of European goods. And even in time of war with Spain, this trade between Jamaica and the Spanish main goes on, which it will be impossible for Spain to stop, whilst it is so profitable to the British merchant, and whilst the Spanish officers, from the highest to the lowest, show so great a respect to presents pro-

perly made. Upon the whole, many of the people of Jamaica, whilst they appear to live in such a state of luxury, as in most other places leads to beggary, acquire great fortunes, in a manner instantly. Their equipages, their clothes, their furniture, their tables, all bear the tokens of the greatest wealth and profusion imaginable. This obliges all the treasure they receive to make but a very short stay, being hardly more than sufficient to answer the calls of their necessity and luxury on Europe and North America.

On Sundays, or court time, gentlemen wear wigs, and appear very gay in coats of silk, and vests trimmed with silver. At other times they generally wear only thread stockings, linen drawers, a vest, a Holland cap, and a hat upon it. Men servants wear a coarse linen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, long trowsers of the same, and a check shirt. The negroes, except those who attend gentlemen, who have them dressed in their own livery, have once a year Os naburghs, and a blanket for clothing, with a cap or handkerchief for the head. The morning habit of the ladies is a loose night-gown, carelessly wrapped about them; before dinner they put off their deshabille, and appear with a good grace in all the advantage of a rich and becoming dress.

The common drink of persons in affluent circumstances is Madeira wine mixed with water. Ale and claret are extravagantly dear; and London porter sells for a shilling per bottle. But the general drink, especially among those of inferior rank, is rum punch, which they call Kill-devil, because, being frequently drank to excess, it heats the blood, and brings on fevers, which in a few hours send them to the grave, especially those who are just come to the island; which is the reason that so many die here upon their first arrival.

English money is seldom seen here, the current coin being entirely Spanish. There is no place where silver is so plentiful, or has a quicker circulation. You cannot dine for less than a piece of eight, and the common rate of boarding is three pounds per week; though in the markets, beef, pork, fowl, and fish, may be bought as cheap as in London; but mutton sells at nine-pence per pound.

Learning is here at a very low ebb; there are indeed some gentlemen well versed in literature, and who send their children to Great Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education; but the bulk of the people take little care to improve their minds, being generally engaged in trade, or riotous dissipation.

The misery and hardships of the negroes are truly pitiable; and though great care is taken to make them propagate, the ill-treatment they receive so shortens their lives, that, instead of increasing by the course of nature, many thousands are annually imported to the West Indies, to supply the place of those who pine and die by the hardships they undergo. It is said, that they are stubborn and untractable for the most part, and that they must be ruled with a rod of iron; but they ought not to be crushed with it, or to be thought a sort of beasts, without souls, as some of their masters or overseers do at present, though some of these tyrants are themselves the dregs of this nation, and the refuse of the jails of Europe. Many of the negroes, however, who fall into the hands of gentlemen of humanity, find their situations easy and comfortable; and it has been observed, that in North America, where in general these poor wretches are better used, there is a less waste of negroes, they live longer, and propagate better. And it seems clear, from the whole course of history, that those nations which have behaved with the greatest humanity to their slaves, were always best served, and ran the least hazard from their rebellions.—The slaves, on their first arrival

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from the coast of Guinea, are exposed naked to sale; they are then generally very simple and innocent creatures, but they soon become roguish enough; and, when they come to be whipped, excuse their faults, by the example of the whites. They believe every negro returns to his native country after death. This thought is so agreeable, that it cheers the poor creatures, and renders the burthen of life easy, which would otherwise, to many of them, be quite intolerable. They look on death as a blessing, and it is surprizing to see with what courage and intrepidity some of them meet it; they are quite transported to think their slavery is near an end, that they shall revisit their native shore, and see their old friends and acquaintance. When a negro is about to expire, his fellow-slaves kiss him, and wish him a good journey, and send their hearty good-wishes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentations; but with a great deal of joy inter his body, believing he is gone home and happy.

BARBADOES.] This island, the most easterly of all the Caribbees, is situated in fifty-nine degrees west long. and thirteen degrees north lat. It is twenty-one miles in length, and in breadth fourteen. When the English, some time after the year 1625, first landed here, they found it the most savage and destitute place they had hitherto visited. It had not the least appearance of ever having been peopled even by savages. There was no kind of beasts of pasture or of prey, no fruit, no herb, nor root, fit for supporting the life of man. Yet as the climate was so good, and the soil appeared fertile, some gentlemen of small fortunes in England resolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were so large, and of a wood so hard and stubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was necessary for their subsistence. By unremitting perseverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable support; and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the soil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, answered tolerably. These prospects, together with the disputes between the king and parliament, which were beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to transport themselves into this island. And what is extremely remarkable, so great was the increase of people in Barbadoes, twenty-five years after its first settlement, that in 1650 it contained more than 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of negroes, and Indian slaves; the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour; for they seized upon all those unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring islands, and carried them into slavery: a practice which has rendered the Caribbee Indians irreconcilable to us ever since. They had begun, a little before this, to cultivate sugar, which soon rendered them extremely wealthy. The number of the slaves therefore was still augmented: and in 1676, it is supposed that their number amounted to 100,000, which, together with 50,000, make 150,000 on this small spot; a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world most renowned for numbers. At this time Barbadoes employed 400 sail of ships, one with another of 150 tons, in their trade. Their annual exports, in sugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, were above 350,000l. and their circulating cash at home was 200,000l. Such was the increase of population, trade, and wealth, in the course of fifty years. But since that time, this island has been much on the decline; which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French sugar colonies, and partly to our own establishments in the neighbouring isles. In 1786, the numbers were 16,167 whites; 838 free people of colour, and 62,115 negroes. Their commerce consists

in the same articles as formerly, though they deal in them to less extent. The capital is Bridgetown, where the governor resides, whose employment is said to be worth 5000l. per annum. They have a college founded and well endowed by colonel Codrington, who was a native of this island. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has suffered much by hurricanes, fires, and the plague. On the 10th of October, 1780, a dreadful hurricane occasioned vast devastation in Barbadoes, great numbers of the houses were destroyed; not one house in the island was wholly free from damage, many persons were buried in the ruins of the buildings, and great numbers were driven into the sea, and there perished.

[**ST. CHRISTOPHER'S.**] This island, commonly called by the sailors St. Kitt's, is situated in sixty-three degrees west long. and seventeen degrees north lat. about fourteen leagues from Antigua, and is twenty miles long and seven broad. It has its name from the famous Christopher Columbus, who discovered it for the Spaniards. That nation, however, abandoned it, as unworthy of their attention: and in 1626, it was settled by the French and English conjunctly; but entirely ceded to us by the peace of Utrecht. Besides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it generally produces near as much sugar as Barbadoes, and sometimes quite as much. It is computed that this island contains 6000 whites, and 36,000 negroes. In February, 1782, it was taken by the French, but was restored again to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace.

[**ANTIGUA.**] Situated in sixty-one degrees west long. and 17 deg. north lat. is of a circular form, near twenty miles over every way. This island, which was formerly thought useless, has now got the start of the rest of the English harbours, being the best and safest as a dock-yard, and an establishment for the royal navy; but St. John's is the port of greatest trade; and this capital, which, before the fire in 1769, was large and wealthy, is the ordinary seat of the governor of the Leeward Islands. In 1774, the white inhabitants in Antigua of all ages and sexes were 2,590, and the enslaved negroes 37,808.

[**NEVIS AND MONTserrat.**] Two small islands, lying between St. Christopher's and Antigua, neither of them exceeding eighteen miles in circumference. In the former of these islands the present number of whites is stated not to exceed six hundred, while the negroes amount to about ten thousand; a disproportion which necessarily converts all such white men as are not exempted by age and decrepitude into a well regulated militia, among which there is a troop consisting of fifty horse, well mounted and accoutred. English forces, on the British establishment, they have none. The inhabitants of Montserrat amount to 1,300 whites, and about 10,000 negroes. The soil in these islands is pretty much alike, light and sandy, but notwithstanding, fertile in a high degree; and their principal exports are derived from the sugar-cane. Both were taken by the French in the year 1782, but restored at the peace.

[**BARBUDA.**] Situated in eighteen degrees north lat. and sixty-two west long. thirty-five miles north of Antigua, is twenty miles in length, and twelve in breadth. It is fertile, and has an indifferent road for shipping, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in husbandry, and raising fresh provisions for the use of the neighbouring isles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitants amount to about 1500.

[**ANGUILLA.**] Situated in nineteen deg. north lat. sixty miles north west of St. Christopher's, is about thirty miles long and ten broad.

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This island is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the same with that of Jamaica.—The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themselves to husbandry, and feeding of cattle.

DOMINICA.] Situated in sixteen deg. north lat. and in sixty-two west. long. lies about half way between Guadalupe and Martinico. It is near twenty-eight miles in length, and thirteen in breadth; it got its name from being discovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The soil of this island is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of coffee than sugar; but the sides of the hills bear the finest trees in the West Indies, and the island is well supplied with rivulets of fine water. The French have always opposed our settling here, because it must cut off their communication, in time of war, between Martinico and Guadalupe. However, by the peace of Paris, in 1763, it was ceded in express terms to the English; but we have derived little advantage from this conquest, the island being, till lately, no better than a harbour for the natives of the other Caribbees, who being expelled their own settlements, have taken refuge here. But, on account of its situation between the principal French islands, and Prince Rupert's Bay being one of the most capacious in the West Indies, it has been judged expedient to form Dominica into a government of itself, and to declare it a free port. It was taken by the French in 1778; but was restored again to Great Britain by the late peace.

ST. VINCENT.] Situated in thirteen deg. north lat. and 61 deg. west long. fifty miles north-west of Barbadoes, thirty miles south of St. Lucia, is about twenty-four miles in length, and eighteen in breadth. It is extremely fruitful, being a black mould upon a strong loam, the most proper for the raising of sugar. Indigo thrives here remarkably well, but this article is less cultivated than formerly throughout the West Indies. Many of the inhabitants are Caribbeans, and many here are also fugitives from Barbadoes and the other islands. The Caribbeans were treated with so much injustice and barbarity, after this island came into possession of the English, to whom it was ceded by the peace in 1763, that they greatly contributed towards enabling the French to get possession of it again in 1779; but it was restored to Great Britain by the treaty of 1783.

GRANADA AND THE GRANADINES.] Granada is situated in twelve deg. north lat. and sixty-two deg. west long. about thirty leagues south-west of Barbadoes, and almost the same distance north of New Andalusia, or the Spanish Main. This island is said to be thirty miles in length, and fifteen in breadth. Experience has proved, that the soil is extremely proper for producing sugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it carries with it all the appearance of becoming as flourishing a colony as any in the West Indies, of its dimensions. A lake on the top of a hill, in the middle of the island, supplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilise it. Several bays and harbours lie round the island, some of which may be fortified with great advantage; which renders it very convenient for shipping; and it is not subject to hurricanes. St. George's bay has a sandy bottom, and is extremely capacious, but open. In its harbour or careening place, one hundred large vessels may be moored with perfect safety. This island was long the theatre of bloody wars between the native Indians and the French, during which these handful of Caribbees defended themselves with the most resolute bravery. In the last war but one, when Granada was attacked by the English, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were so amazed at the reduction of Guadalupe and Martinico, that they lost all spirit, and surrendered without making the

least opposition; and the full property of this island, together with the small islands on the north, called the Granadines, which yield the same produce, were confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of Paris, in 1763. But in July, 1779, the French made themselves masters of this island, though it was restored to Great Britain by the treaty of 1783.

NEWFOUNDLAND.] Exclusive of the West Indian sugar islands, lying between the two continents of America, Great Britain claims several others, that are seated at the distance of some thousand miles from each other, in this quarter of the globe, of which we shall speak, according to our method, beginning with the north.

Newfoundland is situated to the east of the Gulf of St. Laurence, between forty six and fifty-two deg. north lat. and between fifty-three and fifty-nine deg. west long, separated from Labrador, or New Britain, by the Straits of Belleisle, and from Canada by the bay of St. Laurence, being 350 miles long, and 200 broad. The coasts are extremely subject to fogs, attended with almost continual storms of snow and sleet, the sky being usually overcast. From the soil of this island, which is rocky and barren, we are far from reaping any sudden or great advantage, for the cold is long continued and severe; and the summer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable. However, it is watered by several good rivers, and has many large and good harbours. This island, whenever the continent shall come to fail of timber convenient to navigation (which on the sea-coast perhaps is no very remote prospect), it is said, will afford a large supply of masts, yards, and all sorts of lumber for the West India trade. But what at present it is chiefly valuable for, is the great fishery of cod, carried on upon those shoals, which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. Great Britain and North America, at the lowest computation, annually employ 3000 sail of small craft in this fishery: on board of which, and on shore to cure and pack the fish, are upwards of 10,000 hands; so that this fishery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a source of livelihood to so many thousands of poor people, and a most excellent nursery to the royal navy. This fishery is computed to increase the national stock 300,000l. a year in gold and silver, remitted to us for the cod we sell in the North, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty of cod both on the Great Bank and the lesser ones, which lie on the east and south-east of this island, is inconceivable; and not only cod, but several other species of fish, are caught there in abundance; all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the shores of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New England, and the Isle of Cape Breton; and very profitable fisheries are carried on upon all their coasts, from which we may observe that where our colonies are thinly peopled, or so barren as not to produce any thing from their soil, their coasts make us ample amends, and pour in upon us a wealth of another kind, and no way inferior to that arising from the most fertile soil.

This island, after various disputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England, by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern shores of the island; and by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fish in the gulf of St. Laurence, but with this limitation, that they should not approach within three leagues of any of the coasts belonging to England. The small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, situated to the southward of Newfoundland, were also ceded to the French, who stipulated to erect no fortifications on these islands, nor to keep more than fifty soldiers to enforce the police. By the last treaty of peace, the French are to enjoy

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the fisheries on the north and west coast of the island. The chief towns in Newfoundland are Placentia, Bonaville, and St. John; but not above 1600 families remain here in the winter.

[CAPE BRETON.] The island or rather collection of islands called by the French *Les Isles de Madame*, which lie so contiguous that they are commonly called but one, and comprehended under the name of the island of Cape Breton, lies between forty-five and forty-seven deg. north lat. and between fifty-nine and sixty deg. west long. from London. It is about one hundred miles in length, and fifty in breadth; and is separated from Nova Scotia by a narrow strait, called the *Gut of Canso*, which is the communication between the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of St. Laurence. The soil is barren, but it has good harbours, particularly that of Louisburg, which is near four leagues in circumference, and has every where six or seven fathoms water.

The French began a settlement in this island in 1714, which they continued to increase, and fortified it in 1720. They were, however, dispossessed in 1745, by the bravery of the inhabitants of New England, with little assistance from Great Britain; but it was again, by the treaty of Aix-la Chapelle, ceded to the French, who spared no expense to fortify and strengthen it. Notwithstanding which, it was again reduced, in 1748, by the British troops, under general Amherst and admiral Boscawen, together with a large body of New England men, who found in that place two hundred and twenty-one pieces of cannon, and eighteen mortars, together with a large quantity of ammunition and stores; and it was ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the peace of 1763, since which the fortifications have been blown up, and the town of Louisburg dismantled.

[ST. JOHN'S.] Situated in the gulf of St. Laurence, is about sixty miles in length, and thirty or forty broad, and has many fine rivers; and though lying near Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, has greatly the advantage of both in pleasantness and fertility of soil. Upon the reduction of Cape Breton, the inhabitants of this island, amounting to four thousand, submitted quietly to the British arms; and, to the disgrace of the French governor, there were found in his house several English scalps, which were brought there to market by the savages; this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on that barbarous and inhuman trade. This island was so well improved by the French, that it was styled the granary of Canada, which it furnished with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork. It has several fine rivers, and a rich soil. Charlotte-Town is its capital, and is the residence of the lieutenant-governor, who is the chief officer in the island. The inhabitants are estimated at about five thousand.

[BERMUDAS, OR SUMMER ISLANDS.] These received their first name from their being discovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard; and were called the Summer Islands, from sir George Summers, who was shipwrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his passage to Virginia. They are situated at a vast distance from any continent, in thirty two deg. north lat. and in sixty-five degrees west long. Their distance from the Land's End is computed to be near 1500 leagues, from the Madeiras about 1200, and from Carolina 300. The Bermudas are but small, not containing in all above 20,000 acres; and are very difficult of access, being, as Waller the poet, who resided some time there, expresses it, "walled with rocks." The air of these islands, which Waller celebrates in one of his poems, has been always esteemed extremely healthful; and the beauty and richness of the vegetable productions are perfectly delightful. Though the soil of these islands is admirably adapted to the

cultivation of the vine, the chief and only business of the inhabitants, who consist of about 10,000, is the building and navigating of light sloops and brigantines, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North America and the West Indies. These vessels are as remarkable for their swiftness, as the cedar, of which they are built, is for its hard and durable quality.

The town of St. George, which is the capital, is seated at the bottom of a haven in the island of the same name, and is defended with seven or eight forts, and seventy pieces of cannon. It contains above 1000 houses, a handsome church, and other elegant public buildings.

LUCAY'S, OR BAHAMA ISLANDS.] The Bahamas are situated to the south of Carolina, between twelve and twenty-seven degrees north lat. and seventy-three and eighty-one degrees west long. They extend along the coast of Florida quite down to the isle of Cuba; and are said to be 500 in number, some of them only mere rocks; but twelve of them are large, fertile, and in nothing different from the soil of Carolina; they are, however, almost uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles east of the Floridas; though some others are larger and more fertile, on which the English have plantations. Between them and the continent of Florida is the gulf of Bahama, or Florida, through which the Spanish galleons sail in their passage to Europe. These islands were the first fruits of Columbus's discoveries; but they were not known to the English till 1667, when captain Seyle, being driven among them in his passage to Carolina, gave his name to one of them; and being a second time driven upon it, gave it the name of Providence. The English, observing the advantageous situation of these islands for a check on the French and Spaniards, attempted to settle them in the reign of Charles II. Some unlucky incidents prevented this settlement from being of any advantage, and the Isle of Providence became a harbour for the buccaneers, or pirates, who for a long time infested the American navigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to send out captain Woodes Rogers with a fleet to dislodge the pirates, and for making a settlement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an independent company was stationed in the island. Ever since this last settlement these islands have been improving, though they advance but slowly. In time of war, people gain considerably by the prizes condemned there; and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and shelves. The Spaniards captured these islands during the last war, but they were retaken by a detachment from St. Augustine, April 7th, 1783.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.] Leaving the Bahama and West India islands, we shall now proceed along the south-east coast of America, as far as the fifty-second degree of south latitude, where the reader, by looking into the map, will perceive the Falkland Islands situated near the Straits of Magellan, at the utmost extremity of South America. Falkland Islands were first discovered by sir Richard Hawkins, in 1594, the principal of which he named Hawkins Maidenland, in honour of queen Elizabeth. The present English name, Falkland, was probably given them by captain Strong, in 1639, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into our maps. They have occasioned some contest between Spain and Great Britain, but being of very little worth, seem to have been silently abandoned by the latter, in 1774, in order to avoid giving umbrage to the Spanish court.

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SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 500	} between { 80 and 91 west longitude. } 25 and 32 north latitude. }	} 100,000
Breadth 440		

BOUNDARIES.] THIS country, which was ceded by Great Britain^d to Spain by the late treaty of peace, is bounded by Georgia on the north; by the Mississippi on the west; by the Gulf of Mexico on the south; and by the Bahama Straits on the east.

RIVERS.] There are the Mississippi, which is one of the finest in the world, as well as the largest; for, including its turnings and windings, it is supposed to run a course of 4500 miles; but its mouths are in a manner choaked up with sands and shoals, which deny access to vessels of any considerable burden; there being, according to Mitchel's map, only twelve feet water over the bar (captain Pitman says, seventeen) at the principal entrance. Within the bar there is 100 fathom water, and the channel is every where deep, and the current gentle, except at a certain season, when, like the Nile, it overflows and becomes extremely rapid. It is, except at the entrance already mentioned, every where free from shoals and cataracts, and navigable for craft of one kind or other almost to its source. The Mobile, the Apalachicola, and St. John's rivers, are also large and noble streams.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The principal bays are St. Bernard's, Ascension, Mobile, Pensacola, Dauphin, Joseph, Apalaxy, Spiritu Santo, and Charles Bay.

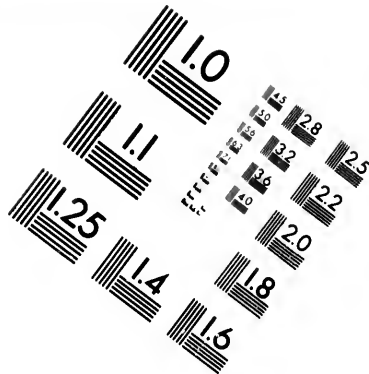
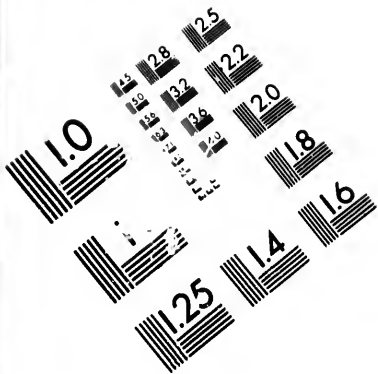
The chief capes are Cape Blanco, Samblas, Anclote, and Cape Florida, at the extremity of the peninsula.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Very various accounts have been given of these particulars in this country; but that the air of Florida is pure and wholesome, appears from the size, vigour, and longevity of the Floridian Indians, who, in these respects, far exceed their more southern neighbours, the Mexicans.

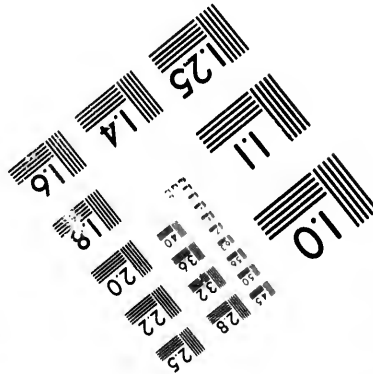
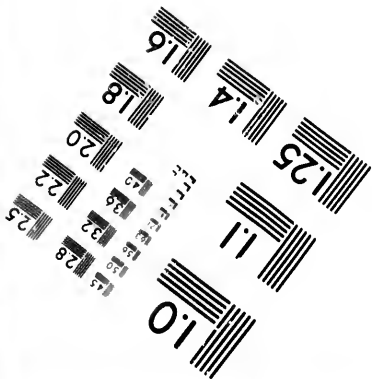
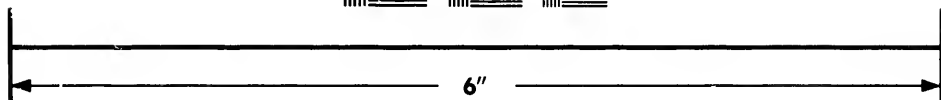
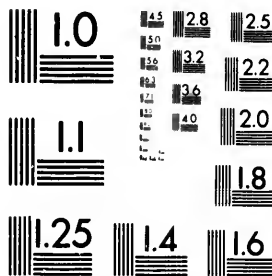
**SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, AND } East Florida, near the sea, and forty
FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } miles back, is flat and sandy. But even
the country round St. Augustine, in all appearance the worst in
the province, is far from being unfruitful; it produces two crops of In-
dian corn a-year; the garden vegetables are in great perfection; the
orange and lemon trees grow here, without cultivation, to a large size,
and produce better fruit than in Spain and Portugal. The inland coun-
try, towards the hills, is extremely rich and fertile, producing sponta-
neously the fruits, vegetables, and gums, that are common to Georgia
and the Carolinas; and is likewise favourable to the rearing of European
productions.**

This country also produces rice, indigo, ambergris, cochineal, amethysts, turquoises, lapis lazuli, and other precious stones; copper, quicksilver, pit-coal, and iron-ore: pearls are also found on the coast of Florida; mahogany grows on the southern parts of the peninsula, but inferior in size and quality to that of Jamaica. The animal creation are here so numerous, that you may purchase a good saddle





**IMAGE EVALUATION
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



**Photographic
Sciences
Corporation**

23 WEST MAIN STREET
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(716) 872-4503

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horse, in exchange for goods of five shillings value prime cost; and there are instances of horses being exchanged for a barrel per head.

Chief towns.] The chief town in West Florida is Pensacola, N. lat. 30-32, W. long. 87-20, which is situated within the bay of the same name, on a sandy shore that can only be approached by small vessels. The road is, however, one of the best in all the Gulf of Mexico, in which vessels may lie in safety against every kind of wind, being surrounded by land on every side.

St. Augustine, the capital of East Florida, N. lat. 29-45, W. long. 11-12, runs along the shore, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular streets, crossing each other at right angles. The town is fortified with bastions, and inclosed with a ditch. It is likewise defended by a castle, which is called Fort St. John; and the whole is furnished with cannon. At the entrance into the harbour are the north and south breakers, which form two channels, whose bars, at low tides, have eight feet water.

NEW MEXICO, INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles,	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2000 } between { 94 and 126 West long. }		600,000
Breadth 1400 } between { 23 and 43 North latitude. }		

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by unknown lands on the North; by Louisiana on the East; by Old Mexico, and the Pacific Ocean on the South; and by the same Ocean on the West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
North-east division	New Mexico Proper	SANTA FE, W. lon. 104, N. lat. 36.
South-east division	Apache	St. Antonio
South division	Sonora	Trape
Western division	California, a peninsula	St. Juan

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] These countries, lying for the most part within the temperate zone, have a climate in many places extremely agreeable, and a soil productive of every thing, either for profit or delight. In California, however, the heat is great in summer, particularly towards the sea-coast; but in the inland country the climate is more temperate, and in winter even cold.

FACE AND PRODUCE OF THE COUNTRY.] The natural history of these countries is as yet in its infancy. The Spaniards themselves know little of them, and the little they know they are unwilling to communicate. It is certain, however, that in general the provinces of New Mexico and California are extremely beautiful and pleasant; the face of the country is agreeably varied with plains, intersected by rivers, and adorned with gentle eminences covered with various kinds

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of trees, some producing excellent fruit. With respect to the value of the gold mines in these countries, nothing positive can be asserted. Their natural productions are undoubtedly sufficient to render them advantageous colonies to any but the Spaniards. In California there falls in the morning a great quantity of dew, which, settling on the red leaves, candies, and becomes hard like maza, having all the sweetness of refined sugar, without its whiteness. There is also another very singular natural production; in the heart of the country there are plains of salt, quite firm, and clear as crystal, which, considering the vast quantities of fish found on its coasts, might render it an invaluable acquisition to any industrious nation.

INHABITANTS, HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, AND COMMERCE. The Spanish settlements here are comparatively weak; though they are increasing every day, in proportion as new mines are discovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians whom the Spanish missionaries have in many places brought over to Christianity, to a civilised life, and to raise corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to Old Mexico. California was discovered by Cortez, the great conqueror of Mexico; our famous navigator, Sir Francis Drake, took possession of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king or chief in the whole country. This title, however, the government of Great Britain have not hitherto attempted to vindicate, though California is admirably situated for trade, and on its coast has a pearl fishery of great value. The inhabitants and government here do not materially differ from those of Old Mexico.

OLD MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2000	between { 83 and 110 W. long. } { 8 and 30 N. lat. }	318,000
Breadth 600		

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by New Mexico, or Granada, on the North; by the gulf of Mexico, on the North-east; by Terra Firma, on the south-east; by the Pacific Ocean, on the south-west; containing three audiences, viz.

- Audiences. Chief Towns.**
- 1. Galicia, or Guadaluajara. Guadaluajara
 - 2. Mexico Proper. Mexico, W. long 100. N. lat. 19-54
 - 3. Guatemala. Vera Cruz
 - Guatemala

This city was swallowed up by an earthquake on the 7th of June, 1773, when eight thousand families instantly perished. New Guatemala is built at some distance, and is well situated.

BAYS.] On the North Sea are the gulfs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras; in the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, are the bays of Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco, and Salinas.

CAPEs.] These are the Cape Sardo, Cape St. Martin, Cape Conduedo, Cape Catoche, Cape Honduras, Cape Cameron, and Cape Gracias Dios, in the North Sea.

Cape Marques, Cape Spirito Santo, Cape Corientes, Cape Gallero, Cape Blanco, Cape Burica, Cape Pruereos, and Cape Mala, in the South Sea.

WINDS.] In the Gulf of Mexico, and the adjacent seas, there are strong north winds from October to March, about the full and change of the moon. Trade winds prevail every where at a distance from land within the tropics. Near the coast, in the South Sea, they have periodical winds, viz. monsoons, and sea and land breezes, as in Asia.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Mexico lying for the most part within the torrid zone, is excessively hot; and on the eastern coast, where the land is low, marshy, and constantly flooded in the rainy seasons, it is likewise extremely unwholesome. The inland country, however, assumes a better aspect, and the air is of a milder temperament; on the western side, the land is not so low as on the eastern, much better in quality, and full of plantations. The soil of Mexico in general is of a good variety, and would not refuse any sort of grain, were the industry of the inhabitants to correspond with their natural advantages.

PRODUCE.] Mexico, like all the tropical countries, is rather more abundant in fruits than in grain. Pine-apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cocoa-nuts, are here in the greatest plenty and perfection. Mexico produces also a prodigious quantity of sugar, especially towards the gulf of Mexico, and the provinces of Guaxaca and Guatimala, so that here are more sugar-mills than in any other part of Spanish America. Cedar-trees and logwood abound about the bays of Campeachy and Honduras; the maho-tree also, which has a bark with such strong fibres, that they twist and make ropes of. They have also a tree, which is called light-wood, being as light as a cork, of which they make floats to carry their merchandise on the sea-coasts. But what is considered as the chief glory of this country, and what first induced the Spaniards to form settlements upon it, are the mines of gold and silver. The chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New Granada, bordering upon Darien and Terra Firma. Those of silver, which are much more rich, as well as numerous, are found in several parts; but in none so much as in the province of Mexico. The mines of both kinds are always found in the most barren and mountainous parts of the country; nature making amends in one respect for her defects in another. The working of the gold and silver mines depends on the same principles. When the ore is dug out, compounded of several heterogeneous substances mixed with the precious metals, it is broken into small pieces by a mill, and afterwards washed, by which means it is disengaged from the earth, and other soft bodies which cling to it. Then it is mixed with mercury, which, of all substances, has the strongest attraction for gold, and likewise a stronger attraction for silver than the other substances which are united with it in the ore. By means of the mercury, therefore, the gold and silver are first separated from the heterogeneous matter, and then by straining and eva-

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poration, they are difunited from the mercury itself. It has been computed that the revenues of Mexico amount to twenty-four millions of our money; and it is well known that this, with the other provinces of Spanish America, supply the whole world with silver. The other articles next in importance to gold and silver are the cochineal and cocoa. The former is of the animal kind, and of the species of the gall insects. It adheres to the plant called opuntia, and sucks the juice of the fruit, which is of a crimson colour. It is from this juice that the cochineal derives its value, which consists in dyeing all sorts of the finest scarlet, crimson, and purple. It is also used in medicine as a sudorific, and as a cordial; and it is computed that the Spaniards annually export no less than nine hundred thousand pounds weight of this commodity, to answer the purposes of medicine and dyeing. The cocoa, of which chocolate is made, grows on a tree of a middling size, which bears a pod about the size and shape of a cucumber, containing the cocoa. The Spanish commerce in this article is immense; and such is the internal consumption, as well as the external call for it, that a small garden of cocoas is said to produce to the owner twenty thousand crowns a-year. At home it makes a principal part of their diet, and is found wholesome, nutritious, and suitable to the climate. This country likewise produces silks, but not in such quantity as to make any remarkable part of their export. Cotton is here in great abundance, and on account of its lightness is the common wear of the inhabitants.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } We have already described the ori-
GOVERNMENT, AND MANNERS. } ginal inhabitants of Mexico, and the
conquest of that country by the Spaniards. The present inhabitants
may be divided into whites, Indians, and negroes. The whites are
either born in Old Spain, or they are Creoles, i. e. natives of Spanish
America. The former are chiefly employed in government or trade, and
have nearly the same character with the Spaniards in Europe; only a
still greater portion of pride, for they consider themselves as entitled
to very high distinction as natives of Europe, and look upon the other
inhabitants as many degrees beneath them. The Creoles have all the
bad qualities of the Spaniards, from whom they are descended, with-
out that courage, firmness, and patience, which constitute the praise-
worthy part of the Spanish character. Naturally weak and effeminate,
they dedicate the greatest part of their lives to loitering and inactive
pleasures. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expensive with
great parade and little convenience, their general character is no more
than a grave and specious insignificance. From idleness and constitu-
tion their whole business is amour and intrigue; and their ladies, of
consequence, are not at all distinguished for their chastity and do-
mestic virtues. The Indians, who, notwithstanding the devastations
of the first invaders, remain in great numbers, are become, by continual
oppression and indignity, a dejected, timorous, and miserable race of
mortals. The blacks here, like those in other parts of the world, are
stubborn, hardy, and as well adapted for the gross slavery they endure,
as any human creatures can be.

Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only in Mexico,
but the greatest part of Spanish America. The civil government is ad-
ministered by tribunals, called Audiences, which bear a resemblance to
the old parliaments in France. In these courts the viceroy of the king
of Spain presides. His employment is the greatest trust and power
which his Catholic majesty has in his disposal, and is perhaps the richest

government entrusted to any subject in the world. The greatness of the viceroy's office is diminished by the shortness of its duration. For as jealousy is the leading feature of Spanish politics in whatever regards America, no officer is allowed to retain his power for more than three years; which, no doubt, may have a good effect in securing the authority of the crown of Spain, but is attended with unhappy consequences to the miserable inhabitants, who become a prey to every new governor. The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico, and it has been computed, that priests, monks, and nuns of all orders, make upwards of a fifth of all the white inhabitants, both here and in the other parts of Spanish America. The people are superstitious, ignorant, rich, lazy, and licentious: with such materials to work upon, it is not remarkable, that the church should enjoy one-fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom.

COMMERCE, CITIES, AND SHIPPING.] The trade of Mexico consists of three great branches, which extend over the whole known world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by La Vera Cruz, situated on the Gulf of Mexico; with the East Indies, by Acapulco on the South Sea, and with South America by the same port. These two sea-ports, Vera Cruz and Acapulco, are wonderfully well situated for the commercial purposes to which they are applied. It is by means of the former, that Mexico pours her wealth over the whole world, and receives in return the numberless luxuries and necessaries which Europe affords to her, and which the indolence of her inhabitants will never permit them to acquire for themselves. To this port, the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, consisting of three men of war, as a convoy, and fourteen large merchant ships, annually arrive about the beginning of November. Its cargo consists of every commodity and manufacture of Europe, and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who send out little more than wine and oil. The profit of these, with the freight and commission to the merchants, and duty to the king, are almost the only advantages which Spain derives from her American commerce. When all the goods are landed and disposed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious stones, and other commodities for Europe. Some time in May they are ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz they sail to the Havannah, in the isle of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where they meet the galleons; another fleet, which carries on the trade of Terra Firma, by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all are collected, and provided with a convoy necessary for their safety, they steer for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the sea-port, by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spanish empire in America, and the East Indies. About the month of December, the great galleon, attended by a large ship as a convoy, annually arrives here. The cargoes of these ships (for the convoy, though in an under-hand manner, likewise carries goods) consist of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the East. At the same time the annual ship from Lima, the capital of Peru, comes in, and is not computed to bring less than two millions of pieces of eight in silver, besides quicksilver and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchase of the galleon's cargoes. Several other ships, from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the same occasion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world are bartered for one another, lasts thirty days. The galleon then prepares for her voyage, loaded with silver

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and such European goods as have been thought necessary. The Spaniards, though this trade be carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, are comparatively but small gainers by it. For as they allow the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial states, to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the flota, so the Spanish inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the same indolence which ruined their European ancestors, permit the Chinese merchants to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the galleon. Notwithstanding what has been said of Vera Cruz, and Acapulco, the city of Mexico, the capital of the empire, ought to be considered as the centre of commerce in this part of the world; for here the principal merchants reside, and the greatest part of the business is negotiated. The East-India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, all pass through this city. Hither all the gold and silver come to be coined; here the king's fifth is deposited, and here are wrought all the utensils and ornaments in plate which are every year sent to Europe. The city itself breathes the air of the highest magnificence, and according to the best accounts contains about 80,000 inhabitants.

**SPANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA,
TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.**

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 1400	} between	60 and 82 West long.	} the equator, and 12 N. lat.	} 700,000
Breadth 700				

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the North Sea (part of the Atlantic Ocean) on the North; by the same sea and Surinam on the East; by the country of the Amazons and Peru, on the South; and by the Pacific Ocean and New Spain, on the west.

Divisions.	Sub-divisions.	Chief Towns.
The northern division contains the provinces of	1. Terra Firma Proper, or Darien	Porto Bello PANAMA, W. long. 80-21. N. lat. 8-47.
	2. Carthagená	Carthagená
	3. St. Martha	St. Martha
	4. Rio de la Hacha	Rio de la Hacha
	5. Venezuela	Venezuela
	6. Comana	Comana
	7. New Andalusia, or Paria	St. Thomas
The southern division contains the provinces of	1. New Granada	Santa Fé de Bagota
	2. Popayan	Popayan

BAYS, CAPES, &c.] The Isthmus of Darien, or Terra Firma Proper, joins North and South America. A line drawn from Porto Bello in the north, to Panama in the South Sea, or rather a little west of these two towns, is the proper limit between North and South America, and here the isthmus or neck of land is only sixty miles over. The principal rivers are the Rio Grande, Darien, Chagre, and the Oronoque.

The principal bays in Terra Firma are, the bay of Panama, and the bay of St Michael's, in the South Sea; the bay of Porto Bello, the gulf of Darien, Sino bay, Cartagena bay and harbour, the gulf of Venezuela, the bay of Maracaibo, the gulf of Triesto, the bay of Guaira, the bay of Curiaco, and the gulf of Paria, or Andalusia, in the North Sea.

The chief capes are, Samblas point, Point Canoa, Cape del Agua, Swart point, Cape de Vela, Cape Conquibacoa, Cape Cabelo, Cape Blauco, Cape Galera, Cape Three Points, and Cape Nassau; all on the north shore of Terra Firma.

CLIMATE.] The climate here, particularly in the northern divisions, is extremely hot; and it was found by Ulloa, that the heat of the warmest day in Paris is continual in Cartagena; the excessive heats raise the vapour of the sea, which is precipitated in such rains as seem to threaten a general deluge. Great part of the country, therefore, is almost continually flooded; and this, together with the excessive heat, so impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholesome.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The soil of this country, like that of the greater part of South America, is wonderfully rich and fruitful. It is impossible to view, without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriance of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This, however, only applies to the inland country, for the coasts are generally barren sand, and incapable of bearing any species of grain. The trees most remarkable for their dimensions are the caobo, the cedar, the maria, and balsam tree. The manchineel tree is particularly remarkable: it bears a fruit resembling an apple, but which, under this specious appearance, contains the most subtil poison, against which common oil is found to be the best antidote. The malignity of this tree is such, that if a person only sleeps under it, he finds his body swelled, and is racked with the severest tortures. The beasts, from instinct, always avoid it. The Habelka de Cartagena is the fruit of a species of willow, and contains a kernel resembling an almond, but less white, and extremely bitter. This kernel is found to be an excellent and never-failing remedy for the bite of the most venomous reptiles and serpents, which are very frequent all over this country. There were formerly rich mines of gold here, which are now in a great measure exhausted. The silver, iron, and copper mines have been since opened, and the inhabitants find emeralds, sapphires, and other precious stones.

ANIMALS.] In treating of North America, we have taken notice of many of the animals that are found in the southern parts. Among those peculiar to this country, the most remarkable is the Sloth, or as it is called by way of derision, the Swift Peter. It bears a resemblance to an ordinary monkey in shape and size, but is of a most wretched appearance, with its bare hams and feet, and its skin all over

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corrugated. He stands in no need of either chain or hutch, never stirring unless compelled by hunger; and he is said to be several minutes in moving one of his legs, nor will blows make him mend his pace. When he moves, every effort is attended with such a plaintive, and at the same time, so disagreeable a cry, as at once produces pity and disgust. In this cry consists the whole defence of this wretched animal; for on the first hostile approach it is natural for him to be in motion, which is always accompanied with disgusting howlings, so that his pursuer flies much more speedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of this horrid noise. When this animal finds no wild fruits on the ground, he looks out with a great deal of pains for a tree well loaded, which he ascends with a world of uneasiness, moving, and crying, and stopping by turns. At length having mounted, he plucks off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to save himself such another troublesome journey; and rather than be fatigued with coming down the tree, he gathers himself into a bunch, and with a shriek drops to the ground.

The monkeys in these countries are very numerous; they keep together twenty or thirty in company, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree, and if they meet with a single person, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them; at least they chatter and make a frightful noise, throwing things at him; they hang themselves by the tail, on the boughs, and seem to threaten him all the way he passes: but where two or three people are together, they usually scamper away.

[NATIVES.] Besides the Indians in this country, who fall under the general description of the Americans, there is another species, of a different complexion, delicate habit, and of a smaller stature than the ordinary Indians. Their dispositions too are more soft and effeminate; the chief thing which principally distinguishes them is their large, weak, blue eyes, which, unable to bear the light of the sun, see best by moonlight, and from which they are therefore called Moon-eyed Indians.

[INHABITANTS, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS.] We have already mentioned how this country fell into the hands of the Spaniards. The inhabitants therefore do not materially differ from those of Mexico. To what we have observed with regard to this country, it is only necessary to add, that the original inhabitants of Spain are variously intermixed with the negroes and Indians. These intermixtures form various gradations, which are carefully distinguished from each other, because every person expects to be regarded in proportion as a greater share of the Spanish blood runs in his veins. The first distinction, arising from the intermarriage of the whites with the negroes, is that of the mulattoes, which is well known. Next to these are the *tercerones*, produced from a white and a mulatto. From the intermarriage with these and the whites, arise the *Quarterones*, who, though all near the former, are disgraced with a tint of the negro blood. But the produce of these and the whites are the *Quinterones*, who, it is said, are not to be distinguished from the real Spaniards, but by being of a still fairer complexion. The same gradations are formed in a contrary order, by the intermixture of the mulattoes and the negroes; besides these, there are a thousand others, hardly distinguishable by the names themselves. The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Carthagena, and Porto Bello, which are some of the most considerable cities in Spanish America; and each containing several thousand inhabitants. Here there are annual fairs

for American, Indian, and European commodities. Among the natural merchandise of Terra Firma, the pearls found on the coast, particularly in the bay of Panama, are not the least considerable. An immense number of negro slaves are employed in fishing for these, who have arrived at wonderful dexterity in this occupation. They are sometimes, however, devoured by fish, particularly the sharks, while they dive to the bottom, or are crushed against the shelves of the rocks. The government of Terra Firma is on the same footing with that of Mexico.

part of it is used for sugar, which is the principal article of its commerce. The soil is fertile, and the climate is temperate.

It is bounded by Terra Firma to the north, by the mountains of Cordillera de los Andes to the east, by the Pacific Ocean to the south, and by the Pacific Ocean to the west.

Length 1800 } **between** { **the equator and 25 S. lat.** } **Sq. Miles.**
Breadth 500 } { **60 and 81 W. long.** } **970,000**

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Terra Firma, on the North; by the mountains, or Cordelirias des Andes, east; by Chile South; and by the Pacific Ocean, West.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The northern division	Quito	Quito
		Payta
The middle division	Lima, or Los Royes	LIMA, 76-49 W. long 12-11 S. lat.
		Cusco, and Callao.
The southern division	Los Charcos	Potosi
		Porco

SEAS, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.] The only sea which borders on Peru is the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea. The principal bays and harbours are Payta, Malabrigo, Cuanchaco, Cosma, Vermeio, Guara, Callao the port town to Lima, Ylo, and Arica.

RIVERS.] The rivers Granada, or Cagdalená, Oronoque, Amazon or Plate, rise in the Andes. Many other rivers rise also in the Andes and fall into the Pacific Ocean, between the equator and eight degrees S. lat. There is said to be a river in Peru whose waters are as red blood; but the truth of this has been doubted.

PETRIFIED WATERS.] There are some waters, which, in their course, cover whatever they pass over with stone; and here are fountains of liquid matter, called coppey, resembling pitch and tar, and used by seamen for the same purpose.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Though Peru lies within the torrid zone, having on one side the South sea, and on the other the great ridge of the Andes, it is not so hot as other tropical countries. The sky which is generally cloudy, defends it from the direct rays of the sun; what is extremely singular, it never rains in Peru. This defect, however, is sufficiently supplied by a soft kindly dew which falls gradually every night on the ground, and so refreshes the plants and grows

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as to produce in many places the greatest fertility. Along the sea-coast, Peru is generally a dry barren land, except by the banks of rivers, where it is extremely fertile, as are all the low lands in the inland country.

ANIMAL, VEGETABLE, AND } There are many gold mines in the
MINERAL PRODUCTIONS. } northern part, not far from Lima. Silver too is produced in great abundance in various provinces; but the old mines are constantly decaying, and new ones daily opened. The towns shift with the mines. That of Potosi, when the silver there was found at the easiest expense (for now having gone so deep it is not so easily brought up), contained 90,000 souls, Spaniards and Indians, of which the latter were six to one. The northern part of Peru produces wine in great plenty. Wool is another article of its produce, and is no less remarkable for its fineness than for the animals on which it grows; these are the lamas and vicunna. The lama has a small head, resembling that of a horse and a sheep at the same time. It is about the size of a stag, its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it spits a kind of venomous juice, which inflames the part it falls on. The flesh of the lama is agreeable and salutary, and the animal is not only useful in affording wool and food, but also as a beast of burden. It can endure amazing fatigue, and will travel over the steepest mountains with a burden of sixty or seventy pounds. It feeds very sparingly, and never drinks. The vicunna is smaller and swifter than the lama, and produces wool still finer in quality. In the vicunna is found the bezoar stone, regarded as a specific against poison. The next great article in the produce and commerce of this country is the Peruvian bark, known better by the name of Jesuits' bark. The tree which produces this invaluable drug grows principally in the mountainous parts of Peru, and particularly in the province of Quito. The best bark is always produced in the high and rocky grounds; the tree which bears it, is about the size of a cherry tree, and produces a kind of fruit resembling the almond: but it is only the bark which has those excellent qualities that render it so useful in intermitting fevers, and other disorders to which daily experience extends the application of it. Guinea pepper, or Cayenne pepper, as we call it, is produced in the greatest abundance in the vale of Africa, a district in the southern parts of Peru, from whence they export it annually, to the value of 600,000 crowns. Peru is likewise the only part of Spanish America which produces quicksilver, an article of immense value, considering the various purposes to which it is applied, and especially the purification of gold and silver. The principal mine of this singular metal is at a place called Guancavelica, discovered in 1567, where it is found in a whitish mass resembling brick ill burned. This substance is volatilised by fire, and received in steam by a combination of glass vessels, where it condenses by means of a little water at the bottom of each vessel; and forms a pure heavy liquid. In Peru likewise is found the new substance called *platina*, which may be considered as an eighth metal, and from its superior qualities, may almost vie with gold itself.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, AND CITIES.] We join these articles because of their intimate connection; for, except in the cities we shall describe, there is no commerce worth mentioning. The city of Lima is the capital of Peru, and of the whole Spanish empire; its situation, in the middle of a spacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro, as the most proper for a city, which he expected would

preserve his memory. It is so well watered by the river Rimac, that the inhabitants, like those of London, command a stream, each for his own use. There are many very magnificent structures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houses in general are built of slight materials, the equality of the climate, and want of rain, rendering stone houses unnecessary; and, besides, it is found, that these are more apt to suffer by shocks of the earth, which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the sea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth one and a quarter. It contains about 60,000 inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to a sixth part. One remarkable fact is sufficient to demonstrate the wealth of this city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Palada, made his entry into Lima in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, caused the streets to be paved with ingots of silver, to the amount of seventeen millions sterling. All travellers speak with amazement of the decorations of the churches with gold, silver, and precious stones, which load and ornament even the walls. The merchants of Lima may be said to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the products of the southern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour of Lima, for such articles as the inhabitants of Peru stand in need of; the fleet from Europe, and the East Indies, land at the same harbour, and the commodities of Asia, Europe, and America, are there bartered for each other. What there is no immediate sale for, the merchants of Lima purchase on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouses, knowing that they must soon find an outlet for them, since by one channel or other they have a communication with almost every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the situation, and fertility of the climate of Lima, are not sufficient to compensate for one disaster, which always threatens, and has sometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, a most tremendous earthquake laid three-fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demolished Callao, the port town belonging to it. Never was any destruction more terrible or complete; not more than one of three thousand inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by a providence the most singular and extraordinary imaginable.—This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houses in the utmost terror and confusion; the sea, as usual on such occasions, receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, buried the inhabitants for ever in its bosom, and immediately all was silent; but the same wave which destroyed the town, drove a little boat by the place where the man stood, into which he threw himself, and was saved. Cusco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian empire, has already been taken notice of. As it lies in the mountainous country, and at a distance from the sea, it has been long on the decline; but it is still a very considerable place, and contains above 40,000 inhabitants, three parts Indian, and very industrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have also, both here and in Quito, a particular taste for painting; and their productions in this way, some of which have been admired in Italy, are dispersed all over South America. Quito is next to Lima in populousness, if not superior to it. It is, like Cusco, an inland city, and having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly

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mous for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which supply the consumption all over the kingdom of Peru.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND GOVERNMENT. It has been estimated by some writers, that in all Spanish America there are about three millions of Spaniards and Creoles of different colours; and undoubtedly the number of Indians is much greater; though neither in any respect proportionable to the wealth, fertility, and extent of the country. The manners of the inhabitants do not remarkably differ over the whole Spanish dominions. Pride and laziness are the two predominant passions. It is said, by the most authentic travellers, that the manners of Old Spain have degenerated in its colonies. The Creoles, and all the other descendents of the Spaniards, according to the above distinctions, are guilty of many mean and pilfering vices, which a true-born Castilian could not think of but with detestation. This, no doubt, in part arises from the contempt in which all but the real natives of Spain are held in the Indies, mankind generally behaving according to the treatment they meet with from others. In Lima the Spanish pride has made the greatest descents; and many of the first nobility are employed in commerce. It is in this city that the viceroy resides, whose authority extends over all Peru, except Quito, which has lately been detached from it. The viceroy is as absolute as the king of Spain; but as his territories are so extensive, it is necessary that he should part with a share of his authority to the several audiences or courts established over the kingdom. There is a treasury court established at Lima, for receiving the fifth of the produce of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the king of Spain.

C H I L I.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1200	between { 25 and 45 S. lat. 65 and 85 W. long. }	206,000
Breadth 500		

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Peru, on the North; by La Plata, on the East; by Patagonia on the South; and by the Pacific Ocean on the West.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
in the west side of the Andes.	Chili Proper	St. JAGO, W. long. 77. S. lat. 34.
		Baldivia Imperial
in the east side of the Andes.	Cuyo, or Cutio	St. John de Frontiera.

LAKES.] The principal lakes are those of Tagatagua near St. Jago, and that of Paren. Besides which, they have several salt-water lakes, that have a communication with the sea, part of the year. In stormy weather the sea forces a way through them, and leaves them full of

fish; but in the hot season the water congeals, leaving a crust of fine white salt a foot thick.

SEAS, RIVERS, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.] The only sea that borders upon Chili, is the Pacific Ocean on the west. The principal rivers are the Salado or Salt River, Guafco, Coquimbo, Chiapa, Bohio, and the Baldivia, all scarcely navigable but at their mouths.

The principal bays, or harbours, are Capiapo, Coquimbo, Govanadore, Valpariso, Jata, Conception, Santa Maria, La Moucha, Baldivia, Brewer's-haven, and Castro.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] These are not remarkably different from the same in Peru; and if there be any difference, it is in favour of Chili. There is indeed no part of the world more favoured than this is, with respect to the gifts of nature. For here, not only the tropical fruits, but all species of grain, of which a considerable part is exported, come to great perfection. Their animal productions are the same with those of Peru; and they have gold almost in every river.

INHABITANTS.] This country is very thinly inhabited. The original natives are still in a great measure unconquered and uncivilised; and leading a wandering life, attentive to no object but their preservation from the Spanish yoke, are in a very unfavourable condition with regard to population. The Spaniards do not amount to above 20,000; and the Indians, negroes, and mulattoes, are not supposed to be thrice that number. However, there have lately been some formidable insurrections against the Spaniards, by the natives of Chili, which greatly alarmed the Spanish court.

COMMERCE.] The foreign commerce of Chili is entirely confined to Peru, Panama, and some parts of Mexico. To the former they export annually corn sufficient for 60,000 men. Their other exports are hemp, which is raised in no other part of the South Seas; hides, tallow, and salted provisions; and they receive in return the commodities of Europe and the East Indies, which are brought to the port of Callao.

PARAGUAY, OR LA PLATA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1500	between { 12 and 37 S. lat. 50 and 75 W. long. }	} 1,000,000
Breadth 1000		

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Amazonia on the North; by Brazil on the east; by Patagonia on the South; and by Peru and Chili on the West.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
East division contains	Paraguay	Assumption
	Parana	St. Anne
	Guaira	Ciudad Real
	Uragua	Los Royes

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South division { Tucuman - - { St. Jago
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 57-54. S. lat. 34-35.

BAYS AND LAKES.] The principal bay is that at the mouth of the river La Plata, on which stands the capital city of Buenos Ayres; and Cape St. Antonio, at the entrance of that bay, is the only promontory. This country abounds with lakes, one of which, Cafacoroes, is 100 miles long.

RIVERS.] This country, besides an infinite number of small rivers, is watered by three principal ones, the Paragua, Uragua, and Parana, which, united near the sea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate River, and which annually overflow their banks; and, on their recess, leave them enriched with a slime that produces the greatest plenty of whatever is committed to it.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This vast tract is far from being wholly subdued or planted by the Spaniards. There are many parts in a great degree unknown to them, or to any other people in Europe. The principal province of which we have any knowledge, is that which is called Rio de la Plata, towards the mouth of the above-mentioned rivers. This province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continued level, not interrupted by the least hill for several hundred miles every way; extremely fertile, and producing cotton in great quantities; tobacco, and the valuable herb called Paraguay, with a variety of fruits, and prodigious rich pastures, in which are bred such herds of cattle, that it is said the hides of the beasts are all that is properly bought, the carcass being in a manner given into the bargain. A horse some time ago might be bought for a dollar; and the usual price for a bullock, chosen out of the herd of two or three hundred, was only four rials. But, contrary to the general nature of America, this country is destitute of woods. The air is remarkably sweet and serene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholesome.

FIRST SETTLEMENT, CHIEF CITY, AND COMMERCE.] The Spaniards first discovered this country, by sailing up the river La Plata, in 1515, and founded the town of Buenos Ayres, so called on account of the excellence of the air, on the south side of the river, 50 leagues within the mouth of it, where the river is seven leagues broad. This is one of the most considerable towns in South America, and the only place of traffic to the southward of Brasil. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru; but no regular fleet comes here, as to the other parts of Spanish America; two, or at most three, register ships, make the whole of their regular intercourse with Europe. Their returns are very valuable, consisting chiefly of the gold and silver of Chili and Peru, sugar and hides. Those who have now and then carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other whatever. The benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portuguese, who keep magazines for that purpose, in such parts of Brasil as lie near this country. The trade of Paraguay, and the manners of the people, are so much the same with those of the rest of the Spanish colonies in South America, that nothing farther can be said on those articles.

But we cannot quit this country without saying something of that extraordinary species of commonwealth, which the Jesuits erected in the interior parts, and of which these crafty priests endeavoured to keep all strangers in the dark.

About the middle of the last century, those fathers represented to the court of Spain, that their want of success in their missions was owing to the scandal which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their insolent behaviour caused in the Indians, wherever they came. They insinuated, that, if it were not for that impediment, the empire of the gospel might, by their labours, have been extended into the most unknown parts of America; and that all those countries might be subdued to his Catholic majesty's obedience, without expense, and without force. This remonstrance met with success; the sphere of their labours was marked out, and uncontrolled liberty was given to the Jesuits within these limits; and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, nor to suffer any Spaniards to enter this pale, without licence from the fathers. They, on their part, agreed to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock; and to send a certain number to the king's works whenever they should be demanded, and the missions should become populous enough to supply them.

On these terms the Jesuits gladly entered upon the scene of action, and opened their spiritual campaign. They began by gathering together about fifty wandering families, whom they persuaded to settle; and they united them into a little township. This was the slight foundation upon which they built a superstructure, which has amazed the world, and added so much power, at the same time that it occasioned so much envy and jealousy of their society. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with such indefatigable pains, and such masterly policy, that, by degrees, they mollified the minds of the most savage nations; fixed the most rambling, and subdued those to their government, who had long disdained to submit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portuguese. They prevailed upon thousands of various dispersed tribes to embrace their religion; and these soon induced others to follow their example, magnifying the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of the fathers.

Our limits do not permit us to trace, with precision, all the steps which were taken in the accomplishment of so extraordinary a conquest over the bodies and minds of so many people. The Jesuits left nothing undone that could confirm their subjection, or increase their numbers; and it is said, that above 340,000 families, several years ago, were subject to the Jesuits; living in obedience, and an awe bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or constraint: that the Indians were instructed in the military art with the most exact discipline, and could raise 60,000 men well armed; that they lived in towns; they were regularly clad; they laboured in agriculture; they exercised manufactures: some even aspired to the elegant arts; and that nothing could equal the obedience of the people or these missions, except their contentment under it. Some writers have treated the character of these Jesuits with great severity; accusing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to such an excess, as to cause not only persons of both sexes, but even the magistrates, who are always chosen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with stripes; and to suffer persons of the highest distinction, within their jurisdiction, to kiss the hem of their garments, as the greatest honour. The priests themselves possessed large property; all manufactures were theirs; the natural produce of the country was brought to them; and the treasures, annually remitted to the superior of the order, seemed to evince, that zeal for religion was not the only motive of their forming these missions.

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The fathers would not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Mestizos, or even Indians, to come within their missions in Paraguay. In the year 1757, when part of the territory was ceded by Spain to the court of Portugal, in exchange for Santo Sacramento, to make the Oragua the boundary of their possessions, the Jesuits refused to comply with this division, or to suffer themselves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own consent. And we were informed by authority of the Gazette, that the Indians actually took up arms; but notwithstanding the exactness of their discipline, they were easily, and with considerable slaughter, defeated by the European troops, who were sent to quell them. And, in 1767, the Jesuits were sent out of America, by royal authority, and their late subjects were put upon the same footing with the rest of the inhabitants of the country.

SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

CUBA.] The island of Cuba is situated between twenty and twenty-five deg. north lat. and between seventy-four and eighty-five deg. west long. one hundred miles to the south of Cape Florida, and seventy-five north of Jamaica, and is near seven hundred miles in length, and generally about seventy miles in breadth. A chain of hills runs through the middle of the island from east to west; but the land near the sea is in general level and flooded in the rainy season, when the sun is vertical. This noble island is supposed to have the best soil, for so large a country, of any in America. It produces all commodities known in the West Indies, particularly ginger, long pepper, and other spices, cassia fistula, mastic, and aloes. It also produces tobacco and sugar; but from the want of hands, and the laziness of the Spaniards, not in such quantities as might be expected. It is said that its exports do not equal in quantity those of our small island of Antigua.

The course of the rivers is too short to be of any consequence; but there are several good harbours in the island, which belong to the principal towns, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, strongly situated, and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich. That of the Havannah, facing Florida, which is the capital city of Cuba, and a place of great strength and importance, containing about 2000 houses, with a great number of convents and churches. It was taken, however, by the courage and perseverance of the English troops in the year 1762, but restored in the subsequent treaty of peace. Besides these, there is likewise Cumberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a considerable town thirty miles east of the Havannah.

PORTO RICO.] Situated between sixty-four and sixty-seven deg. west long. and in eighteen deg. north lat. lying between Hispaniola and St. Christopher's, is one hundred miles long and forty broad. The soil is beautifully diversified with woods, valleys, and plains; and is extremely fertile, producing the same fruits as the other islands. It is well watered with springs and rivers; but the island is unhealthy in the rainy seasons. It was on account of the gold that the Spaniards settled here; but there is no longer any considerable quantity of this metal found in it.

Porto Rico, the capital town, stands in a little island on the north side, forming a capacious harbour, and joined to the chief island by a causeway, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almost inaccessible. It was, however, taken by sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the earl of Cumberland. It is better inhabited than most of the Spanish towns, because it is the centre of the contraband trade carried on by the English and French with the king of Spain's subjects.

VIRGIN ISLANDS.] Situated at the east end of Porto Rico, are extremely small.

TRINIDAD.] Situated between fifty-nine and sixty-two deg. west long. and in ten deg. north lat. lies between the island of Tobago and the Spanish Main; from which it is separated by the Straits of Paria. It is about ninety miles long, and sixty broad; and is an unhealthy but fruitful soil, producing sugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, and some cotton trees, and Indian corn. It was taken by sir Walter Raleigh, in 1595, and by the French, in 1676, who plundered the island, and extorted money from the inhabitants. It was captured by the British arms in February, 1797.

MARGARETTA.] Situated in sixty-four deg. west long. and 11-30 north lat. separated from the northern coast of New Andalusia, in Terra Firma, by a strait of twenty-four miles, is about forty miles in length, and twenty-four in breadth; and being always verdant, affords a most agreeable prospect. The island abounds in pasture, in maize, and fruit; but there is a scarcity of wood and water. There was once a pearl fishery on its coast, which is now discontinued.

There are many other small islands in these seas, to which the Spaniards have paid no attention. We shall, therefore, proceed round Cape Horn into the South Seas, where the first Spanish island of any importance is CHILOE, on the coast of Chili, which has a governor, and some harbours well fortified.

JUAN FERNANDES.] Lying in eighty-three deg. west long. and thirty-three south lat. three hundred miles west of Chili. This island is uninhabited; but having some good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for the English cruisers to touch at and water. This island is famous for having given rise to the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. It seems, one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, was left ashore in this solitary place by his captain, where he lived some years, until he was discovered by captain Woodes Rogers, in 1709. When taken up, he had forgotten his native language, and could scarcely be understood, seeming to speak his words by halves. He was dressed in goats' skins, would drink nothing but water, and it was some time before he could reitish the ship's victuals. During his abode in this island, he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of these were caught thirty years after, by lord Anson's people; their venerable aspect, and majestic beards, discovered strong symptoms of antiquity. Selkirk, upon his return to England, was advised to publish an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He is said to have put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication. But that writer, by the help of these papers and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinson Crusoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again; so that the latter derived no advantage from them. They were probably too indigested for publication, and Defoe might derive little from them but those hints, which might give rise to his own celebrated performance.

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The other islands that are worth mentioning are, the Gallipago isles, situated four hundred miles west of Peru, under the equator; and those in the bay of Panama, called the King's or Pearl Islands.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA,

CONTAINING BRASIL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 2500 } between	{	the equator and 35 south latitude.
Breadth 700 }		35 and 60 west longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the mouth of the river Amazon, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the north; by the same ocean, on the east; by the mouth of the river Plata, on the south; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay and the country of Amazons, on the west.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Northern division contains the captainships of	Para - - -	Para, or Belim
	Marignan - - -	St. Lewis
	Siara - - -	Siara
	Petagues - - -	St. Lue
	Rio Grande - - -	Tignares
	Payraba - - -	Payraba
Middle division contains the captainships of	Tamara - - -	Tamara
	Pernambuco - - -	Olinda
	Serigippe - - -	Serigippe
	Bahia, or the bay of All Saints - - -	St. Salvador
	Ilheos - - -	Paya
Southern division contains the captainships of	Porto Seguro - - -	Porto Seguro
	Spirito Santo - - -	Spirito Santo
	Rio Janeiro - - -	St. Sebastian
	St. Vincent - - -	St. Vincent
	Del Rey - - -	St. Salvador.

On the coast are three small islands, where ships touch for provisions in their voyage to the South Seas, viz. Fernando, St. Barbara, and St. Catherine's.

SEAS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND CAPES. } The Atlantic Ocean washes the coast of Brasil on the north-east and east, upwards of 3000 miles, forming several fine bays and harbours: as the harbours of Pernambuco, All Saints, Porto Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of St. Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador, on the north shore of the river La Plata.

The principal capes are, Cape Roque, Cape St. Augustine, Cape Trio, and Cape St. Mary, the most southerly promontory of Brasil.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR, CLIMATE, AND RIVERS. } The name of Brasil was given to this country, because it was observed to abound with a wood of that name. To the northward of Brasil, which

lies almost under the equator; the climate is hot, boisterous, and unwholesome, subject to great rains and variable winds, particularly in the months of March and September, when they have such deluges of rain, with storms and tornadoes, that the country is overflowed. But to the southward, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, there is no part of the world that enjoys a more serene and wholesome air, refreshed with the soft breezes of the ocean on one hand, and the cool breath of the mountains on the other. The land near the coast is in general rather low than high, but exceedingly pleasant, it being interspersed with meadows and woods; but on the west, far within land, are mountains from whence issue many noble streams, that fall into the great rivers Amazon and La Plata; others running across the country from east to west till they fall into the Atlantic Ocean, after meliorating the lands which they annually overflow, and turning the sugar-mills belonging to the Portuguese.

SOIL AND PRODUCE. In general the soil is extremely fruitful, producing sugar, which being clayed, is whiter and finer than our muscovado, as we call our unrefined sugar; also tobacco, hides, indigo, ipecacuanha, balsam of Copaibo, Brasil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly used in dyeing, but not the red of the best kind; it has likewise some place in medicine, as a stomachic and restraining.

The animals here are the same as in Peru and Mexico. The produce of the soil was found very sufficient for subsisting the inhabitants until the mines of gold and diamonds were discovered; these, with the sugar plantations, occupy so many hands, that agriculture lies neglected; and, in consequence, Brasil depends upon Europe for its daily food.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } The portrait given us of the manners and customs of the Portuguese in America, by the most judicious travellers, is very far from being favourable. They are described as a people, who, while sunk in the most effeminate luxury, practise the most desperate crimes; of a temper hypocritical and dissembling; of little sincerity in conversation, or honesty in dealing; lazy, proud, and cruel; in their diet penurious; for, like the inhabitants of most southern climates, they are much more fond of show, state, and attendance, than of the pleasures of free society, and of a good table; yet their feasts, which are seldom made, are sumptuous to extravagance. When they appear abroad, they cause themselves to be carried out in a kind of cotton hammocks, called serpentines, which are borne on the negroes' shoulders, by the help of a bamboo, about twelve or fourteen feet long. Most of these hammocks are blue, and adorned with fringes of the same colour: they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind of tester, with curtains; so that the person carried cannot be seen, unless he pleases; but may either lie down or sit up, leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be seen, he pulls the curtain aside, and salutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the streets; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and will even hold long conferences in them in the streets; but then the two slaves who carry them, make use of a strong well-made staff, with an iron fork at the upper end, and pointed below with iron: this they stick fast in the ground, and rest the bamboo, to which the hammock is fixed, on two of these, till their master's business or compliment is over. Scarcely any man of fashion, or any lady, will pass the streets without being carried in this manner.

TRADE AND CHIEF TOWNS.] The trade of Portugal is carried on upon the same exclusive plan on which the several nations of Europe

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tremitary; In this the city of Portugal has a harbour on one side,

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trade with their colonies of America; and it more particularly resembles the Spanish method, in not sending out single ships, as the convenience of the several places, and the judgment of the European merchants, may direct; but by annual fleets, which sail at stated times from Portugal, and compose three *flotas*, bound to as many ports in Brasil; namely, to Pernambuco, in the northern part; to Rio Janeiro, at the southern extremity; and to the Bay of All Saints, in the middle.

In this last is the capital, which is called St. Salvador, and sometimes the city of Bahia, where all the fleets rendez-vous on their return to Portugal. This city commands a noble, spacious, and commodious harbour. It is built upon a high and steep rock, having the sea upon one side, and a lake, forming a crescent, investing it almost wholly, so as nearly to join the sea, on the other. The situation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature; and they have besides added to it very strong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and, beyond comparison, the most gay and opulent city in all Brasil.

The trade of Brasil is very great, and increases every year; which is the less surprising, as the Portuguese have opportunities of supplying themselves with slaves for their several works at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has settlements in America; they being the only European nation that has established colonies in Africa, whence they import between forty and fifty thousand negroes annually, all of which go into the amount of the cargo of the Brasil fleets for Europe. Of the diamonds, there is supposed to be returned to Europe to the amount of 130,000*l*. This, with the sugar, the tobacco, the hides, and the valuable drugs for medicine and manufactures, may give some idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.

The chief commodities the European ships carry thither in return, are not the fiftieth part of the produce of Portugal; they consist of woollen goods of all kinds from England, France, and Holland; the linen and laces of Holland, France, and Germany; the silks of France and Italy; silk and thread stockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all sorts of utensils wrought in these metals, from England; as well as salt-fish, beef, flour, and cheese; oil they have from Spain; wine, with some fruit, is nearly all they are supplied with from Portugal. England is at present most interested in the trade of Portugal, both for home consumption, and what they want for the use of the Brasils.

Brasil is a very wealthy and flourishing settlement. Their export of sugar, within forty years, is grown much greater than it was, though anciently it made almost the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in the trade. Their tobacco is remarkably good, though not raised in such large quantities as in the United States. The northern and southern parts of Brasil abound with horned cattle: these are hunted for their hides only, of which no less than twenty thousand are sent annually to Europe.

The Portuguese had been long in possession of Brasil before they discovered the treasures of gold and diamonds, which have since made it so considerable. Their fleets rendez-vous in the Bay of All Saints, to the amount of one hundred sail of large ships, in the month of May or June, and carry to Europe a cargo little inferior in value to the treasures of the Spanish *flota* and galleons. The gold alone, great part of which is coined in America, amounts to near four millions sterling; but part of this is brought from their colonies in Africa, together with ebony and ivory.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] This country was first discovered by Americus Vesputio, in 1498; but the Portuguese did not plant it till 1549, when they fixed themselves at the bay of All Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. They met with some interruption at first from the court of Spain, who considered the whole continent of South America as belonging to them. However, the affair was at length made up by treaty; and it was agreed that the Portuguese should possess all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and Plata, which they still enjoy. The French also made some attempts to plant colonies on this coast, but were driven from thence by the Portuguese, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when, in the very meridian of prosperity, they were struck by one of those blows which generally decide the fate of kingdoms: Don Sebastian, the king of Portugal, lost his life in an expedition against the Moors in Africa, and by that event the Portuguese lost their independence, being absorbed into the Spanish dominions.

The Dutch, soon after this, having thrown off the Spanish yoke, and being not satisfied with supporting their independence by a successful defensive war, but flushed with the juvenile ardor of a growing commonwealth, pursued the Spaniards into the remotest recesses of their extensive territories, and grew rich, powerful, and terrible, by the spoils of their former masters. They particularly attacked the possessions of the Portuguese; they took almost all their fortresses in the East Indies, and then turned their arms upon Brasil, where they took seven of the captainships, or provinces; and would have subdued the whole colony, had not their career been stopped by the archbishop, at the head of his monks, and a few scattered forces. The Dutch were, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Brasil; but their West India company still continuing their pretensions to this country, and harassing the Portuguese at sea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold, to relinquish their interest in that country, which was accepted; and the Portuguese have remained in peaceable possession of all Brasil from that time, till about the end of the year 1762, when the Spanish governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's siege, the Portuguese frontier fortress called St. Sacramento; but, by the treaty of peace, it was restored.

FRENCH AMERICA.

THE possessions of the French on the continent of America are at present inconsiderable. They were masters of Canada and Louisiana; but they have now lost all footing in North America; though on the southern continent they have still a settlement, which is called

CAYENNE, or EQUINOCTIAL FRANCE.

IT is situated between the equator and fifth degree of north latitude, and between the fiftieth and fifty-fifth of west longitude. It extends two hundred and forty miles along the coast of Guiana, and near three hundred miles within land; bounded by Surinam, on the north;

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by the Atlantic Ocean, east; by Amazonia, south; and by Guiana, west. The chief town is Caen. All the coast is very low, but within land there are fine hills very proper for settlements; the French have, however, not yet extended them so far as they might; but they raise the same commodities which they have from the West India islands, and in no inconsiderable quantity. They have also taken possession of the island of Cayenne, on this coast, at the mouth of the river of that name, which is about forty-five miles in circumference. The island is very unhealthy; but having some good harbours, the French have here some settlements, which raise sugar and coffee.

FRENCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

THE French were among the last nations who made settlements in the West Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they pursued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable measures which they used in drawing from them every advantage that the nature of the climate would yield; and in contending against the difficulties which it threw in their way.

[ST. DOMINGO, or HISPANIOLA.] This island was at first possessed by the Spaniards alone; but by far the most considerable part has been long in the hands of the French, to whom the Spanish part was likewise ceded by the treaty of peace between the two nations in 1795. It must now, therefore, be considered as a French island.

It is situated between the seventeenth and twenty-first deg. north lat. and the sixty-seventh and seventy-fourth of west long. lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto Rico, and is 450 miles long, and 150 broad. When Hispaniola was first discovered by Columbus, the number of its inhabitants was computed to be at least a million. But such was the cruelty of the Spaniards, and to so infamous a height did they carry their oppression of the poor natives, that they were reduced to sixty thousand in the space of fifteen years. The face of the island presents an agreeable variety of hills, valleys, woods, and rivers; and the soil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and cassava root. The European cattle are so multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and, as in South America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the most barren parts of the rocks, they discovered formerly silver and gold. The mines, however, are not worked now. The north-west parts, which were in the possession of the French, consist of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vast abundance. This indeed is the best and most fruitful part of the best and most fertile island in the West Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The population of this island was estimated, in 1788, at 27,717 white people; 21,808 free people of colour; and 405,528 slaves. Its trade employed 580 large ships, carrying 189,679 tons, in which the imports amounted to twelve millions of dollars, of which more than eight millions were in manufactured goods of France, and the other four millions in French produce. The Spanish ships exported, in French goods or money, 1,400,000 dollars, for mules imported by them into the colony; ninety-eight French ships, carrying 40,130 tons, imported 26,506 negroes, who sold for eight millions of dollars.

The most ancient town in this island, and in all the New World, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic, and by which the whole island is named, especially by the French. It is situated on a spacious harbour, and is a large, well-built city, inhabited, like the other Spanish towns, by a mixture of Europeans, Creoles, Mulattoes, Mestizos, and Negroes.

The French towns are, Cape François, the capital, which is neither walled nor paled in, and is said to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town. Before its destruction in 1793, it contained about eight thousand inhabitants, whites, people of colour, and slaves. It is the governor's residence in time of war, as Port-au-Prince is in time of peace. The Mole, though inferior to these, in other respects, is the first port in the island for safety in time of war, being by nature and art strongly fortified. The other towns and ports of any note are, Fort Dauphin, St. Mark, Leogane, Petit Goave, Jeremie, Les Cayes, St. Louis, and Jacmel.

In the night between the 22d and 23d of August, 1791, a most alarming insurrection of the negroes began on the French plantations upon this island. A scene of the most horrid cruelties ensued. In a little time no less than one hundred thousand negroes were in rebellion, and all the manufactories and plantations of more than half the northern province appeared as one general conflagration. The plains and the mountains were filled with carnage and deluged with blood. In this dreadful conflict, which has been of long continuance, the white colonists of St. Domingo have been extirpated or expelled, and the whole power of the island consequently vested in the mulattoes, the negroes, and the lower classes of the French inhabitants. The sovereign authority has fallen into the hands of some of the people of colour; the negroes who were slaves have been, during the greater part of the six years which have nearly elapsed since this change was effected, emancipated from their chains, and the majority of them trained to arms. In a word, it is the decided opinion of the best and most competent judges, that all the powers of Europe, combined, could not now frustrate the views of the people of colour in St. Domingo; and that a few years will present us with the new and perhaps formidable phenomenon of a black republic, constituted in the noblest island of the western ocean, in alliance with America, and only connected with that continent.

In the month of October, 1793, the English effected a landing on this island, and made themselves masters of Jeremie, Cape Tiburon, the Mole, and several other places on the coast. The troops, however, suffered greatly by the unhealthiness of the climate: several of the places they had gained possession of were soon retaken, nor could they have retained the others, had it not been for the contests and mutual jealousies of the whites and people of colour.

MARTINICO, which is situated between fourteen and fifteen degrees of north latitude, and in sixty-one degrees west longitude, lying about forty leagues north-west of Barbadoes, is about sixty miles in length, and half as much in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, from which are poured out, on every side, a number of agreeable and useful rivers, which adorn and enrich this island in a high degree. The produce of the soil is sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, and such fruits as are found in the neighbouring islands. But sugar is here, as in all the West India islands, the principal commodity, of which they export a considerable quantity annually. Martinico was the residence of the

governor of numerous, to bid defiance. However, in every quarter, but it by the English.

GUADA of its mount grees north north of Ma five miles long a small arm ships can ver is equally fertile, indigo, ginger, ports of sugar, attacked by the reduced by th It was again months after.

St. LUCIA ty-one degree twenty-three name from St. Lucia. T time they met and at length this island, together. But these islands; Britain, and th is extremely riant rivers, ar under certain in 1778; but by the English re-captured by

TOBAGO latitude, one the same dista in length, and be expected fo course of thos other West-Ind sugar, and ind the addition (i and gum-copa and creeks are shipping. Thensive and fo support of the y the Dutch; France with th chapel, in 1

governor of the French islands in these seas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, safe, and commodious, and so well fortified, that they used to bid defiance to the English, who, in vain, often attempted this place. However, in the war of 1756, when the British arms were triumphant in every quarter of the globe, this island was added to the British empire, but it was given back at the treaty of peace. It was again taken by the English in 1794.

GUADALOUPE.] So called by Columbus, from the resemblance of its mountains to those of that name in Spain, is situated in sixteen degrees north latitude, and in sixty-two west longitude, about thirty leagues north of Martinico, and almost as much south of Antigua; being forty-five miles long, and thirty-eight broad.—It is divided into two parts by a small arm of the sea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ships can venture; but the inhabitants pass it in a ferry boat. Its soil is equally fertile with that of Martinico, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. This island is in a flourishing condition, and its exports of sugar almost incredible. Like Martinico, it was formerly attacked by the English, who gave up the attempt; but in 1759, it was reduced by the British arms, and was given back at the peace of 1763. It was again reduced by the English in 1794, but evacuated a few months after.

St. LUCIA.] Situated in fourteen degrees north latitude, and in sixty-one degrees west longitude; eighty miles north-west of Barbadoes, is twenty-three miles in length, and twelve in breadth. It received its name from being discovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr, St. Lucia. The English first settled on this island, in 1637. From this time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French; and at length it was agreed on between the latter and the English, that this island, together with Dominica and St. Vincent, should remain neutral. But the French, before the war of 1756 broke out, began to settle these islands; which, by the treaty of peace, were yielded up to Great Britain, and this island to France. The soil of St. Lucia, in the valleys, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds in pleasant rivers, and well situated harbours; and is now declared a free port under certain restrictions. The English made themselves masters of it in 1778; but it was restored again to the French in 1783. It was taken by the English in 1794, surrendered again to the French in 1795, and re-captured by Great Britain in 1796.

TOBAGO.] This island is situated eleven degrees odd min. north latitude, one hundred and twenty miles south of Barbadoes, and about the same distance from the Spanish main. It is about thirty-two miles in length, and nine in breadth. The climate here is not so hot as might be expected for near the equator; and it is said that it lies out of the course of those hurricanes that have sometimes proved so fatal to the other West-India islands. It has a fruitful soil capable of producing sugar, and indeed every thing else that is raised in the West Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal. It is well watered with numerous springs; and its bays and creeks are so disposed as to be very commodious for all kinds of shipping. The value and importance of this island appear from the expensive and formidable armaments sent thither by European powers in support of their different claims. It seems to have been chiefly possessed by the Dutch, who defended their pretensions against both England and France with the most obstinate perseverance. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; but by the treaty of peace,

in 1763, it was yielded up to Great Britain. In June 1781, it was taken by the French; and was ceded to them by the treaty of 1782. In 1793 it was again captured by the British arms.

St. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, } are three small islands ly-
AND MARIGALANTE, } ing in the neighbourhood
of Antigua and St. Christopher's, and of no great consequence to the
French, except in time of war, when they give shelter to an incredible
number of privateers, which greatly annoy our West-India trade. The
former was given to Sweden in 1785.

The small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, situated near Newfoundland, have been already mentioned in our account of that island, p. 918.

DUTCH AMERICA,

containing SURINAM, on the Continent of SOUTH AMERICA.

AFTER the Portuguese had dispossessed the Dutch of Brazil in the manner we have seen; and after they had been entirely removed out of North America, they were obliged to console themselves with their rich possessions in the East Indies, and to sit down content in the West with Surinam; a country once in the possession of England, but of no great value whilst we had it, and which we ceded to them in exchange for New York; with two or three small and barren islands in the north sea, not far from the Spanish main.

Dutch Guiana is situated between five and seven degrees north lat. extending 100 miles along the coast from the mouth of the river Orinocoque, north, to the river Maroni, or French Guiana, south. The climate of this country is generally reckoned unwholesome; and a considerable part of the coast is low, and covered with water. The chief settlement is at Surinam, a town built on a river of the same name, and the Dutch have extended their plantations 30 leagues above the mouth of this river. This is one of the richest and most valuable colonies belonging to the United Provinces; but it is in a less prosperous situation than it was some years since, owing, among other causes, to the wars with the fugitive negroes, whom the Dutch treated with great barbarity, and who are become so numerous, having increased from year to year, that they have formed a kind of colony in the woods which are almost inaccessible, along the rivers of Surinam, Saramacca, and Copename, and are become very formidable enemies to their former masters. Under the command of chiefs whom they have elected among themselves, they have cultivated lands for their subsistence, and make frequent incursions into the neighbouring plantations. The chief trade of Surinam consists in sugar, a great deal of cotton, coffee of an excellent kind, tobacco, flax, skins, and some valuable drying drugs. They trade with the North American colonies, who bring them horses, live cattle, and provisions; and take home a large quantity of molasses.

Connected with Surinam, we shall mention the two Dutch colonies of Demerary and Isequoibo on the Spanish main, which surrendered to the English, in the year 1781, and were represented as a very valuable

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acquisition, which would produce more revenue to the crown than all the British West-India islands united. But the report was either not believed or slighted, for the colonies were left defenceless, and soon were retaken by a French frigate. In the present war, however, they again surrendered to the British arms, April 21, 1796.

Dr. Bancroft observes, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are either whites, blacks, or the reddish-brown aboriginal natives of America. The promiscuous intercourse of these different people has likewise generated several intermediate casts, whose colours immutably depend on their degree of consanguinity to either whites, Indians, or negroes. These are divided into Mulattoes, Tercerones, Quarterones, and Quinterones, with several intermediate subdivisions, proceeding from their retrograde intercourse. There are so great a number of birds, of various species, and remarkable for the beauty of their plumage, in Guiana, that several persons in this colony have employed themselves advantageously, with their slaves and dependents, in killing and preserving birds for the cabinets of naturalists in different parts of Europe. The torporific eel is found in the rivers of Guiana, which, when touched either by the hand, or by a rod of iron, gold, silver, copper, or by a stick of some particular kinds of heavy American wood, communicates a shock perfectly resembling that of electricity. There are an immense number and variety of snakes in this country, which form one of its principal inconveniences. A snake was killed some years since, on a plantation which had belonged to Peter Amyatt, esq. which was upwards of thirty-three feet in length, and in the largest place near the middle three feet in circumference. It had a broad head, large prominent eyes, and a very wide mouth, in which was a double row of teeth. Among the animals of Dutch Guiana, is the Laubba, which is peculiar to this country. It is a small amphibious creature, about the size of a pig four months old, covered with fine short hair; and its flesh, by the Europeans who reside here, is preferred to all other kinds of meat.

DUTCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

EUSTATIUS, } SITUATED in $17^{\circ} 29' N.$ lat. $63^{\circ} 10' W.$ long,
or **EUSTATIA,** } and three leagues north-west of St. Christopher's,
only a mountain, about twenty-nine miles in compass, rising out of the sea like a pyramid, and almost round. But though so small, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the industry of the Dutch has made it turn to very good account, and it is said to contain 5000 whites, 15,000 negroes. The sides of the mountain are disposed in very happy settlements; but they have neither springs nor rivers. They have here sugar and tobacco; and this island, as well as Curassou, is engaged in the Spanish contraband trade, for which, however, it is not well situated; and it has drawn the same advantage from its constant proximity. But when hostilities were commenced by Great Britain against Holland, admiral Rodney was sent with a considerable land and sea force against St. Eustatius, which, being incapable of any defence, was surrendered at discretion, on the 3d of February, 1781. The private property of the inhabitants was confiscated, with a degree of rigour uncommon among civilized nations, and very inconsistent with

the humanity and generosity by which the English nation were formerly characterised. The reason assigned was, that the inhabitants of St. Eustatius had assisted the revolted colonies with naval and other stores. But on the 27th of November, the same year, St. Eustatius was retaken by the French, under the command of the marquis de Bouillé, though their force consisted of only three frigates and some small craft, and about 300 men.

CURASSOU.] Situated in 12 degrees north lat. 9 or 10 leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is 30 miles long, and 10 broad. It seems as if it were fated, that the ingenuity and patience of the Hollanders should every where, both in Europe and America, be employed in fighting against an unfriendly nature; for this island is not only barren, and dependent upon the rains for its water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worst in America; yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largest, and by far one of the most elegant and cleanly towns in the West-Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handsome; the private houses commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines; some of them so well contrived, that ships are at once lifted into the dock. Though this island is naturally barren, the industry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a considerable quantity both of tobacco and sugar: it has, besides, good salt-works, for the produce of which there is a brisk demand from the English islands, and the colonies on the continent. But what renders this island of most advantage to the Dutch is the contraband trade which is carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war.

The Dutch ships from Europe touch here for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spanish coasts for trade, which they force with a strong hand, it being very difficult for the Spanish guarda-costas to take these vessels; for they are not only stout ships, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of chosen seamen, deeply interested in the safety of the vessel and the success of the voyage. They have each a share in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the station of the owner, supplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime cost. This animates them with an uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, because every man fights in defence of his own property. Besides this, there is a constant intercourse between this island and the Spanish continent.

Curassou has numerous warehouses, always full of the commodities of Europe and the East Indies. Here are all sorts of woollen and linen cloths, laces, silks, ribbands, iron utensils, naval and military stores, brandy, the spices of the Moluccas, and the calicoes of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch West India, which is also the African Company, annually bring three or four cargoes of slaves; and to this mart the Spaniards themselves come in small vessels, and carry off not only the best of the negroes, at a very high price, but great quantities of all the above sorts of goods; and the seller has this advantage, that the refuse of warehouses and mercers' shops, with everything that has grown unfashionable and unsaleable in Europe, goes here extremely well; every thing being sufficiently recommended by being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and silver, coined in bars, cacao, vanilla, Jesuite bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

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The trade of Curassou, even in times of peace, is said to be annually worth to the Dutch no less than 500,000*l.* but in the time of war the profit is still greater, for then it becomes the common emporium of the West Indies; it affords a retreat to ships of all nations, and at the same time refuses none of them arms and ammunition. The intercourse with Spain being then interrupted, the Spanish colonies have scarcely any other market from whence they can be well supplied, either with slaves or goods. The French come hither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which the English bring from the continent of North America, or which is exported from Ireland; so that, whether in peace or in war, the trade of this island flourishes extremely.

The trade of all the Dutch American settlements was originally carried on by the West-India Company alone: at present, such ships as go upon that trade pay two and a half per cent. for their licences; the company, however, reserve to themselves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American islands.

The other islands, Bonaire and Aruba, are inconsiderable in themselves, and should be regarded as appendages to Curassou, for which they are chiefly employed in raising cattle and other provisions.

The small islands of Saba and St. Martin's, situated at no great distance from St. Eustatia, hardly deserve to be mentioned: they were both captured by admiral Rodney and general Vaughan, at the time when St. Eustatia surrendered to the arms of Great Britain; but were afterwards retaken by the French.

DANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. THOMAS.] AN inconsiderable island of the Caribbees, situated in 64 degrees west long. and 18 north lat. about 15 miles in circumference, and has a safe and commodious harbour.

STE. CROIX, OR SANTA CRUZ.] Another small and unhealthy island, lying about five leagues east of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadest. These islands, so long as they remained in the hands of the Danish West-India company, were ill managed, and of little consequence to the Danes; but that wise and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the company's stock, and laid the trade open; and since that time the island of St. Thomas has been so greatly improved, that it is said to produce upwards of 3000 hogheads of sugar of 1000 weight each, and others of the West-India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for sale: and a great many vessels trade from hence along the Spanish main, and return with money, in specie or bars, and valuable merchandize. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect desert a few years since, it is beginning to thrive very fast; several persons from the English islands, some of them of very great wealth, have gone to settle there, and have received very great encouragement.

NEW DISCOVERIES.

OUR knowledge of the globe has been considerably augmented by the late discoveries of the Russians, and still more by those that have been made by British navigators in the present reign, which have been numerous and important; and of these discoveries we shall therefore give a compendious account.

NORTHERN ARCHIPELAGO.

THIS consists of several groups of islands, which are situated between the eastern coast of Kamtschatka, and the western coast of the continent of America *. Mr. Muller divides these islands into four principal groups, the first two of which are styled the Aleutian islands. The first group, which is called by some of the islanders Sasiguan, comprehends, 1. Beering's Island; 2. Copper Island; 3. Otma; 4. Samyra, or Shemyia; 5. Anakta. The second group is called Khao, and comprises eight islands, viz. 1. Immak; 2. Kiska; 3. Tchetchia; 4. Ava; 5. Kavia; 6. Tschangulek; 7. Ulagama; 8. Amtschidga. The third general name is Negho, and comprehends the islands known to the Russians under the name of Andreanoffski Ostrova; sixteen of which are mentioned under the following names: 1. Amatkinak; 2. Ulak; 3. Unalga; 4. Navotsta; 5. Uliga; 6. Anagin; 7. Kagulak; 8. Illask, or Illak; 9. Takavanga, upon which is a volcano; 10. Kanaga, which has also a volcano; 11. Leg; 12. Sketsluuna; 13. Tagaloon; 14. Gorleoi; 15. Otchu; 16. Amla. The fourth group is called Kavalang, and comprehends sixteen islands; which are called by the Russians Lyfic Ostrova, or the *Fox Islands*; and which are named, 1. Amuchta; 2. Tschigama; 3. Tschegula; 4. Unifra; 5. Ula; 6. Tauagulana; 7. Kagamin; 8. Kigalga; 9. Skelmaga; 10. Umnak; 11. Agun-Alahska; 12. Unimma; 13. Uligan; 14. Anturo-Leiffume; 15. Semidit; 16. Senzak.

Some of these islands are only inhabited occasionally, and for some months in the year, and others are very thinly peopled; but others have a great number of inhabitants, who constantly reside in them. Copper Island receives its name from the copper which the sea throws up on its coasts. The inhabitants of these islands are in general of a short stature, with strong and robust limbs, but free and supple. They

* Mr. Coxe observes, that "the first project for making discoveries in that tempestuous sea which lies between Kamtschatka and America, was conceived and planned by Peter I." Voyages with that view were accordingly undertaken at the expense of the crown; but when it was discovered, that the islands of that sea abounded with valuable furs, private merchants immediately engaged with ardour in similar expeditions; and, within a period of ten years, more important discoveries were made by these individuals, at their own private cost, than had hitherto been effected by all the efforts of the crown. The investigation of useful knowledge has also been greatly encouraged by the late empress of Russia; and the most distant parts of her vast dominions, and other countries and islands, have been explored, at her expense, by persons of abilities and learning; in consequence of which, considerable discoveries have been made.

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have lank black hair, and little beard, flattish faces, and fair skins. They are for the most part well made, and of strong constitutions; suitable to the boisterous climate of their isles. The inhabitants of the Aleutian isles live upon the roots which grow wild, and sea animals. They do not employ themselves in catching fish, though the rivers abound with all kinds of salmon, and the sea with turbot. Their clothes are made of the skins of birds, and of sea-otters.

The Fox islands are so called from the great number of black, grey, and red foxes with which they abound. The dress of the inhabitants consists of a cap and a fur coat, which reaches down to the knee. Some of them wear common caps of a party-coloured bird-skin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore part of their hunting and fishing caps, they place a small board like a screen, adorned with the jaw-bones of sea-bears, and ornamented with glass beads, which they receive in barter from the Russians. At their festivals and dancing-parties they use a much more showy sort of caps. They feed upon the flesh of all sorts of sea animals, and generally eat it raw. But if at any time they chuse to dress their victuals, they make use of a hollow stone; having placed the fish or flesh therein, they cover it with another, and close the interstices with lime or clay. They then lay it horizontally upon two stones, and light a fire under it. The provision intended for keeping is dried without salt in the open air. Their weapons consist of bows, arrows, and darts, and for defence they use wooden shields.

The most perfect equality reigns among these islands. They have neither chiefs nor superiors, neither laws nor punishments. They live together in families, and societies of several families united, which form what they call a race, who, in case of an attack, or defence, mutually help and support each other. The inhabitants of the same island always pretend to be of the same race; and every person looks upon his island as a possession, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the same society. Feasts are very common among them, and more particularly when the inhabitants of one island are visited by those of the others. The men of the village meet their guests beating drums, and preceded by the women, who sing and dance. At the conclusion of the dance, the hosts serve up their best provisions, and invite their guests to partake of the feast. They feed their children when very young with the coarsest flesh, and for the most part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the sea side, and, whether it be summer or winter, holds it naked in the water until it is quiet. This custom is so far from doing the children any harm, that it hardens them against the cold, and they accordingly go barefooted through the winter without the least inconvenience. They seldom heat their dwellings: but, when they are desirous of warming themselves, they light a bundle of hay, and stand over it; or else they set fire to train oil, which they pour into a hollow stone. They have a good share of plain natural sense, but are rather slow of understanding. They seem cold and indifferent in most of their actions; but let an injury, or even a suspicion only, rouse them from this phlegmatic state, and they become inflexible and furious, taking the most violent revenge, without any regard to the consequences. The least affliction prompts them to suicide; the apprehension of even an uncertain evil often leads them to despair, and they put an end to their days with great apparent insensibility.

THE DISCOVERY OF AN INLAND SEA CONTAINING A GREAT NUMBER OF ISLANDS IN NORTH AMERICA.

FROM the observations made by captain Cook on the inhabitants of the western parts of America, about the latitude of 64° north, it appeared that a strong similarity appeared between them and the Esquimaux on the eastern coast. Hence it was even then conjectured that a communication by sea existed between the eastern and western sides of that continent.

In this part of America, however, a most surprising discovery has lately been made, which, when properly authenticated, cannot fail to be of the utmost utility, not only to science in general, but to the commercial and political interests of mankind. This, though not made by captain Cook himself, took place in consequence of his discoveries on the north-west continent of America. In these parts he found that such quantities of valuable furs might be purchased from the inhabitants, as promised to be a very valuable article of commerce, provided any regular connection could be established between that part of the world and the British settlements in the East Indies. This task was quickly undertaken by some spirited adventurers, who unluckily found themselves opposed both by friends and foes, viz. the East India Company, and the Spaniards; the former pretending that they had no right to dispose of furs in the East Indies, and the latter, that they had none to bring them from the western coast of America. By one Mr. Etches, who fitted out ships for this purpose, it was discovered, that all the western coast of America, from lat. 48° to 57° north, was no continued tract of land, but a chain of islands which had never been explored, and that these concealed the entrance to a vast inland sea, like the Baltic or Mediterranean in Europe, and which seems likewise to be full of islands*. Among these, Mr. Etches' ship, the Princess Royal, penetrated several hundred leagues in the north-east direction, till they came within 200 leagues of Hudson's Bay; but as the intention of their voyage was merely commercial, they had no time fully to explore the Archipelago, just mentioned, nor did they arrive at the termination of this new mediterranean sea. From what they really did discover, however, it is probable that there may this way be a communication with Hudson's Bay, in which case, the north-west passage to the East-Indies will be found through seas much more navigable than those in which it has hitherto been attempted. The islands, which they explored, were all inhabited by tribes of Indians, who appeared very friendly, and well disposed to carry on a commerce. Of these islands upwards of fifty were visited; but of them little can be said till future discoveries render the existence, extent, and direction of this sea, and these islands, more certain.

* In our map of North America, an island is laid down at the entrance of the river of the west north-latitude 45° and west longitude 130° the place where this discovery is said to have been made.

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THE PELEW ISLANDS.

THE existence and situation of these islands were probably known to the Spaniards at a distant period; but from a report among the neighbouring islands, of their being inhabited by a savage race of cannibals, it appears that there had never been the least communication between them and any of the Europeans, till the Antelope Packet (belonging to the East India Company) was wrecked on one of them, in August, 1783. From the accounts given of these islands, by captain Wilson, who commanded the packet, it appears that they are situated between the 5th and 9th degrees north latitude, and between 130 and 136 degrees of east longitude from Greenwich, and lie in a NE. and SW. direction; they are long but narrow, of a moderate height, and well covered with wood; the climate temperate and agreeable; the lands produce sugar-cane, yams, cocoa-nuts, plantains, bananas, oranges, and lemons; and the surrounding seas abound with the finest and greatest variety of fish.

The natives of these islands are a stout, well-made people, above the middle stature; their complexions are of a far deeper colour than what is understood by the Indian copper, but not black. The men go entirely naked, and the women wear only two small aprons, one behind, and one before, made of the husks of the cocoa nut dyed with different shades of yellow.

The government is monarchical, and the king is absolute, but his power is exercised more with the mildness of a father than a sovereign. In the language of Europeans, he is the fountain of honour; he occasionally creates his nobles, called Rupacks or chiefs, and confers a singular honour of knighthood, called the *Order of the Bone*, the members of which are distinguished by wearing a bone on their arm.

The idea which the account published by captain Wilson gives us of these islanders, is that of a people who, though naturally ignorant of the arts and sciences, and living in the simplest state of nature, yet possess all that genuine politeness, that delicacy, and chastity of intercourse between the sexes, that respect for personal property, that subordination to government, and those habits of industry, which are so rarely united in the more civilized societies of modern times.

It appears, that when the English were thrown on one of these islands, they were received by the natives with the greatest humanity and hospitality; and, till their departure, experienced the utmost courtesy and attention. "They felt our people were distressed, and in consequence wished they should share whatever they had to give. It was not that worldly munificence that bestows and spreads its favours with a distant eye to retribution. It was the pure emotion of native benevolence. It was the love of man to man. It was a scene that pictures human nature in triumphant colouring; and whilst their liberality gratified the sense, their virtue struck the heart."

THE MARQUESAS ISLANDS

ARE five in number, first discovered by Quiros, in 1595; and their situation better ascertained by captain Cook, in 1774. St. Dominica is the largest, about 16 leagues in circuit. The inhabitants, their

language, manners, and clothing, with the vegetable productions, are nearly the same as the Society Isles.

INGRAHAM'S ISLANDS.

THESE islands were discovered by captain Joseph Ingraham of Boston, commander of the brigantine Hope, on the 19th of April, 1791. They lie N. N. W. from the Marquesas Islands, from 35 to 50 leagues distant, in about 9° of south latitude, and from 140 to 141 west longitude from London. They are seven in number, and were named by Captain Ingraham, Washington, Adams, Lincoln, Federal, Franklin, Hancock, Knox.

Most if not all of these islands are inhabited, and appear generally to be diversified with hills and valleys, and to be well wooded, and very pleasant. The people resemble those of the Marquesas islands; as do their canoes, which are carved at each end. They appeared friendly.

OTAHEITE, OR KING GEORGE'S ISLAND.

THIS island was discovered by Captain Wallis, in the Dolphin*, on the 19th of June, 1767. It is situated between the 17th degree 28 min. and the 17th degree 53 min. south latitude; and between the 149th degree 11 min. and the 149th degree 39 min. west longitude. It consists of two peninsulas, of a somewhat circular form, joined by

* The Dolphin was sent out, under the command of captain Wallis, with the Swallow, commanded by captain Carteret, at the expense of the British government, in August, 1766, in order to make discoveries in the southern hemisphere. These vessels proceeded together, till they came within sight of the South Sea, at the western entrance of the strait of Magellan, and from thence returned by different routes to England. On the 6th of June, 1767, captain Wallis discovered an island, about four miles long, and three wide, to which he gave the name of *Whitsun-Island*, it being discovered on Whitsun-eve. Its latitude is 19° 26' S. and its longitude 137° 56' W. The next day he discovered another island, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Island*. The inhabitants of this island, captain Wallis says, were of a middling stature, dark complexion, and long black hair, which hung loose over their shoulders. The men were well made, and the women handsome. Their clothing was a kind of coarse cloth or matting, which was fastened about their middle, and seemed capable of being brought up round their shoulders. This island is about six miles long, and one mile wide, and lies in latitude 19° 18' S. longitude 138° 4' W. In the space of a few days after, he also discovered several other small islands, to which he gave the names of *Egmont Island*, *Gloucester Island*, *Cumberland Island*, *Prince William Henry's Island*, and *Osnaburgh Island*.

On the 19th of the same month he discovered the island of Otaheite; and after he had quitted that island, he discovered, on the 28th of July, 1767, another island about six miles long, which he called *Sir Charles Saunders's Island*; and on the 30th of the same month, another about ten miles long, and four broad, which he called *Lord Howe's Island*. After having discovered some other small islands, one of which was named *Wallis's Island*, he arrived at Batavia on the 30th of November; at the Cape of Good Hope on the 4th of February, 1768; and his ship anchored safely in the Downs on the 20th of May following.

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an isthmus, and is surrounded by a reef of coral rocks, which form several excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for almost any number of the largest ships. The face of the country is very extraordinary; for a border of low land almost entirely surrounds each peninsula, and behind this border the land rises in ridges that run up into the middle of these divisions, and these form mountains that may be seen at 60 leagues distance. The soil, except upon the very tops of the ridges, is remarkably rich and fertile, watered by a great number of rivulets, and covered with fruit trees of various kinds, forming the most delightful groves. The border of low land that lies between the ridges and the sea, is in few places more than a mile and a half broad; and this, together with some of the valleys, are the only parts that are inhabited. Captain Wallis made some stay at this island; and it was afterwards visited again by Captain Cook in the *Endeavour*, in April, 1769. That commander was accompanied by Joseph Banks, Esq. now Sir Joseph Banks, and Dr. Solander; and those gentlemen, together with the captain, made a very accurate survey of the island.

Some parts of the island of Otaheite are very populous; and captain Cook was of opinion, that the number of inhabitants on the whole island amounted to 204,000, including women and children. They are of a clear olive complexion; the men are tall, strong, well-limbed, and finely shaped; the women are of an inferior size, but handsome, and very amorous. Their clothing consists of cloth or matting of different kinds: and the greatest part of the food eaten here is vegetable, as cocoa-nuts, bananas, bread-fruit, plantains, and a great variety of other fruit. Their houses, those which are of a middling size, are of an oblong square, about twenty-four feet long, and eleven wide, with a shelving roof supported on three rows of posts, parallel to each other, one row on each side, and one in the middle. The utmost height within is about nine feet, and the eaves on each side reach to within about three feet and a half from the ground. All the rest is open, no part being inclosed with a wall. The roof is thatched with palm leaves, and the floor covered some inches deep with soft hay, over which they lay mats; upon which they sit in the day, and sleep in the night. They have no tools among them made of metal; and those they use are made of stone, or some kind of bones. The inhabitants of Otaheite are remarkable for their cleanliness; for both men and women constantly wash their whole bodies in running water three times a day. Their language is soft and melodious, and abounds with vowels. There were no tame animals upon the island but hogs, dogs, and poultry; but the English and Spaniards have since carried thither bulls,

Captain Cartret, in the *Swallow*, after he had parted with Captain Wallis, in the *Dolphin*, having passed through the Strait of Magellan, and made some stay at the island of Mafeseuro, discovered, on the 2d of July, 1767, an island about five miles in circumference, to which he gave the name of *Pitcairn's Island*. It lies in latitude $25^{\circ} 2' S.$ longitude $133^{\circ} 21' W.$ and about a thousand leagues to the westward of the continent of America. The 11th of the same month he discovered another small island, to which he gave the name of *Bishop of Osnaburgh's Island*. The next day, he discovered two other small islands, which he called *the Duke of Gloucester's Islands*. The following month he discovered a cluster of small islands, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Islands*, and also three others, which he named *Gower's Island*, *Simpson's Island*, and *Carteret's Island*. On the 24th of the same month, he discovered *Sir Charles Hardy's Island*, which lies in latitude $4^{\circ} 50' S.$ and the next day *Winchelsea's Island*, which is distant about ten leagues in the direction of S. by E. He afterwards discovered several other islands, and proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived in March, 1769.

cows, sheep, goats, a horse and mare, geese, ducks, peacocks, turkeys, and also cats. The only wild animals are tropical birds; paroquets, pigeons, ducks, and a few other birds; rats, and a very few serpents. The sea, however, supplies the inhabitants with a great variety of the most excellent fish.

In other countries, the men cut their hair short, and the women pride themselves on its length: but here the women always cut it short round their ears, and the men (except the fillers, who are almost continually in the water) suffer it to spread over their shoulders, or tie it up in a bunch on the top. They have the custom of discolouring the skin, by pricking it with a small instrument, the teeth of which are dipped into a mixture of a kind of lamp-black, and this is called tattooing. This is performed upon the youth of both sexes, when they are about twelve or fourteen years of age, on several parts of the body, and in various figures. Their principal manufacture is their cloth, of which there are three kinds, made of the bark of three different kinds of trees. The finest and whitest is made of the Chinese paper mulberry-tree; and this is chiefly worn by the principal people. Another considerable manufacture is matting, some of which is finer, and in every respect better, than any we have in Europe. The coarser sort serves them to sleep upon, and the finer to wear in wet weather. They are likewise very dexterous in making wicker work; their baskets are of a thousand different patterns, and many of them exceedingly neat. The inhabitants of Otaheite believe in one supreme Deity, but at the same time acknowledge a variety of subordinate Deities; they offer up their prayers without the use of idols, and believe the existence of the soul in a separate state, where there are two situations, of different degrees of happiness. Among these people a subordination is established, which somewhat resembles the early state of the European nations under the feudal system. If a general attack happens to be made upon the island, every district is obliged to furnish its proportion of soldiers for the common defence. Their weapons are slings, which they use with great dexterity, and clubs of about six or seven feet long, and made of a hard heavy wood. They have a great number of boats, many of which are constructed for warlike operations.

THE SOCIETY ISLANDS.

OF the several islands so called, and which were discovered by captain Cook*, in the year 1769, the principal are HUAHEINE, ULITEA, OTAHA, and BOLABOLA. HUAHEINE is about 31 leagues to the

* At the close of the year, 1767, it was resolved by the Royal Society, that it would be proper to send persons into some part of the South Sea, to observe a transit of the planet Venus over the Sun's disk, which, according to astronomical calculation, would happen in the year 1769: and that the islands called Marquesas de Mendoza, or those of Rotterdam, or Amsterdam, were the properest places then known for making such observations. In consequence of these resolutions, it was recommended to his majesty, in a memorial from the society, dated February, 1768, that he would be pleased to order such an observation to be made; upon which his majesty signified to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty his pleasure

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north-west of Otaheite, and its productions are exactly the same, but it appears to be a month forwarder. The inhabitants seem to be larger made, and more stout than those of Otaheite. Mr. Banks measured

that a ship should be provided to carry such observers as the society should think fit, to the South Seas; and accordingly a bark, of three hundred and seventy tons, was prepared for that purpose. It was named the Endeavour, and commanded by captain James Cook, who was soon after, by the Royal Society, appointed, with Mr. Charles Green, a gentleman who had long been assistant to Dr. Bradley, at the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, to observe the transit. But while this vessel was getting ready for her expedition, captain Wallis returned; and it having been recommended to him by Lord Morton, when he went out, to fix on a proper place for this astronomical observation, he, by letter, dined on board the Dolphin, the 18th of May, 1768, the day before he landed at Hastings, mentioned Port Royal harbour, in the island of Otaheite: the Royal Society, therefore, by letter, dated the beginning of June, in answer to an application from the Admiralty, to be informed whither they would have their observers sent, made choice of that place. Captain Cook set sail from Plymouth, in the Endeavour, on the 26th of August, 1768. He was accompanied in his voyage by Joseph Banks, Esq. and Dr. Solander. They made no discovery till they got within the tropic, where they fell in with Lagoon Island, Two Groups, Bird Island, and Chain Island; and they arrived at Otaheite on the 13th of April, 1769. During their stay at that island, they had the opportunity of making very accurate inquiries relative to its produce and inhabitants; and on the 4th of June, the whole passage of the planet Venus over the Sun's disk was observed by them with great advantage. The result of their observations may be found in the Philosophical Transactions. After his departure from Otaheite, captain Cook discovered and visited the Society Islands and Oheteroa, and thence proceeded to the south till he arrived in the latitude of 40 degrees, 22 minutes; longitude 147 degrees, 29 minutes W.; and afterwards made an accurate survey of the coast of New Zealand. In November, he discovered a chain of islands, which he called *Barrier Islands*. He afterwards proceeded to New Holland, and from thence to New Guinea; and in September, 1770, arrived at the island of Savu, from whence he proceeded to Batavia, and from thence round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 12th of June, 1771.

Soon after captain Cook's return home in the Endeavour, it was resolved to equip two ships, in order to make farther discoveries in the southern hemisphere. Accordingly the Resolution and the Adventure were appointed for that purpose; the first was commanded by captain Cook, and the latter by captain Tobias Furneaux. They sailed from Plymouth Sound, on the 13th of July, 1772; and on the 29th of the same month, arrived at the island of Madeira. From thence they proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope; and in February, 1773, arrived at New Zealand, having fought in vain for a southern continent. In that month the Resolution and the Adventure separated, in consequence of a thick fog, but they joined company again in Queen Charlotte's Sound, on the 18th of May following. In August they arrived at Otaheite; and in September they discovered Harvey's Island. On the 2d of October, they came to Middleburgh, one of the Friendly Islands; and about the close of that month, the Resolution and the Adventure were separated, and did not join company any more. Captain Cook, however, proceeded in the Resolution, in order to make discoveries in the southern polar regions, but was stopped in his progress by the ice, in the latitude of 71 degrees 10 minutes south; longitude 100 degrees 54 minutes west. He then proceeded to Easter Island, where he arrived in March, 1774, as he did also in the same month at the Marquesas Islands. He afterwards discovered four islands, which he named Palliser's Islands; and again steered for Otaheite, where he arrived on the 22d of April, and made some stay, and also visited the neighbouring isles. In August, he came to the New Hebrides, some of which were first discovered by him. After leaving these islands, he steered to the southward a few days, and discovered New Caledonia. Having surveyed the south-west coast of this island, captain Cook steered again for New Zealand, in order to refresh his crew, and put his ship into a condition to encounter the danger attending the navigation in the high southern latitudes. Directing his course to the south and east, after leaving New Zealand, till he arrived in the latitude of 55 degrees six minutes south, longitude 138 degrees 56 minutes west, without meeting with any continent, captain Cook gave up all hopes of discovering any in this ocean; and therefore came to a resolution to steer directly for the west entrance of the Straits of Magellan, with a view of coasting and surveying the outermost or south

one of the men, and found him to be six feet three inches and a half high; yet they are so indolent, that he could not persuade one of them to go up to the hills with him; for they said, if they were to attempt it, the fatigue would kill them. The women are fairer than those of Otaheite, and both sexes appear less timid and less curious; though in their dress, language, and almost every other circumstance, they are the same. Their houses are neat, and they have boat-houses that are remarkably large. Ulitea is about seven or eight leagues to the south-westward of Huaheine, and is a much larger island, but appears neither so fertile nor so populous. The principal refreshments to be procured here are plantains, cocoa nuts, yams, hogs, and fowls; but the two last are rather scarce. Otaha is divided from Ulitea by a strait, that in the narrowest part is not above two miles broad. This island affords two good harbours, and its produce is of the same kind as that of the other islands. About four leagues to the north-west of Otaha lies *Bolabola*, which is surrounded by a reef of rocks and several small islands, all of which are no more than eight leagues in compass. To these islands, and those of Marua, which lie about fourteen miles to the westward of Bolabola, containing six in all, captain Cook gave the name of Society Islands.

OHETEROA.

THIS island is situated in the latitude of 22 deg. 27 min. south, and in the longitude of 150 deg. 47 min. west from Greenwich. It is thirteen miles in circuit, and rather high than low, but neither so populous nor so fertile as some of the other islands in these seas. The inhabitants are lusty and well made, but are rather browner

side of Terra del Fuego. Keeping accordingly in about the latitude of 53 or 55, and steering early east, he arrived off the western mouth of the Straits of Magellan, without meeting with any thing remarkable in his new route. In January, 1775, he discovered a large and dreary island, to which he gave the name of *South Georgia*. He afterwards discovered various capes and elevated snow-clad coasts, to the most southern part of which he gave the name of the *Southern Thule*, as being the nearest land to that pole, which has yet been discovered. In February, he discovered *Sandwich Land*, and several islands covered with snow. He then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 30th of July, 1775. Captain Furneaux had returned to England, in the *Adventure*, a year before, having proceeded home round the Cape of Good Hope without making any remarkable discovery. Ten of his men, a boat's crew, had been murdered and eaten by some of the savages of New Zealand; so that this voyage afforded a melancholy proof that cannibals really exist; and, indeed, in the course of these voyages of discovery, other evidence appeared of this fact. As to captain Cook, in the course of his voyage in the *Resolution*, he had made the circuit of the southern ocean, in a high latitude, and had traversed it in such a manner, as to leave not the least room for the possibility of there being a southern continent, unless near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. It deserves also to be remembered, in honour of that able commander, captain Cook, that, with a company of a hundred and eighteen men, he performed this voyage of three years and eighteen days, throughout all the climates, from fifty two degrees north, to seventy-one degrees south, with the loss of only one man by sickness; and this appears, in a considerable degree, to have arisen from the great humanity of the commander, and his uncommon care and attention to adopt every method for preserving the health of his men.

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THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

THESE islands were so named by Captain Cook, in the year 1773, on account of the friendship which appeared to subsist among the inhabitants, and from their courteous behaviour to strangers. Abel Janfen Tasman, an eminent Dutch navigator, first touched here in 1643, and gave names to the principal islands. Captain Cook laboriously explored the whole cluster, which he found to consist of more than sixty. The three islands which Tasman saw, he named New Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and Middleburgh. The first is the largest, and extends about twenty-one miles from east to west, and about thirteen from north to south. These islands are inhabited by a race of Indians, who cultivate the earth with great industry. The island of Amsterdam is intersected by straight and pleasant roads, with fruit-trees on each side, which afford shade from the scorching heat of the sun.

The chief islands are Annamooka, Tongataboo, and Eooa. This last, when viewed from the ship at anchor, formed one of the most beautiful prospects in nature; and very different from the others of the Friendly Isles; which, being low and perfectly level, exhibit nothing to the eye but the trees which cover them: whereas here the land rising gently to a considerable height, presented an extensive prospect, with groves of trees interspersed at irregular distances, in beautiful disorder; the rest is covered with grass, except near the shores, which are entirely covered with fruit and other trees; amongst which are the habitations of the natives. In order to have a view of as great a part of the island as possible, captain Cook and some of his officers walked up to the highest point of it. From this place they had a view of almost the whole island, which consisted of beautiful meadows, of prodigious extent, adorned with tufts of trees, and intermixed with plantations. "While I was surveying this delightful prospect," says captain Cook, "I could not help flattering myself with the pleasing idea, that some future navigator may, from the same station, behold these meadows stocked with cattle, brought to these islands by the ships of England; and that the completion of this single benevolent purpose, independent of all other considerations, would sufficiently mark to posterity, that our voyages had not been useless to the general interests of humanity."

NEW ZEALAND.

THIS country was first discovered by Tasman, the Dutch navigator, in the year 1642, who gave it the name of Staten Land, though it

has been generally distinguished in our maps and charts by the name of New Zealand, and was supposed to be part of a southern continent; but it is now known from the late discoveries of captain Cook, who sailed round it, to consist of two large islands, divided from each other by a strait four or five leagues broad. They are situated between the latitudes of 34 and 48 degrees south, and between the longitudes of 166 and 180 degrees east from Greenwich. One of these islands is for the most part mountainous, rather barren, and but thinly inhabited; but the other is much more fertile, and of a better appearance. In the opinion of Sir Joseph Banks and Dr. Solander, every kind of European fruits, grain, and plants, would flourish here in the utmost luxuriance. From the vegetables found here, it is supposed that the winters are milder than those in England, and the summers not hotter, though more equally warm; so that it is imagined, that if this country was settled by people from Europe, they would, with moderate industry, be soon supplied not only with the necessaries, but the luxuries of life, in great abundance. Here are forests of vast extent, filled with very large timber trees; and near four hundred plants were found here that had not been described by naturalists. The inhabitants of New Zealand are stout and robust, and equal in stature to the largest Europeans. Their colour in general is brown, but in few deeper than that of a Spaniard who has been exposed to the sun, and in many not so deep; and both sexes have good features. Their dress is very uncouth, and they mark their bodies in a manner similar to the inhabitants of Otaheite, which is called tattooing. Their principal weapons are lances, darts, and a kind of battle axes; and they have generally shewn themselves very hostile to the Europeans who have visited them.

THE NEW HEBRIDES.

THIS name was given by captain Cook to a cluster of islands, the most northerly of which was seen by Quiros, the Spanish navigator, in 1606, and by him named Terra del Espíritu Santo. From that time till captain Cook's voyage in the Endeavour, in 1769, this land was supposed to be part of a great southern continent, called *Terra australis incognita*. But when captain Cook had sailed round New Zealand, and along the eastern coast of New Holland, this opinion was fully confuted. On his next voyage, in the Resolution, he resolved to explore those parts accurately; and, accordingly, in 1774, besides ascertaining the extent and situation of these islands, discovered several in the group which were before unknown. The New Hebrides are situated between the latitudes of 14 deg. 29 min. and 20 deg. 4 min. south; and between 166 deg. 41 min. and 170 deg. 21 min. east long. They consist of the following islands, some of which have received names from the different European navigators, and others retain the names which they bear among the natives, viz. Terra del Espíritu Santo, Mallicollo, St. Bartholomew, Ile of Lepers, Aurora, Whitsuntide, Ambrym, Immer, Appee, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbrook, Shepherd, Borromanga, Ironnan, Aunatom, and Tanna.

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Not far distant from the New Hebrides, and south-westward of them, lies **NEW CALEDONIA**, a very large island, first discovered by captain Cook, in 1774. It is about eighty-seven leagues long, but its breadth does not anywhere exceed ten leagues. It is inhabited by a race of stout, tall, well-proportioned Indians; of a swarthy or dark chestnut brown. A few leagues distant, are two small islands called the Island of Pines, and Botany Island.

NEW HOLLAND,

THE largest island in the world, and formerly supposed to be a part of that imaginary continent, called Terra Australis Incognita, lies between 10 deg. 30 min. and 43 deg. south latitude, and between 110 and 153 deg. 30 min. east longitude; extending in all as much as the whole continent of Europe, the eastern coast running no less than 2000 miles in length from north-east to south-west. Its dimensions from east to west have not been so exactly ascertained, as we are obliged to take our information concerning them from the accounts of navigators of different nations, who visited this part of the world at a time when the method of making observations, and finding the latitudes and longitudes of places, was less accurate than it is now. Different parts of the country have been called by the names of the discoverers, as Van Dieman's land, Carpentaria, &c. and though the general appellation of the whole was New Holland, it is now applied by geographers to the north and west parts of the country. The eastern part, called New South Wales, was taken possession of in his majesty's name, by captain Cook, and now forms a part of the British dominions, a colony being very lately formed there, chiefly of the convicts sentenced to transportation.

The accounts of the climate and soil of this extensive country, now become an object of importance to great Britain, are very various: different parts have been explored at different times, and at different seasons of the year. In general, however, the relations are by no means favourable; the sea-coast, the only place on which any inhabitants have been discovered, appearing sandy and barren; and as for the inland parts, which might reasonably be supposed more fertile, they are now thought to be wholly uninhabited; but whether this proceeds from the natural sterility of the soil, or the barbarity of the inhabitants, who know not how to cultivate it, is not yet discovered.

One thing we are assured of by all who have ever visited this country, that its coast is surrounded by very dangerous shoals and rocks, so that it is by no means easy to effect a landing upon it. A shoal called Outman's Abrolthos, or shoal, from Frederick Houtman, commander of a fleet of Dutch Indiamen, in 1618, lies on the western coast, on which commodore Pelsart, a Dutch navigator, was wrecked in 1629. When his ship, the Batavia, having on board 330 men, struck on this shoal, there was no land in sight, excepting some small rocky islands, and one considerably larger, about three leagues distant. All these were explored in search of fresh water, but none being found, they were obliged to fall in their skiff to the continent, which they soon

after discovered: But, on their approach, they found the coast so excessively rocky that it was impossible to land. Continuing their course northward for two days, they found themselves in 27 degrees of south latitude; but still the shore was so extremely steep, that there was no possibility of approaching it. It presented the same appearance as far north as 24 degrees; but the men being now resolved to get on shore at any rate, six of them, who were expert swimmers, threw themselves into the sea, and with much difficulty got to land. Here they employed themselves in searching for fresh water, but finding none, they were obliged to swim back again to their skiff. Next day they discovered a cape, from the extreme points of which ran a ridge of rocks for about a mile into the sea, with another behind it; but still no passage was found to the continent. Another opening appeared about noon the same day, into which they ventured, though the passage was extremely dangerous, even for a skiff, having only two feet water, with a rugged stony bottom. Here, however, they effected a landing; but though they made the most diligent search for fresh water, they could find neither rivulets, springs, nor even water that could be drank by digging of wells. The shoal on which commodore Pelsart was wrecked, is placed by Dampier in 27 degrees south latitude.

This navigator explored the coast of New Holland in 1688 and 1699. In the last of these voyages he fell in with the land in 26 deg. south latitude; but could not land on account of the steepness of the shore. In 22 deg. 22 min. he found another shoal, which was the first he had met with since leaving the Abrolhos in 27 deg. In 20 deg. 21 min. he fell in with some rocky islands, which, from the nature of the tides, he supposed to extend in a range as far south as Shark's Bay, in 25 deg. and nine or ten leagues in breadth from east to west. In 18 deg. 21 min. he effected a landing; but the shore here, as in all other places visited by this navigator, was excessively rocky at low water, so that it is then impossible to land. At high water, however, the tides rise so high, that boats may get over the rocks to a sandy beach which runs all along the coast.

The southern part of this island, visited by captain Tasman, in 1642 was found less difficult of access. He pursued the coast as far south as 44 degrees, where it begins to run to the eastward; and from this time the country appears not to have been visited by any Europeans, till the year 1770, when captain Furneaux, of the Adventure, reached the point we speak of, lying in 43 deg. 17 min. south. 145 deg. 30 min. and by account, 143 deg. 10 min. east from Greenwich. Several islands appeared to the north-west, one of which was named by captain Cook, Eddystone, from its resemblance to the light-house of that name; and he observes that nature seems to have left these two rocks for the same purpose that the Eddystone light-house was built by man, viz. to give navigators warning of their danger; for they are the conspicuous summits of a ledge of rocks under water, on which the sea in many places breaks very high. Their surface is white with the dung of sea fowls, which makes them conspicuous at a considerable distance.

This celebrated navigator, captain Cook, spent upwards of four months in surveying the eastern coast, the extent of which, as has already been mentioned, is nearly 2000 miles. The bay in which he anchored, from the great quantity of undescribed plants found on the shore, was called BOTANY BAY, and is the place for which the co-

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victs were originally destined; though now they are settled in another part of the island, about fifteen miles to the northward, named by captain Cook, Port Jackson, the principal settlement being called SYDNEY COVE.

This was not visited or explored by captain Cook; it was seen at the distance of between two and three miles from the coast, but, had fortune conducted him into the harbour, he would have found it much more worthy of his attention, as a seaman, than Botany Bay, where he passed a week. From an entrance not more than two miles broad, Port Jackson gradually extends into a noble and capacious bason, having soundings sufficient for the largest vessels, and space to accommodate in perfect security, any number that could be assembled. It runs, chiefly in a western direction, about thirteen miles into the country, and contains no less than a hundred small coves formed by narrow necks of land, whose projections afford shelter from the winds.

SYDNEY COVE lies on the south side of the harbour, between five and six miles from the entrance. The neck of land that forms this cove is mostly covered with wood, yet is so rocky, that it is not easy to comprehend how the trees could have found sufficient nourishment to bring them to so considerable a magnitude. The soil in other parts of the coast immediately about Port Jackson, is of various qualities. This neck of land, which divides the south end of the harbour from the sea, is chiefly sand. Between Sidney Cove and Botany Bay, the first space is occupied by a wood, in some parts a mile and a half, in others three miles broad. Beyond that is a kind of heath, poor, sandy, and full of swamps; but as far as the eye can reach to the westward, the country is one continued wood.

The name of Cumberland county was given by the government to this part of the territory. It is about fifty miles in length, and thirty broad. The boundaries fixed for Cumberland county were, on the west, Caermarthen and Lansdown hills; on the north, the northern parts of Broken Bay; and to the southward, the southern parts of Botany Bay; thus including completely these three principal bays, and leaving the chief place of settlement, at Sydney Cove, nearly in the centre.

At the very first landing of Governor Philip on the shore of Botany Bay, an interview took place with the natives. They were all armed; and on seeing the governor approach with signs of friendship, alone and unarmed, they readily returned his confidence by laying down their arms.

They were perfectly devoid of clothing, yet seemed fond of ornaments, putting the heads and red baize that were given them on their heads or necks, and appearing pleased to wear them.

The different coves of Port Jackson were examined with all expedition, and the preference was given to one which had the best spring of water; and in which ships can anchor so close to the shore, that at a very small expense quays may be constructed, at which the largest vessels may unload.

After they had all landed at Sydney Cove, a plan was laid down for building a town, according to which were traced out the principal streets, the governor's house, main guard, hospital, church, stores, and barracks. In some parts of this space, temporary barracks were erected; but no permanent building will be allowed, except in con-

formity to the plan laid down. Should the town be farther extended in future, the forms of other streets are also marked out, in such a manner as to ensure a free circulation of air. The principal streets, according to this design, will be two hundred feet wide.

The climate at Sydney Cove is considered, on the whole, as equal to the finest in Europe. The rains are never of long duration, and there are seldom any fogs. The soil, though in general light, and rather sandy in this part, is full as good as usually is found so near the sea-side. All the plants and fruit-trees brought from Brasil and the Cape, which were not damaged in the passage, thrive exceedingly; and vegetables have now become plentiful, both the European sorts, and such as are peculiar to New South Wales.

The natives of New Holland, in general, seem to have no great aversion to the new settlers; the only acts of hostility they ever committed were on account of their occupying the fishing-grounds which the New Hollanders justly supposed to belong to themselves. They appear, however, to be in too savage a state to be capable as yet of deriving any instruction from their new neighbours. They are so ignorant of agriculture, that it seems most probable, they do not even know the use of corn, and therefore, perhaps, more ignorant than malice, set fire to that which the colonists had sown for their own use. To avoid such disagreeable incidents, a new settlement was begun on a small uninhabited island, named *Norfolk Island*, lying in south latitude twenty-nine degrees, and east long. 168-10 at the distance of two hundred miles from New Holland. The party sent out to form the settlement consisted only of twenty-six persons, who took possession on the 14th of February, 1788. This settlement was found so eligible that, in October, 1788, another party was sent thither, so that the new colony, at the time the last advices were received, consisted of forty-four men and sixteen women; who being supplied with eighteen months provisions, will probably be able to cultivate the soil in such a manner as to enable them to form a granary, which will put those who are settled on New Holland, entirely out of danger from their barbarous neighbours.

For a more particular account of this new settlement, we refer our readers to the Voyage of Governor Philip to Botany Bay.

NEW GUINEA,

TILL the late discoveries, was thought to be the north coast of an extensive continent, and to be joined to New Holland; but Captain Cook discovered a strait between them, which runs north-east, through which he sailed. Thus it was found to be a long narrow island, extending north-east, from the second degree of south latitude to the twelfth, and from one hundred and thirty-one to one hundred and thirty-five degrees east longitude; but in one part it does not appear to be above fifty miles broad. The country consists of a mixture of very high hills and valleys interspersed with groves of cocoa-nut trees, plantains, bread-fruit trees, &c. most of the trees, shrubs, and plants, that are found in the other islands of the sea afford from the sea a variety of delightful provisions.

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The inhabitants make nearly the same appearance as the New Hollanders on the other side the straits.

To the north of New Guinea is **NEW BRITAIN**, which is situated in the fourth degree of south latitude, and one hundred and fifty-two degrees nineteen min. east longitude from Greenwich. It was supposed to be part of an imaginary continent till captain Dampier found it to be an island, and sailed through a strait which divides it from New Guinea. Captain Carteret, in his voyage round the world, in 1767, found it was of much less extent than it was till then imagined to be, by sailing through another strait to the north, which separates it from a long island, to which he gave the name of New Ireland. There are many high hills in New Britain, and it abounds with large and stately trees. To the eastward of New Britain, and in both the above straits, are many islands, most of which are said to be extremely fertile, and to abound with plantains and cocoa-nut trees.

NEW IRELAND extends in length, from the north-east to the south-west, about two hundred and seventy miles, but is in general very narrow. It abounds with a variety of trees and plants, and with many pigeons, parrots, rooks, and other birds. The inhabitants are black and woolly-headed like the negroes of Guinea, but have not their flat noses and thick lips. North westward of New Ireland, a cluster of islands was seen by captain Carteret, lying very near each other, and supposed to consist of twenty or thirty in number. One of these, which is of very considerable extent, was named **NEW HANOVER**; the rest of the cluster received the name of the **ADMIRALTY ISLANDS**.

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

DESIDES the voyages of discovery already mentioned, another voyage was performed by captain Cook and captain Clerke, in the Resolution and Discovery, during the years 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in search of a north-west passage between the continents of Asia and America. After they had arrived at the Cape of Good Hope, they proceeded from thence to New Holland. In their course they discovered islands which captain Cook called Prince Edward's Isles. The largest, about fifteen leagues in circuit, is in latitude 46-53 south; long. 174, 46; the other, about nine leagues in circuit, lat. 46, 40, and long. 174, 38, east, both barren and almost covered with snow. From New Holland they sailed to New Zealand, and afterwards they visited the Friendly and the Society Isles. In January, 1777, they arrived at the Sandwich Isles, which are twelve in number, and are situated between twenty-two deg. fifteen min. and eighteen deg. fifty-three min. north lat. The air of these islands is in general salubrious, and many of the vegetable productions are the same with those of the Society and Friendly Isles. The inhabitants are of a middle size, stout, and well made, and their complexions in general a brown olive. On the 7th of February, 1777, they nearly in lat. 44 deg. 33 min. north, and long. 235 deg. 36 min. west, they saw part of the American continent, bearing north-east. They afterwards discovered King George's Sound, which is situated on the north-west coast of America, and is extensive; that part of it where the ships under the command of captain Cook anchored, is in lat. 49

deg. 36 min. north, and long. 233 deg. 28 min. east. The whole found is surrounded by high land, which in some places appears very broken and rugged, and is in general covered with wood to the very top. They found the inhabitants here rather below the middle size, and their complexions approaching to a copper colour. On the 12th of May, they discovered Sandwich Sound in lat. 59 deg. 54 min. north. The harbour in which the ships anchored, appeared to be almost surrounded with high land; which was covered with snow; and here they were visited by some of the Americans in their canoes. They afterwards proceeded to the island of Unalafchka; and after their departure from thence, still continued to trace the American coast, till they discovered the strait which separates it from the continent of Asia. Here both the hemispheres presented to the view a naked and flat country, without any defence, and the sea between them not very deep. They passed the strait, and arrived on the 20th of August, 1778, in lat. 70 deg. 54 min. long. 194 deg. 55 min. where they found themselves almost surrounded with ice, and the farther they proceeded to the eastward, the closer the ice became compacted. They continued labouring among the ice till the 25th, when a storm came on, which made it dangerous for them to proceed; and a consultation was therefore held on board the Resolution, as soon as the violence of the gale abated, when it was resolved, that as this passage was impracticable for any useful purpose of navigation, which was the great object of the voyage, it should be prosecuted no farther; and especially on account of the condition the ships were in, the approach of winter, and their great distance from any known place of refreshment. The voyage, indeed, afforded sufficient evidence, that no practicable passage exists between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans towards the north; and this voyage also ascertained the western boundaries of the great continent of America. On their return it unfortunately happened, that the celebrated and able navigator, captain Cook, was killed in an affray with the natives, on the island of O'why'hee, one of the Sandwich isles, on the 14th of February, 1779; not so much by his own rashness, as through the inadvertence and neglect of some of his own people. His death was universally regretted, not only in Great Britain, but also in other parts of Europe, by those to whom his merits and public services were known. In his last voyage he had explored the coast of America, from 42 deg. 27 min. to 70 deg. 40 min. 57 sec. north. After the death of captain Cook, the command devolved on captain Clerke, who died at sea on his return to the southward on the 22d day of August, 1779. The two ships returned home by the Cape of Good Hope, and on the 5th of October, 1780, anchored at the Nore.

We cannot conclude this article without inserting the following character of captain Cook, to perpetuate the memory and services of so excellent a navigator.

“Perhaps no science ever received greater additions from the labour of a single man than geography has done from those of captain Cook. In his first voyage to the South Seas, he discovered the Society Islands, determined the insularity of New Zealand; discovered the straits which separate the two islands, and are called after his name; and made a complete survey of both. He afterwards explored the eastern coast of New Holland, hitherto unknown; an extent of twenty-seven degrees of latitude, or upwards of two thousand miles.

“In his second expedition, he resolved the great problem of a southern continent, having traversed that hemisphere between the latitude of forty and seventy degrees, in such a manner as not to leave a possibility

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of its existence, unless near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. During this voyage he discovered New Caledonia, the largest island in the southern Pacific Ocean, except New Zealand; the island of Georgia; and an unknown coast, which he named Sandwich Land, the Thule of the southern hemisphere; and having twice visited the tropical seas, he settled the situations of the old, and made several new discoveries.

“But the last voyage is distinguished above all the rest, by the extent and importance of its discoveries. Besides several smaller islands in the southern Pacific, he discovered to the north of the Equinoctial Line, the groupe called the Sandwich Islands, which, from their situation and productions, bid fairer for becoming an object of consequence in the system of European navigation, than any other discovery in the South Sea. He afterward explored what had hitherto remained unknown of the western coast of America, from the latitude of forty-three to seventy degrees north, containing an extent of three thousand and five hundred miles; ascertained the proximity of the two great continents of Asia and America; passed the fraits between them, and surveyed the coast on each side, to such a height of northern latitude, as to demonstrate the impracticability of a passage, in that hemisphere, from the Atlantic into the Pacific Ocean, either by an eastern or a western course. In short, if we except the Sea of Amur, and the Japanese Archipelago, which still remain imperfectly known to Europeans, he has completed the hydrography of the habitable globe.

“The method which he discovered, and so successfully pursued, of preserving the health of seamen, forms a new era in navigation, and will transmit his name to future ages amongst the friends and benefactors of mankind.

“Those who are conversant in naval history, need not be told at how dear a rate the advantages which have been sought through the medium of long voyages at sea, have always been purchased. That dreadful disorder which is peculiar to their service, and whose ravages have marked the tracks of discoverers with circumstances almost too shocking to relate, must, without exercising an unwarrantable tyranny over the lives of our seamen, have proved an insuperable obstacle to the prosecution of such enterprises. It was reserved for captain Cook to show the world, by repeated trials, that voyages might be protracted to the unusual length of three, or even four years, in unknown regions, and under every change and rigour of the climate, not only without affecting the health, but even without diminishing the probability of life, in the smallest degree.”

TERRA - INCOGNITA, or UNKNOWN COUNTRIES.

NOTWITHSTANDING the amazing discoveries of navigators, and the progress made in geography, since the first voyage of Columbus, anno 1492, there still remain some countries, either absolutely unknown, or very superficially surveyed.

IN AFRICA.

OF this quarter of the globe, the moderns are acquainted with the sea-coasts only, and these very imperfectly; the internal parts being

little known to us; nor have we any satisfactory accounts of their inhabitants, their productions, or their trade. It is well known, however, that the rivers of Africa bring down large quantities of gold, and it is equally certain that the ancients drew prodigious riches from a country blessed with a variety of climates, some of them the finest in the world.

I N A M E R I C A.

IN North America, towards the pole, Labrador, or New Britain, New North and South Wales, New Denmark, are very little known. All that vast tract on the back of the British settlements, from Canada and the lakes to the Pacific Ocean, which washes America on the west, is likewise unknown to us, no European having ever travelled thither. From the climate and the situation of the country, it is supposed to be fruitful. It is inhabited by innumerable tribes of Indians, many of whom used to resort to the great fair of Montréal, even from the distance of one thousand miles, when that city was in the hands of the French.

In South America, the country of Guiana, extending from the equator to the eighth degree of north latitude, and bounded by the river Oro-nouque on the north, and the Amazons on the south, is unknown, except a slip along the coast, where the French at Cayenne, and the Dutch at Surinam, have made some settlements; which, from the unhealthfulness of the climate, almost under the equator, and other causes, can hardly be extended any considerable way back.

The country of Amazonia, so called from the great river of that name, has never been thoroughly discovered, though it is situated between the European colonies of Peru and Brasil, and every where navigable by means of that great river and its branches. Some attempts have been made by the Spaniards and Portuguese; but being always attended with vast difficulties, so that few of the adventurers ever returned back, and no gold being found in the country, as they expected, no European nation has hitherto made any settlement there.

Patagonia, at the southern extremity of America, is sometimes described as part of Chili; but as neither the Spaniards, nor any other European nation, have any colonies here, it is almost unknown, and is generally represented as a barren, inhospitable country. And here in fifty-two degrees and a half south lat. we fall in with the Straits of Magellan, having Patagonia on the north, and the islands of Terra del Fuego on the south. These straits extend from east to west 110 leagues, but the breadth in some places falls short of one. They were first discovered by Magellan, or Magelhaens, a Portuguese, in the service of Spain, who sailed through them in the year 1520, and thereby discovered a passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific or Southern Ocean. He has been since considered as the first navigator that sailed round the world: but having lost his life in a skirmish with some Indians before the ships returned to Europe, the honour of being the first circumnavigator has been disputed in favour of the brave fir Francis Drake, who, in 1574, passed the same strait in his way to India, from which he returned to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope. In 1616, Le Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the southward of these straits, discovered, in lat

fifty-four, and a half another passage, since known by the name of the straits of Le Maire; and this passage, which has been generally preferred by succeeding navigators, is called doubling Cape Horn. The author of Anfon's voyage, however, from fatal experience, advises mariners to keep clear of these straits and islands, by running down to sixty-one or sixty-two degrees south lat. before they attempt to set their face westward, towards the South Seas; but the extreme long nights, and the intense cold in those latitudes, render that passage practicable only in the months of January and February, which is there the middle of summer.

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A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE,

Containing the Names and Situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulfs, Bays, Straits, Capes, and other remarkable Places in the known World. Collected from the most authentic Charts, Maps, and Observations.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat.		Long.	
				D. M.	D. M.	D. M.	D. M.
A bbeville,	Picardy,	France,	Europe	50° 7' N.	1° 54' E.		
Aberdeen	Aberdeenshire,	Scotland,	Europe	57-22 N.	1-40 W.		
Abo,	Finland,	Sweden,	Europe	60-27 N.	22-18 E.		
Acapulco,	Mexico,	North America	America	17-10 N.	101-20 W.		
Adrianople,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	42-00 N.	26-30 E.		
Adriatic sea, or Gulf of Venice		between Italy and Turkey,	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.			
Achen,	Sumatra,	East India,	Asia	5-22 N.	95-29 E.		
Adventure Isle	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	Asia	17-05 S.	144-12 W.		
Agde,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe	43-18 N.	3-33 E.		
Agen,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	44-12 N.	0-40 E.		
St. Agnes (lights)	Scillies,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	49-56 N.	6-41 W.		
Agra,	Agra,	East India,	Asia	26-43 N.	76-49 E.		
Air,	Airshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-30 N.	4-35 W.		
Aix,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43-31 N.	5-31 E.		
Albany,	New York,	North America	America	42-48 N.	73-30 W.		
Alby,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe	43-55 N.	2-13 E.		
Aleppo,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	35-45 N.	37-25 E.		
Alexandretta,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	36-35 N.	36-25 E.		
Alexandria,	Lower Egypt,	Turkey,	Africa	31-11 N.	30-21 E.		
Algiers,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36-49 N.	2-17 E.		
Amboyna,	Amboyna Isle,	East India,	Asia	4-25 S.	127-25 E.		
Ambryn Isle,	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	Asia	16-09 S.	168-17 E.		
Amiens,	Isle of France,	France,	Europe	49-53 N.	2-22 E.		
AMSTERDAM,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-22 N.	4-49 E.		
Amsterdam Ile,		Pacific Ocean,	Asia	21-09 S.	174-51 W.		
Ancona,	March of Ancona,	Italy,	Europe	43-37 N.	13-35 E.		
Angra,	Tercera Isle,	Atlantic ocean,	Europe	38-39 N.	27-07 W.		
Antigua (St. John's town)	Antigua Isle,	Carib. sea,	N. America,	17-04 N.	62-04 W.		
Antioch,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	36-30 N.	36-40 E.		
Antwerp,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-13 N.	04-27 E.		
Archipelago,	Islands of Greece,	Europe	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.			
Apz (Isle)	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	Asia	16-46 S.	168-32 E.		
Archangel	Dwina,	Russia,	Europe	64-34 N.	38-59 E.		
Ascension Isle,		South Atlantic Ocean,	Ocean,	7-56 N.	14-27 W.		
Astracan,	Astracan,	Russia,	Asia,	46-00 N.	51-00 E.		
Arhens,	Achaia,	Turkey,	Europe	38-05 N.	23-57 E.		
St. Augustin,	Madagascar	South Ind. sea,	Africa	23-35 S.	43-13 E.		
Aurora Isle,	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	Asia	15-08 S.	168-22 E.		

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Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Ava,	Ava,	East India,	Asia	20-20 N.	95-30 E.
Avignon,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43-57 N.	04-53 E.
B Aoadad,	Eyraca Arabia,	Turkey,	Asia	33-20 N.	43-51 E.
Baltic sea,	between	Ger. and Swed.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Balafore,	Orixa,	East India,	Asia	21-20 N.	86-05 E.
Balbec,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33-30 N.	37-00 E.
Baldivia,	Chili,	South	America	39-35 S.	81-10 W.
Barbuda Isle,		Atlant. Ocean,	N. Ame-	17-49 N.	61-55 W.
Barcelona,	Catalonia,	Spain,	Europe	41-26 N.	02-18 E.
			rica		
Basil,	Basil,	Switzerland,	Europe	47-35 N.	07-34 E.
Basse Terrc,	Guadaloupe,	Carib. sea,	N. Ame-	15-59 N.	61-54 W.
			rica		
Bassora,	Eyraca Arabia,	Turkey,	Asia	30-45 N.	47-00 E.
Bastia,	Corfica,	Italy,	Europe	42-20 N.	09-40 E.
Batavia,	Java,	East India,	Asia	06-10 S.	106-56 E.
Bath,	Somerfethshire,	England,	Europe	51-22 N.	02-16 W.
Bay of Biscay,	Coast of	France,	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Bay of Bengal,	Coast of	India,	Asia	Indian Ocean.	
Bayeux,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-16 N.	00-37 E.
Belfast,	Ulster,	Ireland,	Europe	54-30 N.	06-30 W.
Belgrade,	Servia,	Turkey,	Europe	45-00 N.	21-20 E.
Bender,	Bassarabia,	Turkey,	Europe	46-40 N.	29-00 E.
BERLIN,	Brandenburg,	Germany,	Europe	52-32 N.	13-31 E.
Bermudas,	Bermuda Isles,	Atlant. Ocean,	N. Ame-	36-25 N.	63-23 W.
			rica		
Bern,	Bern,	Switzerland,	Europe	47-00 N.	07-20 E.
Berwick,	Berwickshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48 N.	01-45 W.
Bencoolen,	Sumatra,	East India,	Asia	03-49 S.	102-05 E.
Bordeaux,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	44-50 N.	00-29 W.
Bayonne,	Gafcony,	France,	Europe	43-29 N.	01-25 W.
Boroughston-	Linlithgowsh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-48 N.	03-44 W.
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Boston,	Lincolnshire,	England,	Europe	53-10 N.	00-25 E.
Boston,	New England,	North	America	42-25 N.	70-32 W.
Bolabola,	Ille,	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-32 S.	151-47 W.
Bologne,	Picardy,	France,	Europe	50-43 N.	1-31 E.
Bologna,	Bolognese,	Italy,	Europe	44-29 N.	11-26 E.
Bolscheriskoi,	Siberia,	Ruffia,	Asia	52-54 N.	156-42 E.
Bombay,	Bombay Isle,	East India,	Asia	18-56 N.	72-43 E.
Bridge-town,	Barbadoes,	Atlant. Ocean,	N. Ame-	13-05 N.	58-03 W.
			rica		
Bilboa,	Biscay,	Spain,	Europe	43-26 N.	03-18 W.
Birmingham,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe	52-30 N.	01-50 W.
Bokharia,	Ufbec	Tartary,	Asia	39-15 N.	67-00 E.
Breda,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-40 N.	04-40 E.
Brest,	Bretany,	France,	Europe	48-22 N.	04-25 W.
Bremen,	Lower Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	53-25 N.	08-20 E.
Bristol,	Somerfethshire,	England,	Europe	51-33 N.	02-40 W.
BRESLAW,	Silefia,	Bohemia,	Europe	51-03 N.	17-13 E.
Bruffels,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-51 N.	04-20 E.
Buenos Ayres,	La Plata,	Brail,	South A-	34-35 S.	58-26 W.
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Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Longo. D. M.
Chalons,	Burgundy,	France,	Europe	46-46N.	4-56 E.
Chandernagore	Bengal,	East India.	Asia	21-51N.	88-34 E.
Charlton,	Ile,	Hudson's Bay,	North America,	52-03N.	79-00W.
Chartres,	Orleanois,	France,	Europe	48-26N.	1-33 E.
Cherbourg,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-38N.	1-33W.
Christmas,	Terra del Fu-	South	America,	55-21N.	69-57W.
Sound,	ego,				
St. Christo-	Caribbean	Sea,	N. Ame-	17-15N.	62-38W.
pher's Ile,			rica,		
Civita Vecchia	Patr. di S.	Italy,	Europe,	42-05N.	11-51 E.
	Petro,				
Clerk's Isles,	Atlantic,	Ocean,	South A-	55-05S.	34-37W.
			merica,		
Clermont,	Auvergne,	France,	Europe	45-46N.	3-10 E.
Colmar,	Alface,	France,	Europe	48-04N.	7-27 E.
Cologne,	Elect. of Co-	Germany,	Europe	50-55N.	7-10 E.
	logne,				
Cape Clear,	Irish Sea,	Ireland,	Europe	51-18N.	11-10W.
—Comorin,	On this side the	East India,	Asia	7-56N.	78-10 E.
	Ganges				
— Finisterre,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	42-51N.	9-12W.
— St. Vincent,	Algarve,	Portugal,	Europe	37-02N.	8-57W.
— of Good	Hottentots,	Caffraria,	Africa	34-29 S.	18-28 E.
Hope,					
— Florida,	East Florida,	North	America	24-57N.	80-30W.
— Verd,		Negroland,	Africa	14-45N.	17-28W.
— Horn,	Terra del Fu-	South	America	55-58 S.	67-21W.
	ego Island,				
Cattigate,	between	Swed. & Den.	Europe,		Atlantic Ocean.
Ceuta,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa	35-04N.	6-30W.
Chester,	Cheffhire,	England,	Europe	53-15N.	0-03W.
CHARLES-	South Carolina	North	America	32-45N.	79-12W.
TOWN,					
COPENHAGEN,	Zealand Isle,	Denmark,	Europe	55-40N.	12-40 E.
CONSTANTI-	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	41-01N.	28-58 E.
NOPLE,					
Cork,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	51-53N.	8-23W.
Coventry,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe	52-25N.	1-25W.
Constance,	Suabia,	Germany,	Europe	47-37N.	9-12 E.
Corinth,	Morea,	Turkey,	Europe	37-30N.	23-00 E.
Cowes,	Ile of Wight,	England,	Europe	50-46N.	1-14W.
Cracow,	Little Poland,	Poland,	Europe	50-10N.	19-55 E.
Cremfmunster,	Arch-duchy of	Germany,	Europe	48-03N.	14-12 E.
	Austria,				
Curassou,	Curassou Isle,	West India,	America	11-56N.	68-20W.
Cusco,	Peru,	South	America	12-25 S.	70-00W.
Cummin,	Ile,	North Pacific	Asia	31-40N.	121-09 E.
		Ocean,			
D Amascus,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33-15N.	37-20 E.
Dantzic,	Polish Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	54-22N.	18-38 E.
Dacca,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	23-30N.	89-20 E.
Delhi,	Delhi,	East India,	Asia	29-00N.	76-30 E.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat.</i>	<i>Long.</i>
				D. M.	D. M.
Delft,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-06N.	4-05 E.
Derbent,	Dagistan,	Persia,	Asia	41-41N.	50-30 E.
Dax,	Galcony,	France,	Europe	43-42N.	0-58W.
Dieppe,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-55N.	0-59 E.
Dijon,	Burgundy,	France,	Europe	47-19N.	4-57 E.
Dilbingen,	Suabia,	Germany,	Europe	48-30N.	10-19 E.
Dol,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe	48-33N.	1-41 W.
Dominique,	Wind. Islands,	West India,	America	15-18N.	1-22 W.
Dover,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-07N.	1-13 E.
Dreux,	Orleanois,	France,	Europe	48-44N.	1-16 E.
Derby,	Derbyshire,	England,	Europe	52-58N.	1-30W.
Derry,	Ulster,	Ireland,	Europe	54-52N.	7-40W.
Dieu,	Guzerat,	East India,	Asia	21-37N.	69-30 E.
DRESDEN,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-00N.	13-36 E.
Dundee,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56-26N.	2-48W.
DUBLIN,	Leinster,	Ireland,	Europe	53-21N.	6-01 W.
Durham,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54-48N.	1-25 W.
Dumbarton,	Dumbartonsh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-44N.	4-20W.
Dungenesf,	Kent,	England,	Europe	50-52N.	1-04 E.
Dunkirk,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-02N.	2-27 E.
Dunbar,	Haddington,	Scotland,	Europe	55-58N.	2-25 W.
Dumfries,	Dumfrieshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-08N.	3-25 W.
E nglish Channel,	between	Eng. and Fran.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Eastern Ocean, betw. the N. W. of N. Am. and N. E. of Asia, N. I				Ocean	
Ephesus,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	38-01N.	30 E.
Eaowee Isle,	Pacific Ocean,	Ocean,	Asia	21-24 S.	174-25 W.
Easter Isle,	Pacific Ocean,	Ocean,	America	27-06 S.	109-41 W.
Edinburgh,	Edinburghsh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-57N.	3-07 W.
Edystone,	Eng. Channel,	England,	Europe	50-08N.	4-19 W.
Enebrun,	Dauphiné	France,	Europe	44-34N.	6-34 E.
Enatum Isle,	Pacific Ocean,	Ocean,	Asia	20-10 S.	169-59 E.
Elbing,	Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	54-15N.	20-00 E.
Embsen,	Westphalia,	Germany,	Europe	53-25N.	7-10 E.
Erramanga Isle	Pacific Ocean,	Ocean,	Asia	18-46 S.	169-23 E.
Erzerum,	Turcomania,	Turkey,	Asia	39-56N.	42-05 E.
Ethiopian Sea,	Coast of	Guinea,	Africa	Atlantic Ocean.	
Eustatius,	Carib. Sea,	West India,	N. Amer.	17-29N.	63-05 W.
Evreux	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-01N.	1-13 E.
Exeter,	Devonshire,	England,	Europe	50-44N.	3-29 W.
F Almouth,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-08N.	4-57 W.
Falkirk,	Stirling,	Scotland,	Europe	55-58N.	3-48 W.
Fez,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa	33-30N.	6-00 W.
Ferrol,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	43-30N.	8-40 W.
Fayal Town,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	38-32N.	28-36 W.
Ferdinand Na-ronka,		Brasil,	South A-merica	3-56 S.	32-43 W.
Ferrara,	Ferrarese,	Italy,	Europe	44-54N.	11-41 E.
Ferro (Town)	Canaries,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	27-47N.	17-40 W.
Florence,	Tuscany,	Italy,	Europe	43-46N.	11-07 E.
Flores,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	39-34N.	30-51 W.
St. Flour,	Auvergne,	France,	Europe	45-01N.	3-10 E.
France (Isle of)	Indian Ocean,	Africa		10-09 S.	57-33 E.

Names

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Gibralt

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St. Geo

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Glasgow

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Hanover,

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Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. & Long.	
				D. M.	D. M.
Francfort on the Main,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe	49-53 N.	8-40 E.
Fräwenburg,	Polish	Prussia,	Europe	54-32 N.	20-12 E.
Fuego Isle,	Cape Verd,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	14-56 N.	24-23 W.
Funchal,	Madeira,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	32-37 N.	17-01 W.
Furneaux Isle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Asia	17-11 S.	143-01 W.
Fort St. David,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	12-05 N.	80-55 E.
G AP, Dauphiné,		France,	Europe	44-33 N.	6-09 E.
Genes, Savoy,		Italy,	Europe	44-25 N.	8-40 E.
Geneva, Geneva,		Switzerland,	Europe	46-12 N.	6-05 E.
St. Georg. Isle,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	38-39 N.	27-55 W.
G ENOA, Genoa,		Italy,	Europe	44-25 N.	8-30 E.
Gibraltar, Andalusia,		Spain,	Europe	36-05 N.	5-17 W.
St. George To. Bermudas,		Atlant. Ocean,	N. Amer.	32-45 N.	63-30 W.
St. Georg. Fort Coromandel,		East India,	Asia	13-04 N.	80-33 E.
Ghent, Flanders,		Netherlands,	Europe	51-03 N.	3-48 E.
Glasgow, Lanerksire,		Scotland,	Europe	55-51 N.	4-10 W.
Goa, Malabar,		East India,	Asia	15-31 N.	73-50 E.
Goat Isle, Indian		Ocean,	Asia	13-55 N.	120-07 E.
Gomera Isle, Canaries,		Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	28-05 N.	17-03 W.
Good Hope, T. Hottentots,		Caffres,	Africa	33-55 S.	18-28 E.
Goree, Atlantic		Ocean,	Africa	14-40 N.	17-20 W.
Gottenburg, Gothland,		Sweden,	Europe	57-42 N.	11-43 E.
Gottengen, Hanover,		Germany,	Europe	51-31 N.	9-58 E.
Granville, Normandy,		France,	Europe	48-50 N.	1-32 W.
Gratiosa, Azores,		Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	39-02 N.	27-53 W.
Graz, Stiria,		Germany,	Europe	47-04 N.	15-29 E.
Gravelines, Fr. Flanders,		Netherlands,	Europe	50-59 N.	2-13 E.
Gryphiswald, Pomerania,		Germany,	Europe	54-04 N.	13-43 E.
Guadaloupe, Caribbean		Sea,	N. Amer.	15-59 N.	61-54 W.
Gloucester, Gloucestersh.		England,	Europe	51-05 N.	2-16 W.
Gombroon, Farisfan,		Perfia,	Asia	27-30 N.	74-20 E.
Greenock, Renfrewshire,		Scotland,	Europe	55-52 N.	4-22 W.
Guam, Ladrone Isles,		East India,	Asia	14-00 N.	140-30 E.
Gulf of Bothnia Coast of		Sweden,	Europe		Baltic Sea.
— of Finland, between		Swed. & Russia,	Europe		Baltic Sea.
— of Venice, between		Italy & Turk.	Europe		Mediterranean Sea.
— of Ormus, between		Perfia & Arab.	Asia		Indian Ocean.
— of Perfia, between		Perfia & Arab.	Asia		Indian Ocean.
— of California, between		Calif. & Mexico	N. Amer.		Pacific Ocean.
— of St. Law, Coast of		New Scotland,	N. Amer.		Atlantic Ocean.
— of Mexico, Coast of		Mexico,	N. Amer.		Atlantic Ocean.
H AGUE, Holland,		Netherlands,	Europe	52-04 N.	4-22 E.
Hamburg Holstein,		Germany,	Europe	53-34 N.	9-55 E.
Hastings, Suffex,		England,	Europe	50-52 N.	0-40 E.
Halifax, Yorkshire,		England,	Europe	53-45 N.	1-52 W.
HALIFAX, Nova Scotia,		North America		44-40 N.	63-15 W.
Hanover, Saxony,		Germany,	Europe	52-33 N.	9-35 E.
Havannah, Cuba		Island,	N. Amer.	23-11 N.	2-13 W.
Havrede Grace Normandy,		France,	Europe	49-29 N.	1-10 E.
La Heefe, D. Flanders,		Netherlands,	Europe	51-55 N.	4-50 E.
Hellefpont, Med. & Bl. Sea,		Europe and	Asia		

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Long.	
				D. M.	D. M.
St. Helena,	South	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	15-55 S.	5-44 W.
Ja. Town,					
Hernofand,	W. Bothnia,	Sweden,	Europe	62-38 N.	17-58 E.
Hervey's Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-17 S.	158-43 W.
Haerlem,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-20 N.	4-10 E.
Hereford,	Herefordshire,	England,	Europe	52-06 N.	2-38 W.
Hoai-Nghan,	Kiar-Nan,	China,	Asia	33-34 N.	118-54 E.
LaFogue,	Cape Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-44 N.	1-51 W.
Hood's Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	9-26 S.	138-47 W.
Hoogstrate,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-24 N.	4-52 E.
Howe's Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-46 S.	154-01 W.
Huachinc Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-44 S.	151-01 W.
Hull,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-45 N.	0-12 W.
Hudson's Bay,	Coast of	Labrador,	N. Amer.	N. Atlantic Ocean.	
Jakutskoi,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	62-01 N.	129-52 E.
Janciro Rio,		Brazil,	S. Amer.	22-54 S.	42-38 W.
Jaffy,	Moldavia,	Turkey,	Europe	47-08 N.	27-34 E.
Java Head,	Java Isle,	East India,	Asia	6-49 S.	106-55 E.
Jeddo,	Japan Isle,	East India,	Asia	36-20 N.	139-00 E.
Jerusalem,	Palestine,	Turkey,	Asia	31-55 N.	35-25 E.
Immer Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-10 S.	169-51 E.
Ingolstadt,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-45 N.	11-27 E.
St. John's To.	Antigua,	Leeward Isles,	N. Amer.	17-04 N.	62-04 E.
St. John's To.	Newfoundland	North	America	47-32 N.	52-21 W.
St. Joseph's,	California,	Mexico,	N. Amer.	23-03 N.	109-37 W.
Irraname Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-31 S.	170-26 E.
Islamabad,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	22-20 N.	91-50 E.
Isle of Pines,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	22-38 S.	167-43 E.
ISPAHAN,	Irac Agem,	Perfia,	Asia	32-25 N.	52-55 E.
Judda,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia	21-29 N.	49-27 E.
Juthria,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	14-18 N.	100-55 E.
Inverness,	Invernesshire,	Scotland,	Europe	57-13 N.	4-02 W.
Ivica Isle,	Mediterr. Sea,	Italy,	Europe	38-50 N.	1-40 E.
Isthmus of Suez	joins Africa to Asia.				
— of Corinth,	joins the Morea to Greece, Europe.				
— of Panama,	joins North and South America.				
— of Malacca,	joins Malacca to Farther India, Asia.				
Irish Sea, between Great Britain and Ireland, Europe, Atlantic Ocean.					
Indian Ocean, Coast of India, Asia.					
K	Amtschat-Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	57-20 N.	163-00 E.
ka,					
Kedgere,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	21-48 N.	88-55 E.
Kelfo,	Roxboroughf.	Scotland,	Europe	55-38 N.	02-12 W.
Kilmarnock,	Airshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-38 N.	00-30 W.
Kinsale,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	51-32 N.	08-20 W.
KINGSTON,	Jamaica,	West India,	America	18-15 N.	76-38 W.
Kiow,	Ukraine,	Russia,	Europe	50-30 N.	31-12 E.
Kola,	Lapland,	Russia,	Europe	68-52 N.	33-13 E.
Koningsberg,	Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	54-43 N.	21-35 E.
L	Ancafter, Lancashire,	England,	Europe	54-05 N.	02-55 E.
Levantsea	Coast of Syria, Asia Mediterranean sea.				
Laguna,	Teneriffe,	Canaries,	A. Ocean	28-28 N.	16-13 W.
Landau,	Alface,	France,	Europe	49-11 N.	08-02 E.

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 Limerick,
 Litchfield,
 Loretto,
 LONDON,
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 Louveau,
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 St. Lucia I
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Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat.		Long.	
				D. M.	D. M.	D. M.	D. M.
Landferoon,	Schonen,	Sweden,	Europe	55-52N.	12-51 E.		
Laufanne,	Cant. c. Vaud,	Switzerland,	Europe	46-31 N.	06-50 E.		
Leeds,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-48N.	01-29W.		
Leicefter,	Leicefterfhire,	England,	Europe	52-38N.	01-03W.		
Leipfic,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-10N.	12-25 E.		
Lepers' Ifland,	S. Pacific	Ocean,	Asia	15-23 S.	168-03 E.		
Lefkar,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-26N.	04-36W.		
Lifparre,	Güenne,	France,	Europe	45-18N.	00-52W.		
Leyden,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-10N.	04-32 E.		
Leith,	Edinburghfh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-48N.	03-00W.		
Lahor,	Lahor,	East India,	Asia	32-40N.	75-30 E.		
Linlithgow,	Linlithgowfh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-56N.	03-30W.		
Lincoln,	Lincolnfhire,	England,	Europe	53-15N.	00-27W.		
Lima,	Peru,	South	America	12-01 S.	76-44W.		
Liege,	Bifh. of Liege,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-37N.	05-40 E.		
Limoges,	Limoges,	France,	Europe	45-49N.	01-20 E.		
Lintz,	Austria,	Germany,	Europe	41-16N.	13-57 E.		
Lille,	Fren. Flanders	Netherlands,	Europe	50-37N.	03-09 E.		
Lifbon,	Eftremadura,	Portugal,	Europe	38-42N.	09-04W.		
Lizard Point,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	49-57N.	05-10W.		
Louifburg,	C. Breton Ifle,	North	America	45-53N.	59-48W.		
Limerick,	Limerickfhire,	Ireland,	Europe	52-35N.	08-48W.		
Litchfield,	Staffordfhire,	England,	Europe	52-43N.	01-04W.		
Loretto,	Pope's Territ.	Italy,	Europe	43-15N.	14-15 E.		
LONDON,	Middlefex,	England,	Europe	51-31N.	1ft Merid.		
Londonderry,	Londonderry,	Ireland,	Europe	50-00N.	07-40W.		
Louveau,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	12-42N.	100-56 E.		
Louvain,	Aufr. Brabant	Netherlands,	Europe	50-53N.	04-49 E.		
Lubec,	Holftein,	Germany,	Europe	54-00N.	11-40 E.		
St. Lucia Ifle,	Windward Ifles	West Indies,	N. Amer.	13-24N.	60-46W.		
Lunden,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe	55-41N.	13-26 E.		
Luneville,	Lotrain,	France,	Europe	48-35N.	06-35 E.		
Luxemburg,	Luxemburg,	Netherlands,	Europe	49-37N.	06-16 E.		
Lyons,	Lyons,	France,	Europe	45-45N.	04-54 E.		
Macao,	Canton,	China,	Asia	22-12N.	113-51 E.		
Macaf-far,	Celebes Ifle,	East India,	Asia	05-09 S.	119-53 E.		
Ocean.	Madeira,	Atlantic	Ocean,	32-37N.	17-01W.		
63-00 E.	Funchal,						
Madras,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	13-04N.	80-33 E.		
MADRID,	New Caftille,	Spain,	Europe	40-25N.	03-20 E.		
Magdalena Ifl.	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	10-25 S.	138-44W.		
Mahon, Fört,	Minorca,	Mediterr. fea,	Europe	39-50N.	03-53 E.		
Majorca,	Ifle,	Mediterr. fea,	Europe	39-35N.	02-34 E.		
Malacca,	Malacca,	East India,	Asia	02-12N.	102-10 E.		
Malines,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-01N.	04-33 E.		
Mallicola Ifles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-15N.	167-44 E.		
St. Maloes,	Britagne,	France,	Europe	48-38N.	01-56W.		
Malta Ifle,	Mediterranean Sea,		Africa	35-54N.	14-33 E.		
Manilla,	Luconia Phi-	East India,	Asia	14-36N.	120-58 E.		
Manila Ifle,	lip. Ifles,						
MAN TUA,	Mantua,	Italy,	Europe	45-20N.	10-47 E.		
Marigalante Ifle,	Atlantic	Ocean,	S. Amer.	15-35N.	61-00W.		

978 A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

Names of Places.		Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat.	Long.
					D. M.	D. M.
Marseilles,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43-17 N.	05-27 E.	
St. Martha,	St. Martha,	Terra Firma,	America	11-26 N.	75-59 W.	
St. Martin's Isle,	Caribbean Isl.	West India,	America	18-04 N.	62-57 W.	
Martinico Isle,	Caribbean Id.	West India,	America	14-44 N.	61-05 W.	
St. Mary's Isle,	Scilly Isles,	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	49-57 N.	06-38 W.	
St. Mary's To.	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	36-56 N.	25-5 W.	
Mafkelyne Isles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-32 S.	168-04 E.	
Mauritius,	Indian	Ocean,	Africa	20-09 S.	57-34 E.	
Matrua Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-25 S.	152-37 E.	
Mayence,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	49-54 N.	08-25 E.	
Mayo Isle,	Cape Verd,	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	15-10 N.	23-00 W.	
Meaux,	Champagne,	France,	Europe	48-57 N.	02-57 E.	
Medina,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia	25-00 N.	39-33 E.	
Mecca,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia	21-45 N.	41-00 E.	
Mediterr. sea,	between	Europe and	Africa	Atlantic	Ocean.	
Mequinez,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	34-30 N.	06-00 E.	
MESSINA,	Sicily Island,	Italy,	Europe	38-30 N.	15-40 E.	
Mergui,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	12-12 N.	98-13 E.	
Mexico,	Mexico,	North	America	19-54 N.	100-00 W.	
Milford Haven,	Pembrokesh.	Wales,	Europe	51-45 N.	05-15 W.	
Mitea Isles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-52 S.	48-01 W.	
St. Michael's	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	37-47 N.	25-37 W.	
Isle,						
Middleburg Isl.	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	21-20 S.	174-29 W.	
MILAN,	Milanese,	Italy,	Europe	45-25 N.	09-30 E.	
Mocha,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia	13-40 N.	43-50 E.	
MODENA,	Modena,	Italy,	Europe	44-34 N.	11-17 E.	
Montréal,	Canada,	North	America	45-35 N.	73-11 W.	
Montpellier,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe	43-36 N.	03-37 E.	
Montrose,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56-34 N.	0-20 W.	
Montague Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-26 S.	168-36 E.	
Montserrat Id.	Caribbean Isles,	West India,	America	16-47 N.	62-12 W.	
MOROCCO,	Morocco,	Barbary,	Africa	30-32 N.	06-10 W.	
Moscow,	Moscow,	Russia,	Europe	55-45 N.	37-50 E.	
Munich,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-09 N.	11-35 E.	
Munster,	Westphalia,	Germany,	Europe	52-00 N.	07-16 E.	
NArva,	Livonia,	Russia,	Europe	59-00 N.	27-35 E.	
Nanci,	Lorraine,	France,	Europe	48-41 N.	06-10 E.	
Nanking,	Kiangnan,	China,	Asia	32-10 N.	181-30 E.	
Namur,	Namur,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-28 N.	04-49 E.	
Nangasachi,	Japan,	N. Pacific Oc.	Asia	32-32 N.	182-51 E.	
Naples,	Naples,	Italy,	Europe	40-50 N.	14-18 E.	
Nantes,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe	47-13 N.	01-28 W.	
Nice,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	43-41 N.	07-22 E.	
Newport,	Rhode Island,	North	America	41-35 N.	71-06 W.	
Nieuport,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-07 N.	02-50 E.	
New York,	New York,	North	America	40-40 N.	74-00 W.	
Nineveh,	Curdistan,	Turkey,	Asia	36-00 N.	45-00 E.	
St. Nich. Mole,	Hispantola,	West India,	America	19-49 N.	73-24 W.	
Newcastle,	Northumberl.	England,	Europe	55-03 N.	01-24 W.	
Ningpo,	Chekiang,	China,	Asia	29-57 N.	120-23 E.	
Norfolk Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	29-01 S.	168-15 E.	
Noriton,	Pennsylvania,	North	America	40-09 N.	75-18 W.	

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 Padua,
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 PALERMO;
 Palmyra,
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 Palma Isle,
 Palmerston,
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 PARIS Obf
 vatory,
 Patriciford,
 Parma,
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 Pau,
 St. Paul's Is
 Pegu,
 Peking,
 St. Peter's Fo
 Pembroke,
 Penzance,
 PENSACOLA,
 Perigueux,

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Latitude D. M.	Longitude D. M.
North Cape,	Wardhus,	Lapland,	Europe	71-10N.	26-02 E.
Nottingham,	Nottinghamsh.	England,	Europe	53-00N.	01-06W.
Northampton,	Northampt.sh.	England,	Europe	52-15N.	00-55W.
Norwich,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52-40N.	01-25 E.
Nuremberg,	Francia,	Germany,	Europe	49-27N.	11-12 E.
Olmutz,	Moravia,	Bohemia,	Europe	49-30N.	16-45 E.
Ochotskoj,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	59-20N.	143-17 E.
Ohevahoa Ifle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	09-40 S.	150-50W.
Ohitahoo Ifle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	09-55 S.	139-01W.
Oleron Ifle,	Saintonge,	France,	Europe	46-02N.	01-20W.
Olympia,	Greece,	Turkey,	Europe	37-30N.	22-00 E.
Olinde,	Brasil,	South	America	08-13 S.	35-00W.
Onateayo Ifle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	09-58 S.	138-10W.
Oporto,	Douro,	Portugal,	Europe	41-10N.	08-22W.
Oreanburg,	Tartary,	Russia,	Asia	51-46N.	55-14 E.
Orleans,	Orleanois,	France,	Europe	47-54N.	01-59 E.
Orleans (New)	Louisiana,	North	America	29-57N.	89-53W.
Orotava,	Teneriffe,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	28-23N.	16-19W.
Ormus,	Ormicos Ifle,	Persia,	Asia	26-50N.	57-00 E.
Orsk,	Tartary,	Russia,	Asia	51-12N.	58-37 E.
Oran,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36-30N.	00-05 E.
Osnaburg Ifle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-52 S.	148-01 E.
Osleud,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-13N.	03-00 E.
Oxford Obser-	Oxfordshire,	England,	Europe	51-45N.	01-10W.
vatory,					
St. Omer's,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-44N.	02-19 E.
L'Orient (Port)	Bretagne,	France,	Europe	47-45N.	03-26W.
Pacific or between		Asia and	America		
Or.Ocean					
Padua,	Paduano,	Italy,	Europe	45-22N.	12-00 E.
Paisley,	Renfrewshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48N.	04-08W.
PALERMO,	Sicily Ifle,	Italy,	Europe	38-30N.	13-43 E.
Palmyra,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33-30N.	39-00 E.
Panama,	Darien,	Terra Firma,	S. Amer.	08-47N.	80-16W.
Palliser's Ifles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-38 S.	146-25W.
Palma Ifle,	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	28-36N.	17-45W.
Palmeriton's I.	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	18-00 S.	162-52W.
Paom Ifle	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-30 S.	168-33 E.
PARIS Obser-	Ifle of France,	France,	Europe	48-50N.	2-2 E.
vatory,					
Patriziford,	Iceland,	N. Atl. Ocean,	Europe	65-35N.	14-05W.
Parma,	Parmefan,	Italy,	Europe	44-45N.	10-51 E.
Patna,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	25-45N.	83-00 E.
Pau,	Bearn,	France,	Europe	45-15N.	00-04W.
St. Paul's Ifle,	South	Indian Ocean,	Africa	37-51 S.	77-53 E.
Pegu,	Pegu,	East India,	Asia	17-00N.	97-00 E.
Peking,	Petchi-li,	China,	Asia	39-54N.	116-29 E.
St. Peter's Fort	Martinico,	W. India,	N. Amer.	14-44N.	61-16W.
Pembroke,	Pembrokefsh.	Wales,	Europe	51-45N.	4-50W.
Penzance,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-08N.	6-00W.
PENSACOLA,	West Florida,	North	America	30-22N.	87-20W.
Perigueux,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	45-11N.	0-48 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat.		Long.	
				D. M.	D. M.	D. M.	D. M.
Perinaldi,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	43-53N.		7-45 E.	
Perth,	Perthshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-22N.		3-12W.	
Perth-amboy,	New York,	North	America	40-30N.		74-20W.	
St. Peter's Isle,	North	Atlant. Ocean,	America	46-46N.		56-12W.	
Persepolis,	Irac Aghem,	Persia,	Asia	30-30N.		54-00 E.	
Petropawlofskoi,	Kamtshatka,	Russia,	Asia	53-01N.		158-40 E.	
PETERSBURG,	Ingria,	Russia,	Europe	59-56N.		30-24 E.	
Philadelphia,	Pennsylvania,	North	America	39-56N.		75-09W.	
St. Philip's	Minorca,	Mediterr. Sea,	Europe	39-50N.		3-53 E.	
Fort,							
Pickerigill Isle,	South	Atlant. Ocean,	America	54-42 S.		36-53W.	
Pico,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	38-28N.		28-21W.	
Pines, Isle of,	N. Caledonia,	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	22-38 S.		167-43 E.	
Pisa,	Tuscany,	Italy,	Europe	43-43N.		10-17 E.	
Placentia,	Newfoundland	North	America	47-26N.		55-00W.	
Isle,							
Plymouth,	Devonshire,	England,	Europe	50-22N.		4-10W.	
Plymouth,	New England,	North	America	41-48N.		70-25W.	
Pollingen,	Suabia,	Germany,	Europe	47-48N.		10-48 E.	
Pondicherry,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	11-41N.		79-57 E.	
Ponoi,	Lapland,	Russia,	Europe	67-06N.		30-28 E.	
Porto Bello,	Terra Firina,	South	America	9-33N.		79-45W.	
Porto Santo	Madeira;	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	32-51N.		16-20W.	
Isle,							
Port Royal;	Jamaica;	West India,	America	18-00N.		76-40W.	
Port Royal,	Martinico,	West India,	America	14-35N.		61-04W.	
Portsmouth	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50-47N.		01-01W.	
Town,							
— Academy,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50-48N.		01-01W.	
Portsmouth,	New England,	North	America	53-10N.		70-20W.	
Portland Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	39-25 S.		178-17 E.	
Portland Isle,	North	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	63-22N.		18-49W.	
Prague,		Bohemia,	Europe	50-04N.		14-50 E.	
Prince of Wales	New N. Wales,	North	America	58-47N.		94-02W.	
Fort,							
Potoli,	Peru,	South	America	21-00 S.		77-00W.	
Providence,	New England,	North	America	41-50N.		71-21W.	
Preston,	Lancashire,	England,	Europe	53-45N.		2-50W.	
Presburg,	Upper	Hungary,	Europe	48-20N.		17-30W.	
Pulo Candor	Indian Ocean;	East Indies,	Asia	28-40N.		107-25 E.	
Isle,							
Pulo Timor	Gulf of Siam,	East India,	Asia	3-00N.		104-30 E.	
Isle,							
Pylestaart Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	22-23 S.		175-26W.	
Quebec,	Canada,	North	America	46-55N.		69-48W.	
St. Quin-Picardy,		France;	Europe	49-50N.		3-22 E.	
tin,							
Quito,	Peru,	South	America	0-13 S.		77-50W.	
Queen Char-	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	10-11 S.		164-35 E.	
lotte's Isles,							
R Amhead,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-18N.		4-15W.	
R Ragusa,	Dalmatia,	Venice,	Europe	42-45N.		18-25 E.	
Ratisbon,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-50N.		12-05 E.	

Names

Ré Ile
Recif,
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bon,
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Rome,
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Rotterda
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Rouen,
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— Jago,
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Saba Isle,
Sagan,
Sall Isle,
Salonichi,
Salvage I
Samana,
Samarcand
Sallsbury,
Santa Cru
Sandwich
Santa Fé,
Savannah,
Saunders's
Savage Isle
Sayd, or
Thebes
Samaria R
St. George
Channel
Scarboroug
Scone,
Schwezing
Sea of Ato
— Marmos
— Ochotsk
— Yellow,
Sedan,
Senegal,

	Names of Places. Provinces.		Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
5 E.	Ré Isle,	Aunis,	France,	Europe	46-14 N.	1-20 W.
2 W.	Recif,	Brafil,	South	America	8-10 S.	35-30 W.
0 W.	Rennes,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe	48-06 N.	1-36 W.
2 W.	Resolution Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-23 S.	141-40 W.
0 E.	Rheims,	Champagne,	France,	Europe	49-14 N.	4-07 E.
40 E.	Rhodes,	Rhodes Island,	Levant sea,	Asia	36-20 N.	28-00 E.
24 E.	Riga,	Livonia,	Russia,	Europe	56-55 N.	24-00 E.
09 W.	Rimini,	Romagna,	Italy,	Europe	44-03 N.	12-39 E.
53 E.	Rochelle,	Aunis,	France,	Europe	46-09 N.	1-04 W.
53 W.	Rochfort,	Saintonge,	France,	Europe	46-02 N.	0-53 W.
21 W.	Rock of Lif-	Mouth of Ta-	Portugal,	Europe	38-45 N.	9-30 W.
43 E.	bon,	gus river,				
17 E.	Rodez,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	44-21 N.	2-30 E.
00 W.	Rodrigues Isle,	South	Indian Ocean,	Africa	10-40 N.	63-15 E.
10 W.	Rome, (St. Peter's)	Pope's Terri-	Italy,	Europe	41-53 N.	12-34 E.
25 W.	Rotterdam	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-56 N.	4-33 E.
48 E.	Rotterdam Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	20-16 N.	174-24 W.
0-57 E.	Rouen,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-26 N.	1-00 W.
0-28 E.	S T. Auguf-	East Florida,	North	America	29-45 N.	81-12 W.
0-45 W.	tin,					
5-20 W.	— Domingo,	Carib. fea,	West India,	America	18-20 N.	70-00 W.
6-40 W.	— Jago,	Chilil,	South	America	34-00 S.	77-00 W.
1-04 W.	— Salvador,	Brafil,	South	America	11-58 S.	38-00 W.
1-01 W.	Saba Isle,	Carib. fea,	West India,	America	17-39 N.	63-12 W.
1-01 W.	Sagan,	Silefia,	Germany,	Europe	51-42 N.	15-27 E.
0-20 W.	Sail Isle,	North	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	16-38 N.	22-51 W.
8-17 E.	Salonichi,	Macedonia,	Turkey,	Europe	40-41 N.	23-13 E.
8-49 W.	Salvage Isles,	North	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	30-00 N.	15-49 W.
4-50 E.	Samana,	Hifpaniola,	West India,	America	19-1 N.	69-11 W.
04-02 W.	Samarcand,	Ufbec	Tartary,	Asia	40-40 N.	69-00 E.
7-00 W.	Salisbury,	Wiltshire,	England,	Europe	51-00 N.	1-45 W.
71-21 W.	Santa Cruz,	Teneriffe,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	28-27 N.	16-11 W.
2-50 W.	Sandwich Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-41 S.	168-38 E.
17-30 W.	Santa Fé,	New Mexico,	North	America	36-00 N.	105-00 W.
07-25 E.	Savannah,	Georgia,	North	America	31-55 N.	80-20 W.
04-30 E.	Saunders's Isle,	South Georgia,	S. Atlantic Ocean,	S. America	58-00 S.	26-53 W.
75-26 W.	Savage Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-02 S.	169-25 W.
69-48 W.	Sayd, or	Upper	Egypt,	Africa	27-00 N.	32-20 E.
3-22 E.	Thebes,					
77-50 W.	Santaria Ruins,	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Asia	32-40 N.	38-00 E.
64-35 E.	St. George's	between	England and	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
4-15 W.	Channel,	Ireland,				
18-25 E.	Scarborough,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	54-18 N.	0-10 W.
12-05 E.	Scone,	Perthshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-24 N.	3-10 W.
	Schwezingen,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	49-23 N.	8-45 E.
	Sea of Atoph,	Little Tartary,	Europe and	Asia		
	— Marmora,	Turkey in	Europe and	Asia	Black Sea	
	— Ochotfk,	between	Siberia & Kamptfchatka,	Asia,	N. Pacif. Ocean.	
	— Yellow,	betw. Eastern	Tartary, China, and	Corea,	N. Pacif. Ocean.	
	Sedan,	Champagne,	France,	Europe	49-44 N.	5-02 E.
	Senegal,		Negroland,	Africa	15-53 N.	16-26 W.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat.		Long.	
				D.	M.	D.	M.
Shepherd's Isles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-58	S.	168-47	E.
Siam,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	14-18	N.	100-55	E.
Si-gham-fu,	Cheph,	China,	Asia	34-16	N.	108-48	E.
Sifferon,	Dauphiny,	France,	Europe	44-11	N.	6-01	W.
Shrewsbury,	Shropshire,	England,	Europe	52-43	N.	2-46	W.
Shields (South)	Durham,	England,	Europe	55-02	N.	1-15	E.
Sheerness,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-25	N.	0-50	E.
Seville,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	37-15	N.	6-05	W.
Sidon,	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Asia	33-33	N.	36-15	E.
Smyrna,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	38-28	N.	27-24	E.
Southampton,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50-55	N.	1-25	W.
Sombavera Isles,	Carib. Sea,	West India,	N. America	18-38	N.	63-32	W.
Soolo Isle,	Philip. Isles,	East India,	Asia	5-57	N.	121-20	E.
Spa,	Liege,	Germany,	Europe	50-30	N.	5-40	E.
Sound,	between	Denmark and Sweden	Europe	Baltic Sea.			
Stafford,	Staffordshire,	England,	Europe	52-50	N.	2-00	W.
Stirling,	Stirlingshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-10	N.	3-50	W.
Stralsund,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe	54-23	N.	13-22	E.
Straßburgh,	Alsace,	France,	Europe	48-34	N.	7-46	E.
Stockholm,	Upland,	Sweden,	Europe	59-20	N.	18-08	E.
Straits of Dover, between England and France, English Channel.							
Straits of Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa, Mediterranean Sea.							
Straits of Babelmandel, between Africa and Asia, Red Sea.							
Straits of Ormus, between Persia and Arabia, Persian Gulf.							
Straits of Malacca, between Malacca and Sumatra, Asia, Indian Ocean.							
Straits of Magellan, between Terra del Fuego, and Patagonia, South America.							
Straits of Le Maire, in Patagonia, South America, Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.							
Straits of Waigats, between Nova Zembla and Russia, Asia.							
Straits of Sunda, between Sumatra and Java, Indian Ocean, Asia.							
Straumfels,	Iceland,	N. Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	65-39	N.	24-24	W.
Suez,	Suez,	Egypt,	Africa	29-50	N.	33-27	E.
Sunderland,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54-55	N.	1-10	W.
Surinam,	Surinam,	South America	America	6-00	N.	55-30	W.
Sultz,	Lorraine,	France,	Europe	47-53	N.	7-09	W.
Surat,	Guzerat,	East India,	Asia	21-10	N.	72-27	E.
Syracuse,	Sicily Isle,	Italy,	Europe	36-58	N.	5-05	E.
Table Island,	New Hebrides,	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-38	S.	167-12	E.
Tanna,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-32	S.	169-46	E.
Tanjour,	Tanjour,	East India,	Asia	11-27	N.	79-07	E.
Tauris,	Aderbeitzan,	Persia,	Asia	38-20	N.	46-30	E.
Taoukaa Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	14-30	S.	145-04	W.
Temontengis,	Soloo,	East India,	Asia	5-57	N.	120-58	E.
Teneriffe Peak,	Canaries,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	28-12	N.	16-24	W.
Tercera,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	38-45	N.	27-01	W.
St. Thomas's Isle,	Virgin Isles,	West India,	America	18-21	N.	64-25	W.

Names of
Timor,
Point,
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S. Poi
Thorn,
Tetuan,
Teffis,
Tobolsk
Tomsk,
Toulon,
Toledo,
Tonga T
Isle,
Trapefon
Trent,
Troy Rui
Tornea,
Tripoli,
Tripoli,
Tunis,
Turin,
Tyre,
Turtle Isl
Tyrnaw,
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Ulfeter
Uppfal
Uraniberg
Uthant Isl
Utrecht,
Venice,
Vera Cruz
Verona,
Versailles,
VIENNA (C
Vigo,
Vintimigli
Virgin G
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W
Wakefield
Pr. of W
Fort,
Wardhus,
Warlaw,
Westman
Whitfuntic
Isle,
Warwick,
Waterford
Whitehave
Williamsb
Wells,
Wincheste

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE. 983

ang. M. 47 E.	Names of Places. Provinces.		Countries.	Quarter.	Lat.	Long.
					D. M.	D. M.
	Timor, S. W.		East Indla,	Asia	10-23 S.	124-04 E.
	Point,					
	Timorland,		East Indla,	Asia	8-15 S.	131-59 E.
	S. Point,					
-55 E.	Thorn,	Regal Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	52-56N.	19-00W.
-48 E.	Tetuan,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	35-40N.	5-18W.
-01 W.	Teflis,	Georgia,	Persia,	Asia	41-30N.	47-00 E.
-46 W.	Tobolski,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	58-12N.	68-17 E.
-15 E.	Tomsk,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	56-29N.	85-04 E.
-50 E.	Toulon,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43-07N.	6-01 E.
-05 W.	Toledo,	New Castile,	Spain,	Europe	39-50N.	3-25 E.
-15 E.	Tonga Tabu	South,	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	21-09 S.	174-41 W.
-24 E.	Isle,					
-25 W.	Trapefond,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	41-50N.	40-30 E.
-3-32 W.	Trent,	Trent,	Germany,	Europe	46-05N.	11-02 E.
1-20 E.	Troy Ruins,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	39-30N.	26-30 E.
5-40 E.	Tornea,	Bothnia,	Sweden,	Europe	65-50N.	24-17 E.
	Tripoli,	Tripoli,	Barbary,	Africa	32-53N.	13-12 E.
	Tripoli,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	34-30N.	36-15 E.
2-00 W.	Tunis,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa	36-47N.	10-00 E.
3-50 W.	Turin,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	45-05N.	7-45 E.
3-22 E.	Tyre,	Palestine,	Turkey,	Asia	32-32N.	36-00 E.
7-46 E.	Turtle Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-48 S.	178-02 W.
18-08 E.	Tyrnaw,	Trentschin,	Hungary,	Europe	48-23N.	17-38 E.
	Ulietea,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-45 S.	151-26 W.
Sea.	Upsal,	Upland,	Sweden,	Europe	59-51N.	17-47 E.
	Uraniberg,	Huen Isle,	Denmark,	Europe	55-54N.	12-57 E.
	Ushant Isle,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe	48-28N.	4-59 W.
Ocean.	Utrecht,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-07N.	5-00 E.
, South	Venice,	Venice,	Italy.	Europe	45-26N.	11-59 E.
and Pacific	Veracruz,	Mexico,	North	America	19-12N.	97-25 W.
	Verona,	Veronese,	Italy,	Europe	45-26N.	11-23 E.
	Verailles,	Isle of France,	France,	Europe	48-48N.	2-12 E.
	VIENNA (Ob.)	Austria,	Germany,	Europe	48-12N.	16-22 E.
	Vigo,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	42-14N.	8-23 W.
24-24 W.	Vintimiglia,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	43-53N.	7-42 E.
	Virgin Gorda,	Virgin Isles,	West India,	America	18-10N.	63-59 W.
33-27 E.	Witz-	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe	49-46N.	10-18 E.
15-10 W.	burg,					
55-30 W.	Wakefield,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-41N.	1-28 W.
7-09 W.	Pr. of Wales	New N. Wales	North	America	58-47N.	94-02 W.
72-27 E.	Fort,					
5-05 E.	Wardhus,	Norwegian	Lapland	Europe	70-22N.	31-11 E.
167-12 E.		Lapland,				
	Warsaw,	Maffovia,	Poland,	Europe	52-14N.	21-05 E.
169-46 E.	Westman Isles,	North	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	63-20N.	20-22 W.
79-07 E.	Whitfuntide	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-44 S.	168-25 E.
46-30 E.	Isle,					
145-04 W.	Warwick,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe	52-18N.	1-32 W.
120-58 E.	Waterford,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	52-12N.	7-16 W.
16-24 W.	Whitehaven,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54-38N.	3-36 W.
27-01 W.	Williamsburg,	Virginia,	North	America	37-12N.	76-48 W.
(4-25 W.	Wells,	Somersetshire,	England,	Europe	51-12N.	2-40 W.
	Winchester,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	51-06N.	1-15 W.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat.</i> D. M.	<i>Long.</i> D. M.
Worms,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	49-38N.	8-05 E.
Worcester,	Worcestershire,	England,	Europe	52-09N.	1-55 W.
Willes's Isles,	South Georgia,	Atlant. Ocean,	America	54-00 S.	38-24 W.
Wilna,	Lithuania,	Poland,	Europe	54-41N.	25-32 E.
Wittenburg,	Upper Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-49N.	12-46 E.
Wologda,	Wologda,	Russia,	Europe	59-19N.	41-50 E.
Woflak,		Russia,	Europe	61-15N.	42-20 E.
Yarmouth,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52-45N.	1-48 E.
York,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-59N.	1-01 W.
Yorminster,	Terra del Fu-	South	America	55-26N.	70-03 W.
	ego,				
Greenwich Observ.	Kent,	England,	Europe,	51° 28' 40" N.	0° 5' 37" E.
	E. of St. Paul's,	London.			

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Europe, Northern Parts.

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MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE,

The most COPIOUS and AUTHENTIC that ever was published, of the present State of the REAL and IMAGINARY MONIES of the World.

Divided into four Parts, viz.

EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA, AND AMERICA;

Which are subdivided into fifty-five Parts, containing the Names of the most capital places, the Species whereof are inserted, shewing how the Monies are reckoned by the respective Nations; and the Figures standing against the Denomination of each foreign Piece give the English intrinsic Value thereof, according to the best Assays made at the Mint of the Tower of LONDON.

EXPLANATION

By real Money is understood an effective Specie, representing in itself the Value denominated thereby, as a GUINEA, &c.

* This Mark is prefixed to the imaginary Money, which is generally made use of in keeping Accounts, signifying a fictitious Piece which is not in being, or which cannot be represented but by several other Pieces, as a Pound Sterling, &c.

All fractions in the Value English are parts of a Penny.

= This Mark signifies, *is, make, or equal to.*

Note, for all the Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, and Danish Dominions, either on the Continent, or in the West Indies, see the Monies of the respective Nations.

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

*London, Bristol, Liverpool, &c.
Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, &c.*

Europe, Northern Parts.			£.	s.	d.
1	A Farthing	=	—	0	0 $\frac{1}{4}$
2	Farthings	=	—	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
2	Halfpence	=	—	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
4	Pence	=	—	0	0 4
6	Pence	=	—	0	0 6
12	Pence	=	—	0	1 0
5	Shillings	=	—	0	5 0
20	Shillings	=	—	1	0 0
21	Shillings	=	—	1	1 0
	a Halfpenny	—	—	0	0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$
	a Penny	—	—	0	0 1
	a Groat	—	—	0	0 4
	a Half Shilling	—	—	0	0 6
	a Shilling	—	—	0	1 0
	a Crown	—	—	0	5 0
	a * Pound Sterling	—	—	1	0 0
	a Guinea	—	—	1	1 0

I R E L A N D.
Dublin, Cork, Londonderry, &c.

	=		£.	s.	d.	
A Farthing	=	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
2 Farthings	=	a Halfpenny	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
2 Halfpence	=	* a Penny	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{3}$
6½ Pence	=	a Half Shilling	0	0	6	$\frac{1}{4}$
12 Pence	=	* a Shilling Irish	0	1	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
13 Pence	=	a Shilling	0	0	11	
65 Pence	=	a Crown	0	5	0	
20 Shillings	=	* a Pound Irish	0	13	5	$\frac{1}{4}$
22½ Shillings	=	a Guinea	1	1	0	

F L A N D E R S AND B R A B A N T.

Ghent, Ostend, &c. Antwerp, Brussels, &c.

* A Pening	=	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
4 Penings	=	an Urche	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{5}$
8 Penings	=	* a Grote	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
2 Grotes	=	a Petard	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
6 Petards	=	* a Scalin	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
7 Petards	=	a Scalin	0	0	6	$\frac{1}{4}$
40 Grotes	=	* a Florin	0	1	6	
17½ Scalins	=	a Ducat	0	9	3	
240 Grotes	=	* a Pound Flem.	0	9	0	

H O L L A N D AND Z E A L A N D.

Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Middleburg, Flushing, &c.

* Pening	=	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
8 Penings	=	* a Grote	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{5}$
2 Grotes	=	a Stiver	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{10}$
6 Stivers	=	a Scalin	0	0	6	$\frac{1}{5}$
20 Stivers	=	a Guilder	0	1	9	
2 Florins 10 Stivers	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6	
60 Stivers	=	a Dry Guilder	0	5	4	
3 Florins 3 Stivers	=	a Silver Ducatoon	0	5	8	$\frac{1}{5}$
6 Guilders	=	* a Pound Flem.	0	10	6	
20 Florins	=	a Gold Ducat, or Ducatoon	1	16	0	
15 Florins	=	a Ducatoon, another sort, called a Sovereign	1	7	0	

H A M B U R G, Altona, Lubec, Bremen, &c.

* A Tryling	=	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
2 Trylings	=	* a Sexling	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{5}$
2 Sexlings	=	a Fenning	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
12 Fenings	=	a Shilling Lub.	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{5}$
16 Shillings	=	* a Marc	0	1	6	
2 Marcs	=	a Sutch-dollar	0	3	0	
3 Marcs	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6	
4 Marcs	=	a Silver ducatoon	0	6	0	
120 Shillings	=	* a Pound Flem.	0	11	3	

EUROPE, Northern Parts.

EUROPE, Northern Parts.

GERMANY.

Germany.

BOHEMIA, SILESIA, AND HUNGARY.
Prague, Breslau, Presburgh, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Fening	==	—	0	0	0	76
2 Fenings	==	a Dreyer	0	0	0	76
3 Fenings	==	a Grosh	0	0	0	76
4 Fenings	==	a Cruitzer	0	0	0	76
2 Cruitzers	==	a White Grosh	0	0	0	76
60 Cruitzers	==	a Gould	0	2	4	76
90 Cruitzers	==	* a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	76
2 Goulds	==	a Hard Dollar	0	4	8	76
4 Góulds	==	a Ducat	0	9	4	76

AUSTRIA AND SWABIA.

Vienna, Trieste, &c. Augsburg, Blenheim, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Fening	==	—	0	0	0	76
2 Fenings	==	a Dreyer	0	0	0	76
4 Fenings	==	a Cruitzer	0	0	0	76
14 Fenings	==	a Grosh	0	0	1	76
4 Cruitzers	==	a Batzen	0	0	1	76
15 Batzen	==	a Gould	0	2	4	76
90 Cruitzers	==	* a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	76
2 Florins	==	a Specie-dollar	0	4	6	76
60 Batzen	==	a Ducat	0	9	4	76

FRANCONIA, Franckfort, Nuremberg, Dettingen, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Fening	==	—	0	0	0	76
4 Fenings	==	a Cruitzer	0	0	0	76
3 Cruitzers	==	a Keyfer Grosh	0	0	1	76
4 Cruitzers	==	a Batzen	0	0	1	76
15 Cruitzers	==	an Ort Gold	0	0	7	76
60 Cruitzers	==	a Gould	0	2	4	76
90 Cruitzers	==	* a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	76
2 Goulds	==	a Hard Dollar	0	4	8	76
240 Cruitzers	==	a Ducat	0	9	4	76

POLAND AND PRUSSIA.

Cracow, Warsaw, &c. Dantzic, Koningsberg, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Shelon	==	—	0	0	0	76
3 Shelons	==	a Grosh	0	0	0	76
5 Groshen	==	a Coustic	0	0	2	76
3 Coustics	==	a Tinsc	0	0	7	76
18 Groshen	==	an Ort	0	0	8	76
30 Groshen	==	a Florin	0	1	2	76
90 Groshen	==	* a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	76
8 Florins	==	a Ducat	0	9	4	76
5 Rix-dollars	==	a Frederic d'Or	0	17	6	76

EUROPE, Northern Parts.

GERMANY.

EUROPE, Northern Parts.

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25 C
50 C
100 C
2 F

LIVONIA. *Riga, Revel, Narva, &c.*

	=	---	l.	s.	d.	
A Blacken	=	---	0	0	0	1/2
6 Blackens	=	a Groth	0	0	0	1/2
9 Blackens	=	a Vording	0	0	0	1/2
2 Grothen	=	a Whiten	0	0	0	1/2
6 Grothen	=	a Marc	0	0	2	1/2
30 Grothen	=	a Florin	0	1	2	1/2
90 Grothen	=	* a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	1/2
108 Grothen	=	an Albertus	0	4	2	1/2
64 Whitens	=	a Copper-plate Dollar	0	5	0	1/2

DENMARK, ZEALAND, AND NORWAY.

Copenhagen, Sound, &c. Bergen, Drantheim, &c.

	=	---	0	0	0	
A Skilling	=	---	0	0	0	1/2
6 Skillings	=	a Duggen	0	0	3	1/2
16 Skillings	=	* a Marc	0	0	9	1/2
20 Skillings	=	a Rix-marc	0	0	11	1/2
24 Skillings	=	a Rix-ort	0	1	1	1/2
4 Marcs	=	a Crown	0	3	0	1/2
6 Marcs	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6	1/2
11 Marcs	=	a Ducat	0	8	3	1/2
14 Marcs	=	a Hat Ducat	0	10	0	1/2

SWEDEN AND LAPLAND.

Stockholm, Upsal, &c. Thorn, &c.

	=	---	0	0	0	
* A Runstick	=	---	0	0	0	1/2
2 Runsticks	=	a Stiver	0	0	0	1/2
8 Runsticks	=	a Copper Marc	0	0	1	1/2
3 Copper Marcs	=	a Silver Marc	0	0	4	1/2
4 Copper Marcs	=	a Copper Dollar	0	0	6	1/2
9 Copper Marcs	=	a Caroline	0	1	2	1/2
3 Copper Dollars	=	a Silver Dollar	0	1	6	1/2
3 Silver Dollars	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6	1/2
2 Rix-dollars	=	a Ducat	0	9	4	1/2

RUSSIA AND MUSCOVY.

Petersburg, Archangel, &c. Moscow, &c.

	=	---	0	0	0	
A Polufca	=	---	0	0	0	2/3
2 Polufcas	=	a Denufca	0	0	0	2/3
2 Denufcas	=	* a Copec	0	0	0	2/3
3 Copecs	=	an Altin	0	0	0	2/3
10 Copecs	=	a Grievener	0	0	5	2/3
25 Copecs	=	a Polpotin	0	1	1	2/3
50 Copecs	=	a Poltin	0	2	3	2/3
100 Copecs	=	a Ruble	0	4	6	2/3
2 Rubles	=	a Xervonitz	0	9	0	2/3

EUROPE, Northern Parts.

B A S I L. *Zurich, Zug, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
A Rap	=	---	0	0	0	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
3 Rapen	=	a Fening	0	0	0	
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer	0	0	0	
12 Fenings	=	* a Sol	0	0	1	
15 Fenings	=	a Coarse Batzen	0	0	1	
18 Fenings	=	a Good Batzen	0	0	2	
20 Sols	=	* a Livre	0	2	6	
60 Cruitzers	=	a Gulden	0	2	6	
108 Cruitzers	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6	

S T. G A L L. *Appenzel, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
An Heller	=	---	0	0	0	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
2 Hellers	=	a Fening	0	0	0	
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer	0	0	0	
12 Fenings	=	* a Sol	0	0	1	
4 Cruitzers	=	a Coarse Batzen	0	0	2	
5 Cruitzers	=	a Good Batzen	0	0	2	
20 Sols	=	* a Livre	0	2	6	
60 Cruitzers	=	a Gould	0	2	6	
102 Cruitzers	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	3	

B E R N. *Lucerne, Neufchatel, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
A Denier	=	---	0	0	0	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
4 Deniers	=	a Cruitzer	0	0	0	
3 Cruitzers	=	* a Sol	0	0	1	
4 Cruitzers	=	a Plapert	0	0	1	
5 Cruitzers	=	a Gros	0	0	2	
6 Cruitzers	=	a Batzen	0	0	2	
20 Sols	=	* a Livre	0	2	0	
75 Cruitzers	=	a Gulden	0	2	6	
135 Cruitzers	=	a Crown	0	4	6	

G E N E V A. *Pckay, Bonne, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
A Denier	=	---	0	0	0	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
2 Deniers	=	a Denier current	0	0	0	
12 Deniers	=	a Small Sol	0	0	0	
12 Deniers current	=	a Sol current	0	0	0	
12 Small Sols	=	* a Florin	0	0	4	
20 Sols current	=	* a Livre current	0	1	3	
10 1/2 Florins	=	a Patacoon	0	3	11	
15 1/2 Florins	=	a Croifade	0	5	10	
24 Florins	=	a D'cat	0	9	0	

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

SWITZERLAND.

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

FRANCE and NAVARRE.

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64

Lille, Cambray, Valenciennes, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Denier	==	---	0	0	0	
12 Deniers	===	a Sol	0	0	0	
15 Deniers	===	* a Patard	0	0	0	
15 Patards	===	* a Piette	0	0	9	
20 Sols	===	a Livre Tournois	0	0	10	
20 Patards	===	* a Florin	0	1	0	
60 Sols	===	an Ecu of Ex.	0	2	6	
10½ Livres	===	a Ducat	0	9	3	
24 Livres	===	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0	

Dunkirk, St. Omer's, St. Quintin, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Denier	==	---	0	0	0	
12 Deniers	===	a Sol	0	0	0	
15 Deniers	===	* a Patard	0	0	0	
15 Sols	===	* a Piette	0	0	7	
20 Sols	===	* a Livre Tournois	0	0	10	
3 Livres	===	an Ecu of Ex.	0	2	6	
24 Livres	===	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0	
24 Livres	===	a Guinea	1	1	0	
30½ Livres	===	a Moeda	1	7	0	

Paris, Lyons, Marfeilles, &c. Bourdeaux, Bayonne, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Denier	==	---	0	0	0	
3 Deniers	===	a Liard	0	0	0	
2 Liards	===	a Dardene	0	0	0	
12 Deniers	===	a Sol	0	0	0	
20 Sols	===	* a Livre Tournois	0	0	10	
60 Sols	===	an Ecu of Ex.	0	2	6	
6 Livres	===	an Ecu	0	5	0	
10½ Livres	===	* a Pistole	0	8	4	
24 Livres	===	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0	

PORTUGAL. Lisbon, Oporto, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
* A Re	==	---	0	0	0	
10 Rez	===	a Half Vintin	0	0	0	
20 Rez	===	a Vintin	0	0	1	
5 Vintins	===	a Testoon	0	0	6	
4 Testoons	===	a Crusade of Ex.	0	2	3	
24 Vintins	===	a New Crusade	0	2	8	
10 Testoons	===	* a Milre	0	5	7	
48 Testoons	===	a Moidore	1	7	0	
64 Testoons	===	a Joannes	1	16	0	

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

FRANCE and NAVARRE.

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Madrid, Cadix, Seville, &c. New Plate.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Maravedie	==	—	0	0	0	1/2
2 Maravedies	==	a Quartil	0	0	0	1/3
54 Maravedies	==	a Rial	0	0	5	1/4
2 Rials	==	a Pistarine	0	0	10	1/2
8 Rials	==	* a Piafre of Ex.	0	3	7	1/2
10 Rials	==	a Dollar	0	4	6	1/2
375 Maravedies	==	* a Ducat of Ex.	0	4	11	1/2
32 Rials	==	* a Pistole of Ex.	0	14	4	1/2
36 Rials	==	a Pistole	0	16	9	1/2

Gibraltar, Malaga, Denia, &c. Velon.

* A Maravedie	==	—	0	0	0	1/2
2 Maravedies	==	an Ochavo	0	0	0	1/3
4 Maravedies	==	a Quartil	0	0	0	1/4
34 Maravedies	==	* a Rial Velon	0	0	2	1/2
15 Rials	==	* a Piafre of Ex.	0	3	7	1/2
512 Maravedies	==	a Piafre	0	3	7	1/2
60 Rials	==	* a Pistole of Ex.	0	14	4	1/2
2048 Maravedies	==	a Pistole of Ex.	0	14	4	1/2
70 Rials	==	a Pistole	0	16	9	1/2

Barcelona, Saragossa, Valencia, &c. Old Plate.

A Maravedie	==	—	0	0	0	1/2
16 Maravedies	==	a Soldo	0	0	3	1/3
2 Soldos	==	a Rial Old Plate	0	0	6	1/4
16 Soldos	==	* a Dollar	0	4	6	1/2
20 Soldos	==	* a Libra	0	5	7	1/2
21 Soldos	==	* a Ducat	0	5	10	1/2
22 Soldos	==	* a Ducat	0	6	2	1/2
24 Soldos	==	* a Ducat	0	6	9	1/2
60 Soldos	==	a Pistole	0	16	9	1/2

GENOA. *Novi, St. Remo, &c.*

CORSICA. *Bastia, &c.*

A Denari	==	—	0	0	0	1/2
12 Denari	==	a Soldi	0	0	0	1/3
4 Soldi	==	a Chevalet	0	0	0	1/4
20 Soldi	==	* a Lire	0	0	8	1/2
30 Soldi	==	a Testoon	0	1	0	1/2
5 Lires	==	a Croisade	0	3	7	1/2
115 Soldi	==	* a Pezzo of Ex.	0	4	2	1/2
6 Testoons	==	a Genouine	0	6	2	1/2
20 Lires	==	a Pistole	0	14	4	1/2

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

SPAIN and CATALONIA.

ITALY.

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

ITALY.

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PIEDMONT; SAVOY AND SARDINIA.

Turin, Chamberry, Cagliari, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Denari	=	—	—	—	—	—
3 Denari	=	a Quatrini	—	0	0	0
12 Denari	=	a Soldi	—	0	0	0
12 Soldi	=	* a Florin	—	0	0	9
20 Soldi	=	* a Lire	—	0	1	3
6 Florins	=	a Scudi	—	0	4	6
7 Florins	=	a Ducattoon	—	0	5	3
13 Lires	=	a Pistole	—	0	16	3
16 Lires	=	a Louis d'Or	—	1	0	0

Milan, Modena, Parma, Pavia, &c.

A Denari	=	—	—	0	0	0
3 Denari	=	a Quatrino	—	0	0	0
12 Denari	=	a Soldi	—	0	0	0
20 Soldi	=	* a Lire	—	0	0	8
115 Soldi	=	a Scudi current	—	0	4	2
117 Soldi	=	* a Scudi of Ex.	—	0	4	3
6 Lires	=	a Philip	—	0	4	4
22 Lires	=	a Pistole	—	0	16	0
23 Lires	=	a Spanish Pistole	—	0	16	9

Leghorn, Florence, &c.

A Denari	=	—	—	0	0	0
4 Denari	=	a Quatrini	—	0	0	0
12 Denari	=	a Soldi	—	0	0	0
5 Quatrini	=	a Craca	—	0	0	0
8 Cracas	=	a Quilo	—	0	0	5
20 Soldi	=	* a Lire	—	0	0	8
6 Lires	=	a Piastre of Ex.	—	0	4	2
7½ Lires	=	a Ducat	—	0	5	2
22 Lires	=	a Pistole	—	0	15	6

ROME, Civita Vecchia, Ancona, &c.

A Quatrini	=	—	—	0	0	0
5 Quatrini	=	a Bayoc	—	0	0	0
8 Bayocs	=	a Julio	—	0	0	6
10 Bayocs	=	a Stampt Julio	—	0	0	7
24 Bayocs	=	a Testoon	—	0	1	6
10 Julios	=	a Crown current	—	0	5	0
12 Julios	=	* a Crown stampt	—	0	6	0
18 Julios	=	a Chequin	—	0	9	0
31 Julios	=	a Pistole	—	0	15	6

3 9

ITALY.

27 1/2
 17 1/2
 13 1/2
 10 1/2
 7 1/2
 4 1/2
 1 1/2
 27
 13
 6
 7
 10
 2
 9
 9
 0
 1
 0
 0
 8
 0
 7
 2
 2
 4

NAPLES. *Gaieta, Capua, &c.*

			l.	s.	d.
A Quatrini	—	—	0	0	0
3 Quatrini	==	a Grain	0	0	0
10 Grains	==	a Carlin	0	0	4
40 Quatrini	==	a Paulo	0	0	8
20 Grains	==	a Tarin	0	0	8
40 Grains	==	a Testoon	0	1	4
100 Grains	==	a Ducat of Ex.	0	3	4
23 Tarins	==	a Pistole	0	15	4
25 Tarins	==	a Spanish Pistole	0	16	9

SICILY AND MALTA. *Palermo, Messina, &c.*

A Pichila	—	—	0	0	0
6 Pichili	==	a Grain	0	0	0
8 Pichili	==	a Ponti	0	0	0
10 Grains	==	a Carlin	0	0	1
20 Grains	==	a Tarin	0	0	3
6 Tarins	==	* a Florin of Ex.	0	1	6
13 Tarins	==	a Ducat of Ex.	0	3	4
60 Carlins	==	* an Ounce	0	7	8
2 Ounces	==	a Pistole	0	15	4

Bologna, Ravenna, &c.

A Quatrini	—	—	0	0	0
6 Quatrini	==	a Bayoc	0	0	0
10 Bayocs	==	a Julio	0	0	6
20 Bayocs	==	* a Lire	0	1	0
3 Julios	==	a Testoon	0	1	6
85 Bayocs	==	a Scudi of Ex.	0	4	3
100 Bayocs	==	a Crown	0	5	0
105 Bayocs	==	a Ducatoon	0	5	3
31 Julios	==	a Pistole	0	15	6

VENICE. *Bergamo, &c.*

A Picoli	—	—	0	0	0
12 Picoli	==	a Soldi	0	0	0
6½ Soldi	==	* a Gros	0	0	2
18 Soldi	==	a Jule	0	0	6
20 Soldi	==	* a Lire	0	0	6
3 Jules	==	a Testoon	0	1	6
124 Soldi	==	a Ducat current	0	3	5
24 Gros	==	* a Ducat of Ex.	0	4	4
17 Lires	==	a Chequin	0	9	2

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

ITALY.

EUROPE, S. Parts.

A Co
4 Coz
10 Coz
20 Coz
25 Coz
4 Shah
5 Abaf
12 Abaf
50 Abaf

MOGUL.

A
2 P
4 P
5 P
16 P
4 A
2 B
14 A
4 P

TURKEY. *Morea, Candia, Cyprus, &c.*

EUROPE, S. Parts.

			l.	s.	d.		
A Mangar	==	—	—	0	0	0	1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000
4 Mangars	==	a Asper	—	0	0	0	
3 Aspers	==	a Parac	—	0	0	1	
5 Aspers	==	a Bestic	—	0	0	3	
10 Aspers	==	an Otlic	—	0	0	6	
20 Aspers	==	a Solota	—	0	1	0	
80 Aspers	==	* a Piatre	—	0	4	0	
200 Aspers	==	a Caragrouch	—	0	5	0	
10 Solotas	==	a Xerif	—	0	10	0	

ARABIA. *Medina, Mecca, Mocha, &c.*

A Carret	==	—	—	0	0	0	1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000
5 Carrèts	==	a Caveer	—	0	0	0	
7 Carrèts	==	* a Comafhee	—	0	0	0	
80 Carrets	==	a Larin	—	0	0	10	
18 Comafhees	==	an Abyfs	—	0	1	4	
60 Comafhees	==	* a Piatre	—	0	4	6	
80 Caveers	==	a Dollar	—	0	4	6	
100 Comafhees	==	a Sequin	—	0	7	6	
80 Larins	==	* a Tomond	—	3	7	6	

PERSIA. *Ispahan, Ormus, Gombroon, &c.*

A Coz	==	—	—	0	0	0	1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000
4 Coz	==	a Bifti	—	0	0	1	
10 Coz	==	a Shahee	—	0	0	4	
20 Coz	==	a Mamooda	—	0	0	8	
25 Coz	==	a Larin	—	0	0	10	
4 Shahees	==	an Abashee	—	0	1	4	
5 Abashees	==	an Or	—	0	6	8	
12 Abashees	==	a Bovello	—	0	16	0	
50 Abashees	==	* a Tomond	—	3	6	8	

GUZURAT. *Surat, Cambay, &c.*

A Pecka	—	—	—	0	0	0	1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000
2 Peckas	==	a Pice	—	0	0	0	
4 Pices	==	a Fanam	—	0	0	1	
5 Pices	==	a Viz	—	0	0	2	
16 Pices	==	an Ana	—	0	0	7	
4 Anas	==	a Rupee	—	0	2	6	
2 Rupees	==	an English Crown	—	0	5	0	
14 Anas	==	a Pagoda	—	0	8	9	
4 Pagodas	==	a Gold Rupee	—	1	15	0	

Bombay, Dabul, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
* A Budrook	—	—	0	0	0	27
2 Budrooks	==	* a Re	0	0	0	27
5 Rez	==	a Pice	0	0	0	27
16 Pices	==	a Laree	0	0	5	27
20 Pices	==	a Quarter	0	0	6	27
240 Rez	==	a Xeraphim	0	1	4	27
4 Quarters	==	a Rupee	0	2	3	27
14 Quarters	==	a Pagoda	1	3	0	27
60 Quarters	==	a Gold Rupee	1	15	0	27

Goa, Visapour, &c.

* A Re	—	—	0	0	0	27
2 Rez	==	a Bazaraco	0	0	0	27
2 Bazaracas	==	a Pecka	0	0	0	27
20 Rezas	==	a Vintin	0	0	1	27
4 Vintins	==	a Laree	0	0	5	27
3 Larees	==	a Xeraphim	0	1	4	27
42 Vintins	==	a Tangu	0	4	6	27
4 Tangus	==	a Paru	0	18	0	27
8 Tangus	==	a Gold Rupee	1	15	0	27

COROMANDEL, Madras, Pondicherry, &c.

A Cash	—	—	0	0	0	27
5 Cash	==	a Viz	0	0	0	27
2 Viz	==	a Pice	0	0	0	27
6 Pices	==	a Pical	0	0	1	27
18 Pices	==	a Fanam	0	0	3	27
10 Fanams	==	a Rupee	0	2	6	27
2 Rupees	==	an English Crown	0	5	0	27
6 Fanams	==	a Pagoda	0	8	9	27
4 Pagodas	==	a Gold Rupee	1	15	0	27

BENGAL: Calicut, Calcutta, &c.

A Pice	—	—	0	0	0	27
4 Pices	==	a Fanam	0	0	0	27
6 Pices	==	a Viz	0	0	0	27
12 Pices	==	an Ana	0	0	1	27
10 Anas	==	a Fiano	0	1	6	27
16 Anas	==	a Rupee *	0	2	6	27
2 Rupees	==	a French Ecu	0	5	0	27
2 Rupees	==	an English Crown	0	5	0	27
56 Anas	==	a Pagoda	0	8	9	27

* Major Rennell says, that we may with ease reduce any large sum in rupees to sterling, by calculating roundly at the rate of a lack of rupees to ten thousand pounds; and that a crore of rupees is equal to a million sterling.

ASIA.

MOGUL.

MALABAR.

ASIA.

10
10
35
2
70
7
2
10

A
20 P
15 M
20 M
30 M
13 C
2 J
21 C

AFRICA.

E
A
3
24
80
30
96
32
200
70

SIAM. *Pegu, Malacca, Cambodia, Sumatra, Java, Borneo, &c.*

			l.	s.	d.	
A Cori	—	—	0	0	0	3/4
10 Cori	—	a Fettec	0	0	0	3/4
125 Fettecs	—	a Satalcer	0	0	7	1/2
250 Fettecs	—	a Sooco	0	1	3	
500 Fettecs	—	a Tical	0	2	6	
900 Fettecs	—	a Dollar	0	4	6	
2 Ticals	—	a Rial	0	5	0	
4 Soocos	—	an Ecu	0	5	0	
8 Satalcers	—	a Crown	0	5	0	

CHINA. *Pekin, Canton, &c.*

			0	0	0	
A Caxa	—	—	0	0	0	3/4
10 Caxa	—	a Candereen	0	0	0	3/4
10 Candereens	—	a Mace	0	0	8	
35 Candereens	—	a Rupee	0	2	6	
2 Rupees	—	a Dollar	0	4	6	
70 Candereens	—	a Rix-dollar	0	4	4	
7 Maces	—	an Ecu	0	5	0	
2 Rupees	—	a Crown	0	5	0	
10 Maces	—	a Tale	0	6	8	

JAPAN. *Jeddo, Meaco, &c.*

			0	0	0	
A Piti	—	—	0	0	0	3/4
20 Pitis	—	a Mace	0	0	4	3/4
15 Maces	—	an Ounce Silver	0	4	10	1/2
20 Maces	—	a Tale	0	6	8	
50 Maces	—	an Ingot	0	9	8	3/4
13 Ounces Silver	—	an Ounce Gold	3	3	0	
2 Ounces Gold	—	a Japanefe	6	6	0	
2 Japanefes	—	a Double	12	12	0	
21 Ounces Gold	—	* a Cattec	66	3	0	

EGYPT. *Old and New Cairo, Alexandria, Sayde, &c.*

			0	0	0	
An Asper	—	—	0	0	0	3/4
3 Aspers	—	a Medin	0	0	1	
24 Medins	—	an Italian Ducat	0	3	4	
80 Aspers	—	* a Piaftre	0	4	0	
30 Medins	—	a Dollar	0	4	0	
96 Aspers	—	an Ecu	0	5	0	
32 Medins	—	a Crown	0	5	0	
200 Aspers	—	a Sultanin	0	10	0	
70 Medins	—	a Pargo Dollar	0	10	0	

27
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27
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&c.

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27
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rupees to ster
d pounds; and

BARBARY. *Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Una, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
An Asper	—	—	0	0	0	1/2
3 Aspers	==	a Medin	0	0	1	
10 Aspers	==	a Rial Old Plate	0	0	6	
2 Rials	==	a Double	0	1	1	
4 Doubles	==	a Dollar	0	4	6	
24 Medins	==	a Silver Chequin	0	5	4	
30 Medins	==	a Dollar	0	4	6	
180 Aspers	==	a Zequin	0	8	10	
45 Doubles	==	a Pistole	0	16	9	

AFRICA.

MOROCCO. *Santa Cruz, Mequinez, Fez, Tangier, Salie, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
A Fluce	—	—	0	0	0	1/2
24 Fluces	==	a Blanquil	0	0	2	
4 Blanquils	==	an Ounce	0	0	8	
7 Blanquils	==	an Octavo	0	1	2	
14 Blanquils	==	a Quarto	0	2	4	
2 Quartos	==	a Medio	0	4	8	
28 Blanquils	==	a Dollar	0	4	6	
54 Blanquils	==	a Xequin	0	9	0	
100 Blanquils	==	a Pistole	0	16	9	

AMERICA:

WEST INDIES.

ENGLISH. *Jamaica, Barbadoes, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
* A Halfpenny	—	—	0	0	0	1/2
2 Halfpence	==	* a Penny	0	0	0	
7 1/2 Pence	==	a Bit	0	0	5	
12 Pence	==	* a Shilling	0	0	8	
75 Pence	==	a Dollar	0	4	6	
17 Shillings	==	a Crown	0	5	0	
20 Shillings	==	* a Pound	0	4	3	
24 Shillings	==	a Pistole	0	16	9	
30 Shillings	==	a Guinea	1	1	0	

FRENCH. *St. Domingo, Martinico, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
* A Half Sol	—	—	0	0	0	1/2
2 Half Sols	==	* a Sol	0	0	0	
7 1/2 Sols	==	a Half Scalin	0	0	2	
15 Sols	==	a Scalin	0	0	5	
20 Sols	==	* a Livre	9	0	7	
27 Livres	==	a Dollar	0	4	6	
8 Livres	==	an Ecu	0	4	10	
26 Livres	==	a Pistole	0	16	9	
92 Livres	==	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0	

AMERICA.

CONTINENT.

Note. either on respective

ENGLISH. *Nova Scotia, New England, Virginia, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.
* A Penny	—	—	—	0	1
12 Pence	=	* a Shilling	—	0	1
20 Shillings	=	* a Pound	—	1	0
2 Pounds					
3 Pounds					
4 Pounds					
5 Pounds					
6 Pounds					
7 Pounds					
8 Pounds					
9 Pounds					
10 Pounds					

The Value of the Currency alters according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold and Silver Coins that are imported.

AMERICA. CONTINENT.

FRENCH. *Canada, Florida, Cayenne, &c.*

* A Denier		
12 Deniers	=	* a Sol
20 Sols	=	* a Livre
2 Livres		
3 Livres		
4 Livres		
5 Livres		
6 Livres		
7 Livres		
8 Livres		
9 Livres		
10 Livres		

The Value of the Currency alters according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold and Silver Coins that are imported.

Note. For all the *Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch,* and *Danish* Dominions, either on the Continent or in the **WEST INDIES,** see the **MONIES** of the respective Nations.

0 1 6 1 6 4 6 10 9

angier,

0 2 8 2 4 8 6 0 9

0 0 5 8 6 0 3 9 0

0 0 2 5 7 10 6 9 0

0 0 2 5 7 10 6 9 0

0 0 2 5 7 10 6 9 0

3 S. 4

NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

REMARKABLE EVENTS, DISCOVERIES, and INVENTIONS;

ALSO

THE ERA, THE COUNTRY, AND WRITINGS OF LEARNED MEN:

The whole comprehending, in one View, the Analysis or Outlines of General History, from the Creation to the present Time.

Bef. Christ.

- 4004 THE creation of the world, and Adam and Eve.
- 4003 The birth of Cain, the first who was born of a woman.
- 3017 Enoch, for his piety, is translated to Heaven.
- 2348 The whole world is destroyed by a deluge, which continued 377 days.
- 2247 The tower of Babel is built about this time by Noah's posterity, upon which God miraculously confounds their language, and thus disperses them into different nations.
- About the same time, Noah is, with great probability, supposed to have parted from his rebellious offspring, and to have led a colony of some of the more tractable into the East, and there either he or one of his successors to have founded the ancient Chinese monarchy.
- 2234 The celestial observations are begun at Babylon, the city which first gave birth to learning and the sciences.
- 2188 Misraim, the son of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt, which lasted 1663 years, down to its conquest by Cambyfes, in 525 before Christ.
- 2059 Ninus, the son of Belus, founds the kingdom of Assyria, which lasted above 1000 years, and out of its ruins were formed the Assyrians of Babylon, those of Nineveh, and the kingdom of the Medes.
- 1921 The covenant of God made with Abram, when he leaves Haran to go into Canaan, which begins the 430 years of sojourning.
- 1897 The cities of Sodom and Gomorrah are destroyed for their wickedness, by fire from Heaven.
- 1856 The kingdom of Argos, in Greece, begins under Inachus.
- 1822 Meinnon, the Egyptian, invents letters.
- 1715 Prometheus first struck fire from flint.
- 1635 Joseph dies in Egypt, which concludes the book of Genesis, containing a period of 2369 years.
- 1574 Aaron born in Egypt; 1490, appointed by God first high-priest of the Israelites.
- 1571 Moses, brother to Aaron, born in Egypt, and adopted by Pharaoh's daughter, who edifies him in all the learning of the Egyptians.
- 1556 Ccerops brings a colony of Saïtes from Egypt into Attica, and founds the kingdom of Athens, in Greece.
- 1546 Scamander crosses from Crete into Phrygia, and founds the kingdom of Troy.
- 1493 Cadmus carries the Phœnician letters into Greece, and built the citadel of Thebes.
- 1491 Moses performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that kingdom, together with 600,000 Israelites, besides children; which completed the 430 years of sojourning. They miraculously pass through the Red Sea, and come to the Desert of Sinai, where Moses receives from God, and delivers to the people, the Ten Commandments, and the other laws, and sets up the tabernacle, and in it the ark of the covenant.

1485

1433

1452

1451

1406

1198

1049

1004

896

894

869

814

776

753

720

638

604

600

M

597

587

562

559

538

534

526

515

509

504

496

481

458

454

451

430

M

401

400

391

323

285

- 1485 The first ship that appeared in Greece was brought from Egypt by Danaus, who arrived at Rhodes, and brought with him his fifty daughters.
- 1453 The first Olympic games celebrated at Olympia, in Greece.
- 1452 The Pentateuch, or five books of Moses, are written in the land of Moab, where he died in the year following, aged 120.
- 1451 The Israelites, after sojourning in the Wilderness forty years, are led under Joshua into the land of Canaan, where they fix themselves, after having subdued the natives; and the period of the sabbatical year commences.
- 1406 Iron is found in Greece, from the accidental burning of the woods.
- 1198 The rape of Helen by Paris, which, in 1193, gave rise to the Trojan war, and siege of Troy by the Greeks, which continued ten years, when that city was taken and burnt.
- 1048 David is sole king of Israel.
- 1004 The temple is solemnly dedicated by Solomon.
- 896 Elijah, the prophet, is translated to Heaven.
- 894 Money first made of gold and silver at Argos.
- 869 The city of Carthage, in Africa, founded by queen Dido.
- 814 The kingdom of Macedon begins.
- 776 The first Olympiad begins.
- 753 Æra of the building of Rome in Italy by Romulus, first king of the Romans.
- 720 Samaria taken, after three years siege, and the kingdom of Israel finished, by Salmanassar, king of Assyria, who carried the ten tribes into captivity. The first eclipse of the moon on record.
- 658 Byzantium (now Constantinople) built by a colony of Athenians.
- 604 By order of Necho, king of Egypt, some Phœnicians sailed from the Red Sea round Africa, and returned by the Mediterranean.
- 600 Thales of Miletus travels into Egypt, consults the priests of Memphis, acquires the knowledge of geometry, astronomy, and philosophy; returns to Greece, calculates eclipses, gives general notions of the universe, and maintains that one supreme intelligence regulates all its motions. Maps, globes, and the signs of the Zodiac, invented by Anaximander, the scholar of Thales.
- 597 Jehoiakin, king of Judah, is carried away captive, by Nebuchadnezzar, to Babylon.
- 587 The city of Jerusalem taken after a siege of 18 months.
- 562 The first comedy at Athens acted upon a moveable scaffold.
- 559 Cyrus the first king of Persia.
- 538 The kingdom of Babylon finished; that city being taken by Cyrus, who, in 536, issues an edict for the return of the Jews.
- 534 The first tragedy was acted at Athens, on a waggon, by Theſpis.
- 526 Learning is greatly encouraged at Athens, and a public library first founded.
- 515 The second temple at Jerusalem is finished under Darius.
- 509 Tarquin, the seventh and last king of the Romans, is expelled, and Rome is governed by two consuls, and other republican magistrates, till the battle of Pharsalia, being a space of 461 years.
- 504 Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians, which gave occasion to the Persian invasion of Greece.
- 496 Æschylus the Greek poet first gains the prize of tragedy.
- 481 Xerxes the Great, king of Persia, begins his expedition against Greece.
- 458 Ezra is sent from Babylon to Jerusalem, with the captive Jews and the vessels of gold and silver, &c. being seventy weeks of years, or 490 years before the crucifixion of our Saviour.
- 454 The Romans send to Athens for Solon's laws.
- 451 The Decemvirs created at Rome, and the laws of the twelve tables compiled and ratified.
- 430 The history of the Old Testament finishes about this time. Malachi the last of the prophets.
- 401 Retreat of 10,000 Greeks under Xenophon.
- 400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy among the Greeks, believes the immortality of the soul, and a state of rewards and punishments, for which, and other sublime doctrines, he is put to death by the Athenians, who soon after repent, and erect to his memory a statue of brass.
- 391 Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, conquers Darius, king of Persia, and other nations of Asia.
- 323 Dies at Babylon, and his empire is divided by his generals into four kingdoms.
- 285 Dionysius of Alexandria began his astronomical era on Monday June 26, being the first who found the exact solar year to consist of 365 days, 5 hours, and 49 minutes.

- 284 Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, employs seventy-two interpreters to translate the Old Testament into the Greek language, which is called the Septuagint.
- 269 The first coining of silver at Rome.
- 264 The first punic war begins, and continues 23 years. The chronology of the Arundelian marble, called the Parian chronicle, composed.
- 260 The Romans first concern themselves in naval affairs, and defeat the Carthaginians at sea.
- 237 Hamilcar, the Carthaginian, causes his son Hannibal, at nine years old, to swear eternal enmity to the Romans.
- 218 The second punic war begins, and continues 17 years. Hannibal passes the Alps, and defeats the Romans in several battles, but does not improve his victories by the storming of Rome.
- 190 The first Roman army enters Asia, and, from the spoils of Antiochus, brings the Asiatic luxury first to Rome.
- 168 Perseus defeated by the Romans, which ends the Macedonian kingdom.
- 167 The first library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedonia.
- 163 The government of Judea under the Maccabees begins, and continues 136 years.
- 146 Carthage, the rival of Rome, razed to the ground by the Romans.
- 135 The history of the Apocrypha ends.
- 52 Julius Cæsar makes his first expedition into Britain.
- 47 The battle of Pharsalia between Cæsar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated.
- The Alexandrian library, consisting of 400,000 valuable books, burnt by accident.
- 43 The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himself.
- The solar year introduced by Cæsar.
- 44 Cæsar, the greatest of the Roman conquerors, after having fought fifty pitched battles, and slain 1,192,000 men, and overturned the liberties of his country, is killed in the senate-house.
- 31 The battle of Actium fought, in which Mark Antony and Cleopatra are totally defeated by Octavius, nephew to Julius Cæsar.
- 30 Alexandria, in Egypt, is taken by Octavius, upon which Antony and Cleopatra put themselves to death, and Egypt is reduced to a Roman province.
- 27 Octavius, by a decree of the senate, obtains the title of Augustus Cæsar, and an absolute exemption from the laws, and is properly the first Roman emperor.
- 8 Rome at this time is fifty miles in circumference, and contains 463,000 men fit to bear arms.
- The temple of Janus is shut by Augustus as an emblem of universal peace, and JESUS CHRIST is supposed to have been born in September, or on Munday, December 25.
- A. C.
- 12 CHRIST hearing the Doctors in the temple; and asking them questions.
- 27 ——— is baptized in the wilderness by John.
- 33 ——— is crucified on Friday, April 3, at 3 o'clock P.M.
- His resurrection on Sunday, April 5; his ascension, Thursday, May 14.
- 36 St. Paul converted.
- 39 St. Matthew writes his Gospel.
- Pontius Pilate kills himself.
- 40 The name of Christians first given at Antioch to the followers of Christ.
- 43 Claudius Cæsar's expedition into Britain.
- 44 St. Mark writes his Gospel.
- 49 London is founded by the Romans; 368, surrounded by ditto with a wall, some parts of which are still observable.
- 51 Caractacus, the British king, is carried in chains to Rome.
- 52 The council of the Apostles at Jerusalem.
- 55 St. Luke writes his Gospel.
- 59 The emperor Nero puts his mother and brothers to death.
- persecutes the Druids in Britain.
- 61 Boadicea, the British queen, defeats the Romans; but is conquered soon after by Suetonius governor of Britain.
- 62 St. Paul sent in bonds to Rome—writes his epistles between 51 and 66.
- 63 The Acts of the Apostles written.
- Christianity is supposed to be introduced into Britain by St. Paul, or some of his disciples, about this time.
- 64 Rome set on fire, and burned for six days; upon which began (under Nero) the first persecution against the Christians.
- 67 St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.
- 70 Whilst the seditious Jews are destroying one another with mutual fury, Titus, the

79 H
83 T
85 J

96 S
121 T

135 T
159 J
141 A
152 T
217 T
222 A

260 V
274 S

291 T
306 C
308 C
313 T

314 T
325 T

328 C

331 —
363 T

364 T

400 B
404 T
406 T

410 R
412 T
420 T
426 T

446 T

447 A
449 V

455 T

476 T

496 C
508 P
513 C

- Roman general, takes Jerusalem, which is razed to the ground, and the plough made to pass over it.
- 79 Herculaneum overwhelmed by an eruption of Mount Vesuvius.
- 83 The philosophers expelled Rome by Domitian.
- 85 Julius Agricola, governor of South Britain, to protect the civilised Britains from the incursions of the Caledonians, builds a line of forts between the rivers Forth and Clyde; defeats the Caledonians under Galgacus, on the Grampian hills; and first sails round Britain, which he discovers to be an island.
- 96 St. John the Evangelist wrote his revelation—his gospel in 97.
- 121 The Caledonians reconquer from the Romans all the southern parts of Scotland; upon which the emperor Adrian builds a wall between Newcastle and Carlisle; but this also proving ineffectual, Pöllius Urbicus, the Roman general, about the year 144, repairs Agricola's forts, which he joins by a wall four yards thick, since called Antoninus's wall.
- 135 The second Jewish war ends, when they were all banished Judea.
- 139 Justin writes his first apology for the Christians.
- 141 A number of heresies appear about this time.
- 152 The emperor Antoninus Pius stops the persecution against the Christians.
- 217 The Septuagint said to be found in a cave.
- 222 About this time the Roman empire begins to sink under its own weight. The Barbarians begin their eruptions, and the Goths have annual tribute not to molest the empire.
- 260 Valerius is taken prisoner by Sapor, king of Persia, and stayed alive.
- 274 Silk first brought from India; the manufactory of it introduced into Europe by some monks, 551; first worn by the clergy in England, 1534.
- 291 Two emperors, and two Cæsars, march to defend the four quarters of the empire.
- 306 Constantine the Great begins his reign.
- 308 Cardinals first created.
- 313 The tenth persecution ends by an edict of Constantine, who favours the Christians, and gives full liberty to their religion.
- 314 Three bishops, or fathers, are sent from Britain to assist at the council of Arles.
- 325 The first general council at Nice, when 318 fathers attended, against Arius, which was composed the famous Nicene creed, which we attribute to them.
- 328 Constantine removes the seat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which is thenceforward called Constantinople.
- 331 ——— orders all the heathen temples to be destroyed.
- 363 The Roman emperor Julian, surnamed the apostate, endeavours in vain to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem.
- 364 The Roman empire is divided into the eastern (Constantinople the capital) and western (of which Rome continued to be the capital) each being now under the government of different emperors.
- 400 Bells introduced by bishop Paulinus, of Campania.
- 404 The kingdom of Caledonia or Scotland revives under Fergus.
- 406 The Vandals, Alans, and Suevi, spread into France and Spain, by a concession of Honorius, emperor of the West.
- 410 Rome taken and plundered by Alaric, king of the Visi-Goths.
- 412 The Vandals begin their kingdom in Spain.
- 420 The kingdom of France begins upon the lower Rhine, under Pizarmond.
- 426 The Romans, reduced to extremities at home, withdraw their troops from Britain, and never return; advising the Britons to arm in their own defence, and trust to their own valour.
- 446 The Britons now left to themselves, are greatly harassed by the Scots and Picts, upon which they once more make their complaint to the Romans, but receive no assistance from that quarter.
- 447 Attila (surnamed the scourge of God) with his Huns ravages the Roman empire.
- 449 Vortigern, king of the Britons, invites the Saxons into Britain, against the Scots and Picts.
- 455 The Saxons having repulsed the Scots and Picts, invite over more of their countrymen, and begin to establish themselves in Kent, under Hengist.
- 476 The western empire is finished, 523 years after the battle of Pharsalia; upon the ruins of which several new states arise in Italy and other parts, consisting of Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, under whom literature is extinguished, and the works of the learned destroyed.
- 496 Clovis, king of France, baptized, and Christianity begins in that kingdom.
- 508 Prince Arthur begins his reign over the Britons.
- 513 Constantinople besieged by Vitalianus, whose fleet is burned by a speculum of brass.

516	The computing of time by the Christian era is introduced by Dionysius the monk.	1070
529	The code of Justinian, the eastern emperor, is published.	1075
557	A terrible plague all over Europe, Asia, and Africa, which continues near 50 years.	
581	Latin ceased to be spoke about this time in Italy.	1076
596	Augustine the monk comes into England, with forty monks.	1080
606	Here begins the power of the popes, by the concession of Phocas, emperor of the East.	
622	Mahomet, a false prophet, flies from Mecca to Medina, in Arabia, in the 54th year of his age and the tenth of his ministry, when he laid the foundation of the Saracen empire, and from whom the Mahometan princes to this day claim their descent. His followers compute their time from this era, which in Arabic is called Hegira, i. e. the flight.	1091
637	Jerusalem is taken by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet.	1096
640	Alexandria in Egypt is taken by ditto, and the grand library there burnt by order of Omar, their caliph or prince.	1110
653	The Saracens now extend their conquests on every side, and retaliate the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity.	1118
664	Glass introduced in England by Bensai, a monk.	
685	The Britons, after a brave struggle of near 150 years, are totally expelled by the Saxons, and driven into Wales and Cornwall.	1151 1163
713	The Saracens conquer Spain.	1164
726	The controversy about images begins, and occasions many insurrections in the eastern empire.	1172
743	The computing of years from the birth of Christ began to be used in history.	
749	The race of Abbas become caliphs of the Saracens, and encourage learning.	1176
762	The city of Bagdad upon the Tigris is made the capital for the caliphs of the house of Abbas.	
800	Charlemagne, king of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the western empire; gives the present names to the days and months; endeavours to restore learning in Europe; but mankind are not yet disposed for it, being solely engrossed in military enterprises.	1180 1181 1182
826	Harold, king of Denmark, dethroned by his subjects for being a Christian.	1186
828	Egbert, king of Wessex, unites the Heptarchy, by the name of England.	1192
836	The Flemings trade to Scotland for fish.	
838	The Scots and Picts have a decisive battle, in which the former prevail, and both kingdoms are united by Kenneth, which begins the second period of the Scottish history.	1194 1200
867	The Danes begin their ravages in England.	1208
896	Alfred the Great, after subduing the Danish invaders (against whom he fought 56 battles by sea and land), composes his body of laws; divides England into counties, hundreds, tythings; erects county-courts, and founds the university of Oxford about this time.	1215 1227
915	The university of Cambridge founded.	
936	The Saracen empire is divided by usurpation into seven kingdoms.	
975	Pope Boniface VII. is deposed and banished for his crimes.	1233
979	Coronation oaths said to be first used in England.	
991	The figures in arithmetic are brought into Europe by the Saracens from Arabia; Letters of the alphabet were hitherto used.	1253
996	Otho III. makes the empire of Germany elective.	1258
999	Bolyslaus, the first king of Poland.	1263
1000	Paper made of cotton rags was in use; that of lincn rags in 1170; the manufactory introduced into England at Dartford, 1588.	
1005	All the old churches are rebuilt about this time in a new manner of architecture.	1264
1015	Children forbidden by law to be sold by their parents in England.	
1017	Canute, king of Denmark, gets possession of England.	1269
1040	The Danes, after several engagements with various successs, are about this time driven out of Scotland, and never again return in a hostile manner.	1273 1282
1041	The Saxon line restored under Edward the Confessor.	
1043	The Turks (a nation of adventurers from Tartary, serving hitherto in the armies of contending princes) become formidable, and take possession of Persia.	1284 1285
1054	Leo IX. the first pope that maintained an army.	
1057	Malcolm III. king of Scotland, kills the tyrant Macbeth at Duninane, and marries the princess Margaret, sister to Edgar Atheling.	
1065	The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.	
1066	The battle of Hastings fought between Harold and William (surnamed the Bas-	

- tard) duke of Normandy, in which Harold is conquered and slain, after which William becomes king of England.
- 1070 William introduces the feudal law.
Musical notes invented.
- 1075 Henry IV. Emperor of Germany, and the pope quarrel about the nomination of the German bishops. Henry, in penance, walks bare-footed to the pope, towards the end of January.
- 1076 Justices of the peace first appointed in England.
- 1080 Doomday book began to be compiled by order of William from a survey of all the estates in England, and finished in 1086.
The Tower of London built by ditto to curb his English subjects; numbers of whom fly to Scotland, where they introduce the English or Saxon language, are protected by Malcolm, and have lands given them.
- 1091 The Saracens in Spain, being hard pressed by the Spaniards, call to their assistance Joseph, king of Morocco; by which the Moors get possession of all the Saracen dominions in Spain.
- 1096 The first crusade to the Holy Land is begun under several Christian princes, to drive the infidels from Jerusalem.
- 1110 Edgar Atheling, the last of the Saxon princes, dies in England, where he had been permitted to reside as a subject.
- 1118 The order of the Knights Templars instituted to defend the sepulchre at Jerusalem, and to protect Christian strangers.
- 1151 The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.
- 1163 London bridge, consisting of 19 small arches, first built of stone.
- 1164 The Teutonic order of religious knights begins in Germany.
- 1172 Henry II. king of England (and first of the Plantagenets) takes possession of Ireland, which, from that period, has been governed by an English viceroy, or lord lieutenant.
- 1176 England is divided, by Henry, into six circuits, and justice is dispensed by itinerant judges.
- 1180 Glass windows began to be used in private houses in England.
- 1181 The laws of England are digested about this time by Glanville.
- 1182 Pope Alexander III. compelled the kings of England and France to hold the stirrups of his saddle when he mounted his horse.
- 1186 The great conjunction of the sun and moon and all the planets in Libra happened in September.
- 1193 The battle of Afsalon, in Judea, in which Richard, king of England, defeats Saladin's army, consisting of 300,000 combatants.
- 1194 *Dieu et mon Droit* first used as a motto by Richard, on a victory over the French.
- 1200 Chimnies were not known in England.
Surnames now begin to be used; first among the nobility.
- 1208 London incorporated, and obtained their first charter for electing their Lord-Mayor and other magistrates, from king John.
- 1215 Magna Charta is signed by king John and the barons of England.
Court of Common Pleas established.
- 1227 The Tartars, a new race of heroes, under Gengis-Khan, emerge from the northern parts of Asia, over-run all the Saracen empire; and, in imitation of former conquerors, carry death and desolation wherever they march.
- 1233 The inquisition, begun in 1204, is now committed to the Dominicans.
The houses of London, and other cities in England, France, and Germany, still thatched with straw.
- 1253 The famous astronomical tables are composed by Alphonso, king of Castile.
- 1258 The Tartars take Bagdad, which finishes the empire of the Saracens.
- 1263 Acho, king of Norway, invades Scotland with 160 sail, and lands 20,000 men at the mouth of the Clyde, who are cut to pieces by Alexander III. who recovers the Western Isles.
- 1264 According to some writers, the commons of England were not summoned to parliament till this period.
- 1269 The Hamburg company incorporated in England.
- 1273 The empire of the present Austrian family begins in Germany.
- 1282 Lewellyn, prince of Wales, defeated and killed by Edward I. who unites that principality to England.
- 1284 Edward II. born at Caernarvon, is the first prince of Wales.
- 1285 Alexander III. king of Scotland, dies, and that kingdom is disputed by twelve candidates, who submit their claims to the arbitration of Edward king of England, which lays the foundation of a long and desolating war between both nations.

- 1293 There is a regular succession of English parliaments from this year, being the 22d of Edward I.
- 1298 The present Turkish empire begins in Bythynia under Ottoman. Silver-hafted knives, spoons, and cups, a great luxury. Tallow candles so great a luxury, that splinters of wood were used for lights. Wine sold by apothecaries as a cordial.
- 1502 The mariner's compass invented, or improved, by Givius, of Naples.
- 1507 The beginning of the Swiss cantons.
- 1508 The popes remove to Avignon in France for 70 years.
- 1310 Lincoln's Inn society established.
- 1314 The battle of Bannockburn between Edward II. and Robert Bruce, which establishes the latter on the throne of Scotland. The cardinals set fire to the conclave and separate. A vacancy in the papal chair for two years.
- 1336 Two Brabant weavers settle at York, which, says Edward III. may prove of great benefit to us and our subjects.
- 1337 The first comet whose course is described with astronomical exactness.
- 1340 Gunpowder and guns first invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologn; 1346, Edward III. had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain him the battle of Créffy; 1346, bombs and mortars were invented. Oil painting first made use of by John Vaneck. Herald's college instituted in England.
- 1344 Gold first coined in England. The first creation of titles by patent used by Edward III.
- 1346 The battle of Durham, in which David king of Scots is taken prisoner.
- 1349 The order of the Garter instituted in England by Edward III. altered in 1557, and consists of 26 knights.
- 1352 The Turks first enter Europe.
- 1354 The money in Scotland till now the same as in England.
- 1356 The battle of Poitiers, in which king John of France and his son are taken prisoners by Edward the black prince.
- 1367 Coals first brought to London.
- 1358 Arms of England and France first quartered by Edward III.
- 1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to English, as a favour of Edward III. to his people. John Wickliffe, an Englishman, begins about this time to oppose the errors of the Church of Rome with great acuteness and spirit. His followers are called Lollards.
- 1386 A company of linen-weavers from the Netherlands established in London. Windsor castle built by Edward III.
- 1388 The battle of Otterburn between Hotspur and the Earl of Douglas; on this is founded the ballad of Chevy Chase.
- 1391 Cards invented in France for the king's amusement.
- 1399 Westminster Abbey rebuilt and enlarged—Westminster hall ditto. Order of the Bath instituted at the coronation of Henry IV. renewed in 1725, consisting of 38 knights.
- 1410 Guildhall, London, built.
- 1411 The university of St. Andrew's in Scotland founded.
- 1415 The battle of Agincourt gained over the French by Henry V. of England.
- 1428 The siege of Orleans, the first blow to the English power in France.
- 1450 About this time Laurentius of Haarlem invented the art of printing, which he perfected with wooden types. Gutenberg afterwards invented cast metal types; but the art was carried to perfection by Peter Schoeffer, who invented the mode of casting the types in matrices. Frédéric Corfellis began to print in Oxford, in 1468, with wooden types; but it was William Caxton who introduced into England the art of printing with fusile types in 1474.
- 1446 The Vatican library founded at Rome. The sea breaks in at Dort, in Holland, and drowns 100,000 people.
- 1453 Constantinople taken by the Turks; which ends the eastern empire, 1123 years from its dedication by Constantine the Great, and 2206 years from the foundation of Rome.
- 1454 The university of Glasgow, in Scotland, founded.
- 1460 Engraving and etching on copper invented.
- 1477 The university of Aberdeen, in Scotland, founded.
- 1483 Richard III. king of England, and the last of the Plantagenets, is defeated and killed at the battle of Bosworth, by Henry (Tudor) VII. which puts an end to the civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster, after a contest of 30 years, and the loss of 100,000 men.

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1520 V

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1537 Y

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1543 B

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1545 E

1546 F

1549 G

1550 H

1555 I

1558 J

1560 K

1563 L

1569 M

1572 N

1579 O

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- 1488 Henry establishes fifty yeomen of the guards, the first standing army.
- 1489 Maps and sea charts first brought to England by Barth. Columbus.
- 1491 William Grocyu publicly teaches the Greek language at Oxford.
The Moors, hitherto a formidable enemy to the native Spaniards, are entirely subdued by Ferdinand, and become subjects to that prince on certain conditions, which are ill observed by the Spaniards, whose clergy employ the powers of the Inquisition, with all its tortures; and in 1609, near one million of the Moors are driven from Spain to the opposite coast of Africa, from whence they originally came.
- 1492 America first discovered by Columbus, a Genoese, in the service of Spain.
- 1494 Algebra first known in Europe.
- 1497 The Portuguese first sail to the East-Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.
South America discovered by Americus Vespufius, from whom it has its name.
- 1499 North America ditto, for Henry VII. by Cabot.
- 1500 Maximilian divides the empire of Germany into six circles, and adds four more in 1512.
- 1505 Shillings first coined in England.
- 1509 Gardening introduced into England from the Netherlands, from whence vegetables were imported hitherto.
- 1513 The battle of Flowden, in which James IV. of Scotland is killed with the flower of his nobility.
- 1517 Martin Luther began the Reformation.
Egypt is conquered by the Turks.
- 1518 Magellan, in the service of Spain, first discovers the straits of that name in South America.
- 1520 Henry VIII. for his writings in favour of popery, receives the title of Defender of the Faith from the Pope.
- 1529 The name of Protestant takes its rise from the Reformed protesting against the church of Rome, at the diet of Spires in Germany.
- 1534 The Reformation takes place in England under Henry VIII.
- 1537 Religious houses dissolved by ditto.
- 1539 The first English edition of the Bible authorized; the present translation finished 1611.
About this time cannon began to be used in ships.
- 1543 Silk stockings first worn by the French king; first worn in England by queen Elizabeth, 1561; the steel frame for weaving invented by the Rev. Mr. Lee, of St. John's College, Cambridge, 1589.
Pins first used in England, before which time the ladies used skewers.
- 1544 Good lands let in England, at one shilling per acre.
- 1545 The famous council of Trent begins, and continues 18 years.
- 1546 First law in England establishing the interest of money at ten per cent.
- 1549 Lord lieutenants of counties instituted in England.
- 1550 Horse guards instituted in England.
- 1555 The Russian company established in England.
- 1558 Queen Elizabeth begins her reign.
- 1560 The Reformation in Scotland completed by John Knox.
- 1563 Knives first made in England.
- 1569 Royal Exchange first built.
- 1572 The great Massacre of Protestants at Paris.
- 1579 The Dutch shake off the Spanish yoke, and the Republic of Holland begins.
English East-India company incorporated—established 1600.
English Turkey company incorporated.
- 1580 Sir Francis Drake returns from his voyage round the world, being the first English circumnavigator.
Parochial register first appointed in England.
- 1582 Pope Gregory introduces the New Style in Italy; the 5th of October being counted the 15th.
- 1583 Tobacco first brought from Virginia into England.
- 1587 Mary queen of Scots is beheaded by order of Elizabeth, after 18 years' imprisonment.
- 1588 The Spanish Armada destroyed by Drake and other English admirals.
Henry IV. passes the edict of Nantz tolerating the Protestants.
- 1589 Coaches first introduced into England; hackney act 1693; increased to 1000, in 1770.
- 1590 Band of penitents instituted in England.
159. Trinity College, Dublin, founded.

- 1597 Watches first brought into England from Germany.
- 1602 Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.
- 1603 Queen Elizabeth (the last of the Tudors) dies, and nominates James VI. of Scotland (and first of the Stuarts) as her successor; which unites both kingdoms under the name of Great Britain.
- 1604 The Gunpowder plot discovered at Westminster: being a project of the Roman Catholics to blow up the king and both houses of parliament.
- 1606 Oaths of allegiance first administered in England.
- 1608 Galileo, of Florence, first discovers the satellites about the planet Saturn, by the telescope, then just invented in Holland.
- 1610 Henry IV. is murdered at Paris by Ravilliac, a priest.
- 1611 Barons first created in England, by James I.
- 1614 Napier, of Merchiston, in Scotland, invents the logarithms.
Sir Hugh Middleton brings the New River to London from Ware.
- 1616 The first permanent settlement in Virginia.
- 1619 Dr. W. Harvey, an Englishman, discovers the doctrine of the circulation of the blood.
- 1620 The broad silk manufactory from raw silk, introduced into England.
- 1621 New England planted by the Puritans.
- 1625 King James dies, and is succeeded by his son, Charles I.
The island of Barbadoes, the first English settlement in the West Indies, is planted.
- 1626 The barometer invented by Torricelli.
- 1627 The thermometer invented by Drabellius.
- 1632 The battle of Lutzen, in which Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, and head of the Protestants in Germany, is killed.
- 1635 Province of Maryland planted by lord Baltimore.
Regular posts established from London to Scotland, Ireland, &c.
- 1640 King Charles disobliges his Scottish subjects, on which their army under general Lesley, enters England, and takes Newcastle, being encouraged by the malcontents in England.
The massacre in Ireland, when 40,000 English protestants were killed.
- 1642 King Charles impeaches five members, who had opposed his arbitrary measures, which begins the civil war in England.
- 1643 Excise on beer, ale, &c. first imposed by parliament.
- 1646 Episcopacy abolished in England.
- 1649 Charles I. beheaded at Whitehall, January 30, aged 49.
- 1654 Cromwell assumes the protectorship.
- 1655 The English, under admiral Penn, take Jamaica from the Spaniards.
- 1658 Cromwell dies, and is succeeded in the protectorship by his son Richard.
- 1660 King Charles II. is restored by Monk, commander of the army, after an exile of twelve years in France and Holland.
Episcopacy restored in England and Scotland.
The people of Denmark, being oppressed by the nobles, surrender their privileges to Frederic III. who becomes absolute.
- 1662 The Royal Society established in London, by Charles II.
- 1663 Carolina planted; in 1728, divided into two separate governments.
- 1664 The New Netherlands, in North America, conquered from the Swedes and Dutch by the English.
- 1665 The plague rages in London, and carries off 68,000 persons.
- 1666 The great fire of London began Sept. 2, and continued three days, in which were destroyed 13,000 houses, and 400 streets.
Tea first used in England.
- 1667 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the English the New Netherlands, now known by the names of Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey.
- 1668 The peace of ditto, Aix-la-Chapelle.
St. James's park planted, and made a thorough-fare for public use, by Charles II.
- 1670 The English Hudson's Bay Company incorporated.
- 1672 Louis XIV. over-runs great part of Holland, when the Dutch open their sluices, being determined to drown their country, and retire to their settlements in the East Indies.
African company established.
- 1678 The peace of Nimeguen.
The habeas corpus act passed.
- 1680 A great comet appeared, and from its nearness to our earth, alarmed the inhabitants. It continued visible from Nov. 3 to March 9.
William Penn, a Quaker, receives a charter for planting Pennsylvania.

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- 1683 India stock fold from 360 to 500 per cent.
- 1685 Charles II. dies, aged 55, and is succeeded by his brother, James II.
The duke of Monmouth, natural son to Charles II. raises a rebellion, but is defeated at the battle of Sedgemoor, and beheaded.
The edict of Nantz, infamously revoked by Louis XIV. and the protestants cruelly persecuted.
- 1687 The palace of Versailles, near Paris, finished by Louis XIV.
- 1688 The revolution in Great Britain begins, Nov. 5; King James abdicates, and retires to France, December 3.
- 1689 King William and Queen Mary, daughter and son-in-law to James, are proclaimed February 16.
Viscount Dundee stands out for James in Scotland, but is killed by general Mackey, at the battle of Killycrankie, upon which the Highlanders, wearied with repeated misfortunes, disperse.
The land-tax passed in England.
The toleration act passed in ditto.
Several bishops are deprived for not taking the oath to king William.
- 1690 The battle of the Boyne, gained by William against James, in Ireland.
- 1691 The war in Ireland finished; by the surrender of Limerick to William.
- 1692 The English and Dutch fleets, commanded by admiral Russell, defeat the French fleet off La Hogue.
- 1693 Bayonets at the end of loaded muskets first used, by the French against the Confederates, in the battle of Turin.
The duchy of Hanover made the ninth electorate.
Bank of England established by king William.
The first public lottery was drawn this year.
Massacre of Highlanders at Glencoe, by king William's troops.
- 1694 Queen Mary dies at the age of 33, and William reigns alone.
Stamp duties instituted in England.
- 1696 The peace of Ryswick.
- 1699 The Scots settled a colony at the isthmus of Darien, in America, and called it Caledonia.
- 1700 Charles XII. of Sweden, begins his reign.
King James II. dies at St. Germain's, in the 68th year of his age.
- 1701 Prussia elected into a kingdom.
Society for the propagation of the Gospel in foreign parts established.
- 1702 King William dies, aged 50, and is succeeded by queen Ann, daughter to James II. who, with the emperor and States General, renews the war against France and Spain.
- 1704 Gibraltar taken from the Spaniards, by admiral Rooke.
The battle of Blenheim won by the duke of Marlborough and allies, against the French.
The court of Exchequer instituted in England.
- 1706 The treaty of Union betwixt England and Scotland, signed July 23.
The battle of Ramillies won by Marlborough and the allies.
- 1707 The first British parliament.
- 1708 Minorca taken from the Spaniards by general Stanhope.
The battle of Oudenarde won by Marlborough and the allies.
Sardinia elected into a kingdom, and given to the duke of Savoy.
- 1709 Peter the Great, czar of Muscovy, defeats Charles XII. at Pultowa, who flies to Turkey.
The battle of Malplaquet won by Marlborough and the allies.
- 1710 Queen Anne changes the Whig ministry for others more favourable to the interests of her supposed brother, the late Pretender.
The cathedral church of St. Paul, London, rebuilt by Sir Christopher Wren, in 37 years, at one million expence, by a duty on coals.
The English South-Sea company began.
- 1712 Duke of Hamilton and lord Mohun killed in a duel in Hyde-Park.
- 1713 The peace of Utrecht, whereby Newfoundland, Nova-Scotia, New-Britain, and Hudson's Bay, in North America, were yielded to Great Britain; Gibraltar and Minorca, in Europe, were also confirmed to the said crown by this treaty.
- 1714 Queen Anne dies at the age of 50, and is succeeded by George I.
Interest reduced to five per cent.
- 1715 Louis XIV. dies, and is succeeded by his great-grandson, Louis XV.
The rebellion in Scotland begins in September, under the earl of Mar, in favour of the Pretender. The action of Sheriff-muir, and the surrender of Preston, both in November, when the rebels disperse.

- 1716 The Pretender married to the princess Sobieski, grand-daughter of John Sobieski, late King of Poland.
An act passed for septennial parliaments.
- 1719 The Mississippi scheme at its height in France.
Lombe's silk-throwing machine, containing 26,586 wheels, erected at Derby; takes up one eighth of a mile; one water wheel moves the rest; and in 24 hours, it works 318,504,960 yards of organaine silk thread.
- 1720 The South-Sea scheme in England, begun April 7, was at its height at the end of June, and quite sunk about September 29.
- 1727 King George dies, in the 68th year of his age; and is succeeded by his only son, George II.
Inoculation first tried on criminals with success.
Russia, formerly a dukedom, is now established as an empire.
- 1732 Kouli Khan usurps the Persian throne, conquers the Mogul empire, and returns with two hundred and thirty-one millions sterling.
Several public-spirited gentlemen begin the settlement of Georgia, in North America.
- 1736 Captain Porteus having ordered his soldiers to fire upon the populace at the execution of a smuggler, is himself hung by the mob at Edinburgh.
- 1738 Westminster-Bridge, consisting of fifteen arches, begun; finished in 1750, at the expense of 389,000*l.* defrayed by parliament.
- 1739 Letters of marque issued out in Britain against Spain, July 21; and war declared October 23.
- 1743 The battle of Dettingen won by the English and allies, in favour of the queen of Hungary.
- 1744 War declared against France. Commodore Anson returns from his voyage round the World.
- 1745 The allies lose the battle of Fontenoy.
The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, and the pretender's army defeated by the duke of Cumberland, at Culloden, April 16, 1746.
- 1746 British Linen Company erected.
- 1748 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which a restitution of all places taken during the war was to be made on all sides.
- 1749 The interest of the British funds reduced to three per cent.
British herring fishery incorporated.
- 1751 Frederick, prince of Wales, father to his present majesty, died.
Antiquarian society at London incorporated.
- 1752 The new style introduced into Great Britain; the third of September being counted the fourteenth.
- 1753 The British museum erected at Montagu house.
Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce instituted in London.
- 1755 Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake.
- 1756 One hundred and forty-six Englishmen are confined in the black-hole at Calcutta, in the East Indies, by order of the nabob, and 123 found dead next morning.
Marine society established at London.
- 1757 Damien attempted to assassinate the French king.
- 1759 General Wolfe is killed in the battle of Quebec, which is gained by the English.
- 1760 King George II. dies October 25, in the 77th year of his age, and is succeeded by his present majesty, who, on the 22d of September 1761, married the princess Charlotte, of Mecklenburgh Strelitz.
Blackfriars bridge, consisting of nine arches, begun; finished 1770, at the expense of 152,840*l.* to be discharged by a toll.
- 1762 War declared against Spain.
Peter III. emperor of Russia, is deposed, imprisoned, and murdered.
American philosophical society established in Philadelphia.
George Augustus Frederick, prince of Wales, born Aug. 12.
- 1763 The definitive treaty of Peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, concluded at Paris, February 10, which confirmed to Great Britain the extensive provinces of Canada, East and West Florida, and part of Louisiana, in North America; also the islands of Grenada, St. Vincent's, Dominica, and Tobago, in the West Indies.
- 1764 The parliament granted ten thousand pounds to Mr. Harrison, for his discovery of the longitude by his time-piece.
- 1765 His Majesty's royal charter passed for incorporating the society of artists.
An act passed annexing the sovereignty of the island of Man to the crown of Great Britain.

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- 1766 April 21, a spot or macula of the sun, more than thrice the bigness of our earth, passed the sun's centre.
- 1768 Academy of painting established in London.
- The Turks imprison the Russian ambassador, and declare war against that empire.
- 1771 Dr. Solander and Mr. Banks, in his majesty's ship the Endeavour, lieut. COOK, return from a voyage round the World, having made several important discoveries in the South Seas.
- 1772 The king of Sweden changes the constitution of that kingdom.
- The Pretender marries a princess of Germany, grand-daughter of Thomas, late earl of Ayleshury.
- The emperor of Germany, empress of Russia, and the king of Prussia, strip the king of Poland of great part of his dominions, which they divide among themselves, in violation of the most solemn treaties.
- 1773 Captain Phipps is sent to explore the North Pole, but having made eighty-one degrees, is in danger of being locked up by the ice, and his attempt to discover a passage in that quarter proves fruitless.
- The Jesuits expelled from the Pope's dominions; and suppressed by his bull, August 25.
- The English East India Company having, by conquest or treaty, acquired the extensive provinces of Bengal, Orissa, and Bahar, containing fifteen millions of inhabitants, great irregularities are committed by their servants abroad, upon which government interferes, and sends out judges, &c. for the better administration of justice.
- The war between the Russians and Turks proves disgraceful to the latter, who lose the islands in the Archipelago, and by sea are every where unsuccessful.
- 1774 Peace is proclaimed between the Russians and Turks.
- The British parliament having passed an act, laying a duty of three pence per pound upon all teas imported into America, the colonists, considering this as a grievance, deny the right of a British parliament to tax them.
- Deputies from the several American colonies meet at Philadelphia, as the first general congress, September 5.
- First petition of Congress to the king, November.
- 1775 April 19, The first action happens in America between the king's troops and the provincials at Lexington.
- May 30, Articles of confederation and perpetual union between the American provinces.
- June 17, A bloody action at Bunker's Hill, between the royal troops and the Americans.
- 1776 March 17, the town of Boston evacuated by the king's troops.
- An unsuccessful attempt, in July, made by Commodore Sir Peter Parker, and lieutenant-general Clinton, upon Charles Town, in South Carolina.
- The Congress declare the American colonies free and independent states, July 4.
- The Americans are driven from Long Island, New York, in August, with great loss, and great numbers of them taken prisoners; and the city of New York is afterwards taken possession of by the king's troops.
- December 25, General Washington takes 900 of the Hessians prisoners at Treaton.
- Torture abolished in Poland.
- 1777 General Howe takes possession of Philadelphia.
- Lieutenant-general Burgoyne is obliged to surrender his army, at Saratoga, in Canada, by convention, to the American army, under the command of the generals Gates and Arnold; Oct. 17.
- 1778 A treaty of Alliance concluded at Paris between the French king and the thirteen united American colonies, in which their independence is acknowledged by the court of France, February 6.
- The remains of the earl of Chatham interred at the public expense in Westminster Abbey, June 9, in consequence of a vote of parliament.
- The earl of Carlisle, William Eden, esq. and George Johnson, esq. arrive at Philadelphia, the beginning of June, as commissioners for restoring peace between Great Britain and America.
- Philadelphia evacuated by the king's troops, June 18.
- The congress refuse to treat with the British commissioners, unless the independence of the American colonies were first acknowledged, or the king's fleets and armies withdrawn from America.
- An engagement fought off Breit between the English fleet, under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet, under the command of count d'Orvilliers, July 27.
- Dominica taken by the French, September 7.

- 1778 Pondicherry surrenders to the arms of Great Britain, October 17.
St. Lucia taken from the French, December 28.
- 1779 St. Vincent taken by the French, June 17.
Grenada taken by the French, July 3.
- 1780 Torture in courts of justice abolished in France.
The inquisition abolished in the duke of Modena's dominions.
Admiral Rodney takes twenty-two sail of Spanish ships, January 8.
The same admiral also engages a Spanish fleet under the command of Don Juan de Langara, near Cape St. Vincent, and takes five ships of the line, one more driven on shore, and another blown up, January 16.
Three actions between admiral Rodney and the count de Guichen, in the West Indies, in the months of April and May; but none of them decisive.
Charles Town, South Carolina, surrenders to Sir Henry Clinton, May 4.
Pensacola, and the whole province of West Florida, surrender to the arms of the king of Spain, May 9.
The pretended Protestant Association, to the number of 50,000, go up to the House of Commons, with their petition for the repeal of an act passed in favour of the Papists, June 2.
That event followed by the most daring riots in the city of London and in Southwark, for several successive days, in which some Popish chapels are destroyed, together with the prisons of Newgate, the King's Bench, the Fleet, several private houses, &c. These alarming riots are at length suppressed, by the interposition of the military, and many of the rioters are tried and executed for felony.
Five English East Indiamen, and fifty English merchant ships, bound for the West Indies, taken by the combined Fleets of France and Spain, August 8.
Earl Cornwallis obtains a signal victory over general Gates, near Camden, in South Carolina, in which above 1000 American prisoners are taken, Aug. 16.
Mr. Laurens, late president of the congress, taken in an American packet, near Newfoundland, September 3.
General Arnold deserts the service of the Congress, escapes to New York, and is made a brigadier-general in the royal service, September 24.
Major André, adjutant-general to the British army, hanged as a spy at Tappan, in the province of New York, October 2.
Mr. Laurens is committed prisoner to the Tower, on a charge of high treason, October 4.
Dreadful hurricanes in the West Indies, by which great devastation is made in Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Lucia, Dominica, and other islands, Oct. 3, and 10.
A declaration of hostilities published against Holland, December 20.
- 1781 The Dutch island of St. Eustatia, taken by admiral Rodney and general Vaughan, February 3, retaken by the French, November 27.
Earl Cornwallis obtains a victory, but with considerable loss, over the Americans under general Green, at Guildford, in North Carolina, March 15.
The island of Tobago taken by the French, June 2.
A bloody engagement fought between an English squadron under the command of admiral Parker, and a Dutch squadron under the command of admiral Zootman, off the Dogger Bank, August 5.
Earl Cornwallis, with a considerable British army, surrendered prisoners of war to the American and French troops, under the command of general Washington and count Rochambeau, at York town, in Virginia, October 19.
- 1782 Trincomalee, on the island of Ceylon, taken by admiral Hughes, January 11.
Minorea surrendered to the arms of the king of Spain, February 5.
The island of St. Christopher taken by the French, February 12.
The island of Nevis taken by the French, February 14.
Montserrat taken by the French, February 22.
The house of commons address the king against any farther prosecution of offensive war on the continent of North America, March 4; and resolve, that that house would consider all those as enemies to his majesty, and this country, who should advise, or by any means attempt, the farther prosecution of offensive war on the continent or North America, for the purpose of reducing the revolted colonies to obedience by force.
Admiral Rodney obtains a signal victory over the French fleet, under the command of count de Grasse, near Dominica, in the West Indies, April 12.
Admiral Hughes, with eleven ships, beat off, near the island of Ceylon, the French admiral, Suffrein, with twelve ships of the line, after a severe engagement, in which both fleets lost a great number of men, April 13.

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- 1782 The resolution of the house of commons relating to John Wilkes, *esq.* and the Middlesex election, passed Feb. 17, 1769, rescinded, May 3.
- The bill to repeal the declaratory act of George I. relative to the legislation of Ireland, received the royal assent, June 20.
- The French took, and destroyed the forts and settlements in Hudson's Bay, August 24.
- The Spaniards defeated in their grand attack on Gibraltar, Sept. 13.
- Treaty concluded betwixt the republic of Holland, and the United States of America, October 8.
- Provisional articles of peace, signed at Paris between the British and American commissioners, by which the thirteen United American colonies are acknowledged by his Britannic majesty to be free, sovereign, and independent states, November 30.
- 1783 Preliminary articles of peace between his Britannic majesty, and the kings of France and Spain, signed at Versailles, January 20.
- The order of St. Patrick instituted, February 5.
- Three earthquakes in Calabria Ukerior and Sicily, destroying a great number of towns and inhabitants, February 5, 7, and 28th.
- Armistice between Great Britain and Holland, February 10.
- Ratification of the definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and the United States of America, September 3.
- 1784 The city of London wait on the king with an address of thanks for dismissing the coalition ministry, January 16.
- The great seal stolen from the Lord Chancellor's house in Great Ormond-street, March 24.
- The ratification of the peace with America arrived April 7.
- The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain and Holland, May 21.
- The memory of Handel commemorated by a grand Jubilee, at Westminster Abbey, May 26.
- Proclamation for a public thanksgiving, July 2.
- Mr. Lunardi ascended in a balloon from the Artillery-ground, Moorfields, the first attempt of the kind in England, September 15.
- The bull feasts abolished in Spain except for pious or patriotic uses, by edict, November 14.
- 1785 Mr. Blanchard and Dr. Jefferies went from Dover to Calais in an air balloon, in about two hours, January 7.
- A treaty of confederacy to preserve the indivisibility of the German empire, entered into by the king of Prussia, the electors of Hanover, Saxony, and Mentz, May 29.
- M. de Rosier and M. Romain ascended at Boulogne, intending to cross the channel; in twenty minutes the balloon took fire, and the aeronauts came to the ground and were killed on the spot.
- The toll was taken off Blackfriars bridge, June 22.
- The preliminaries of peace were signed between the emperor and Holland, at Paris, September 20.
- The above powers signed the definitive treaty, and a treaty of alliance between France and the Dutch on the 16th of November.
- Dr. Seabury, an American missionary, was constituted bishop of Connecticut by five non-juring Scotch prelates, Nov.
- 1786 The king of Sweden prohibited the use of torture in his dominions.
- Cardinal Turlone, high inquisitor at Rome, was publicly dragged out of his carriage by an incensed multitude for his cruelty, and hung on a gibbet fifty feet high.
- Commercial treaty signed between England and France, September 26.
- 471,000*l.* 3 per cent. stock transferred to the landgrave of Hesse, for Hessian soldiers lost in the American war, at 30*l.* a man, Nov. 21.
- Mr. Adams, the American ambassador, presented Dr. White, of Pennsylvania, and Dr. Provost of New York, to the archbishop of Canterbury, to be consecrated bishops for the United States. They were consecrated Feb. 4, 1787.
- 1787 Mr. Burke at the bar of the house of Lords, in the name of all the equanimous of Great Britain, impeached Warren Hastings, late governor-general of Bengal, of high crimes and misdemeanours, May 21.
- The king, by letters patent, erected the province of Nova Scotia into a bishop's see, and appointed Dr. Charles Inglis to be the bishop, Aug. 11.
- 1788 In the early part of October, the first symptoms appeared of a severe disorder, which afflicted our gracious sovereign. On the sixth of November they were

- very alarming, and on the thirteenth a form of prayer for his recovery was ordered by the privy council.
- 1789 His majesty was pronounced to be in a state of convalescence, Feb. 17; and to be free from complaint, February 26.
- A general thanksgiving for the king's recovery, who attended the service at St. Paul's, with a great procession, April 23.
- Revolution in France, capture of the battle, execution of the governor, &c. July 14.
- 1790 Grand confederation in the Champ de Mars, July 14.
- 1791 In consequence of some gentlemen meeting to commemorate the French revolution in Birmingham, on the 14th of July, the mob arose and committed the most dangerous outrages for some days on the persons and properties of many of the inhabitants of the town and neighbourhood; burning and destroying meeting-houses, private dwellings, &c. Peace and security were at length restored by the interposition of the military power.
- 1792 The definitive treaty of peace was signed between the British and their allies, the Nizam and Maharratas on one part, and Tippoo Sultan on the other, March 19th, by which he ceded one half of his territorial possessions, and delivered up two of his sons to Lord Cornwallis, as hostages for the fulfilment of the treaty.
- Gustavus III. king of Sweden, died on the 29th of March, in consequence of being assassinated by Ankerström.
- 1793 Louis XVI. after having received innumerable indignities from his people, was brought to the scaffold, January 21, and had his head severed by the guillotine, contrary to the express laws of the new constitution, which had declared the person of the king inviolable.
- On the 25th of March, lord Grenville and count Wenzow signed a convention at London on behalf of his Britannic majesty and the empress of Russia, to employ their forces, conjointly, in a war against France. Treaties were also entered into with the king of Sardinia and the prince of Hesse Cassel.
- The unfortunate queen of France, on the 16th of October, was conducted to the spot where Louis had previously met his fate, and beheaded by the guillotine in the thirty-eighth year of her age.
- 1794 On the first of June, the British fleet under the command of admiral earl Howe, obtained a signal victory over that of the French, in which two ships were sunk, one burnt, and six brought into Portsmouth harbour.
- 1795 In consequence of the rapid progress of the French arms in Holland, the princess of Orange, the hereditary princess, and her infant son, arrived at Yarmouth on the 19th of January. The Stadtholder landed at Harwich on the 20th.
- George prince of Wales married to the princess Caroline of Brunswick, April 8.
- The trial of Warren Hastings concluded on the 23d of April, when he was acquitted of the charges brought against him by the house of commons.
- 1796 Lord Malmesbury went to Paris in October, to open negotiations for a general peace; but returned Dec. 29, without having effected the object of his mission.
- 1797 A signal victory gained over the Spanish fleet by sir John Jervis, since created earl St. Vincent; February 14.
- An alarming mutiny on board the channel fleet at Spithead, April 15.
- The nuptials of the prince of Wirtemberg and the princess Royal celebrated at St. James's, May 18.
- Another alarming mutiny on board the fleet at Sheerness.
- Parker, the chief leader in this mutiny, executed on board the Sandwich at Blackittakes, June 30.
- Lord Malmesbury arrived at Lisle July 4, and opened a negotiation for a peace between England and the French republic, but again returned without effecting the object of his mission, September 19.
- A signal victory gained over the Dutch fleet by admiral Duncan, October 11.
- Peace between France and Austria definitively signed at Campo Formio, Oct. 17.
- A general thanksgiving for the late great naval victories. The king and the members of both houses of parliament attended divine service at St. Paul's in grand procession, Dec. 19.

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MEN of LEARNING and GENIUS.

N. B. By the Dates is implied the Time when the above Writers died; but when that Period happens not to be known, the Age in which they flourished is signified by a. The Names in Italics, are those who have given the best English Translations, in- clusive of School Books.

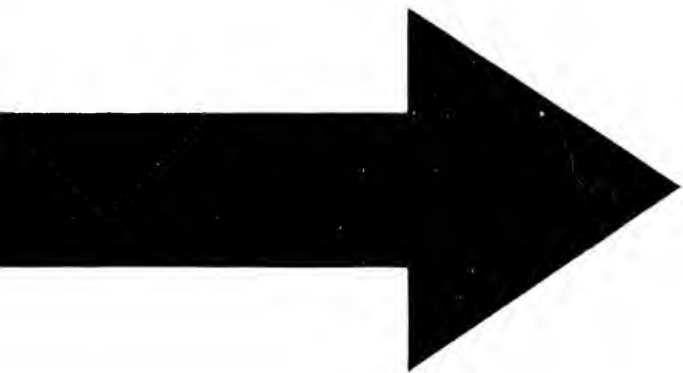
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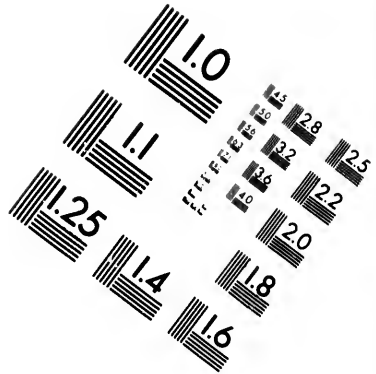
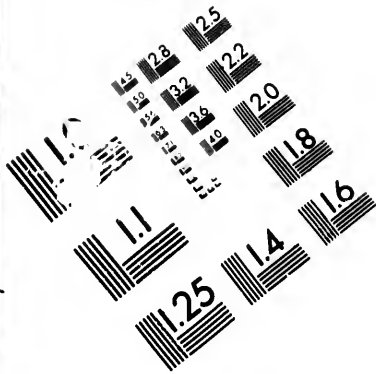
- 907 **HOMER**, the first profane writer and Greek poet, flourished. *Pope. Cowper.*
Hesiod, the Greek poet, supposed to live near the time of Homer. *Cooke.*
- 884 Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver.
- 600 Sappho, the Greek lyric poetess, *a. Favkes.*
- 538 Solon, lawgiver of Athens.
- 556 Æsop, the first Greek fabulist. *Croxal.*
- 548 Thales, the first Greek astronomer and geographer.
- 497 Pythagoras, founder of the Pythagorean philosophy in Greece. *Rowe.*
- 474 Anacreon, the Greek lyric poet. *Favkes. Addison.*
- 456 Æschylus, the first Greek tragic poet. *Potter.*
- 435 Pindar, the Greek lyric poet. *West.*
- 413 Herodotus of Greece, the first writer of profane history. *Littlebury. Blos.*
- 407 Aristophanes, the Greek comic poet, *a. White.*
Euripides, the Greek tragic poet. *Woodhull.*
- 406 Sophocles, ditto. *Franklin. Potter.*
Confucius, the Chinese philosopher, *a.*
- 400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy in Greece.
- 391 Thucydides, the Greek historian. *Smith. Hobbes.*
- 361 Hippocrates, the Greek physician. *Clifton.*
Democritus, the Greek philosopher.
- 359 Xenophon, ditto, and historian. *Smith. Spelman. Ashby. Fielding.*
- 348 Plato, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of Socrates. *Sydenham.*
- 536 Isocrates, the Greek orator. *Gillies.*
- 332 Aristotle, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of Plato. *Hobbes.*
- 313 Demosthenes, the Athenian orator, poisoned himself. *Leland. Francis.*
- 288 Theophrastus, the Greek philosopher, and scholar of Aristotle. *Budgel.*
- 285 Theocritus, the first Greek pastoral poet, *a. Favkes.*
- 277 Euclid, of Alexandria, in Egypt, the mathematician, *a. R. Simson.*
- 270 Epicurus, founder of the Epicurean philosophy in Greece. *Digby.*
- 264 Xenon, founder of the stoic philosophy in ditto.
- 244 Callimachus, the Greek elegiac poet. *Tyler.*
- 208 Archimedes, the Greek geometrician.
- 184 Plautus, the Roman comic poet. *Thornton.*
- 159 Terence of Carthage, the Latin comic poet. *Colman.*
- 155 Diogenes, of Babylon, the stoic philosopher.
- 124 Polybius, of Greece, the Greek and Roman historian. *Hampton.*
- 74 Lucretius, the Roman poet. *Creech.*
- 44 Julius Cæsar, the Roman historian and commentator, killed. *Duncan.*
Diodorus Siculus, of Greece, the universal historian, *a. Booth.*
Vitruvius, the Roman architect, *a.*
- 43 Cicero, the Roman orator and philosopher, put to death. *Guthrie. Melmoth.*
Cornelius Nepos, the Roman biographer, *a. Rowe.*
- 34 Sallust, the Roman historian. *Gordon. Rose.*
- 30 Dionysius of Halicarnassus, the Roman historian, *a. Spelman.*
- 19 Virgil, the Roman epic poet. *Dryden. Pitt. Warton.*
- 11 Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius, Roman poets. *Granger. Dart.*
- 8 Horace, the Roman lyric and satiric poet. *Francis.*

A. C.

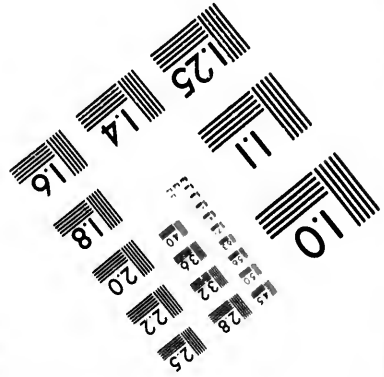
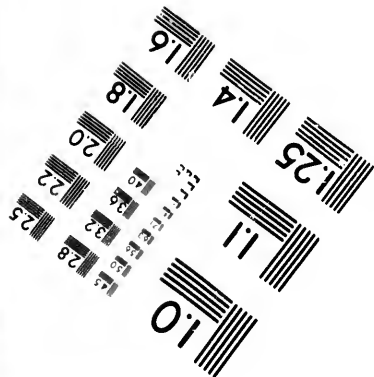
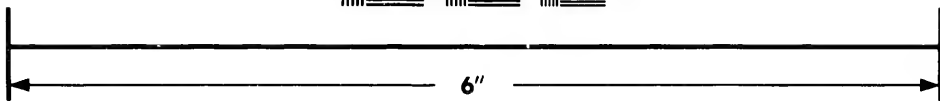
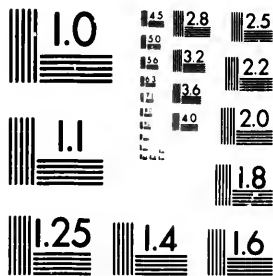
- 17 Livy, the Roman historian. *Hay.*
- 19 Ovid, the Roman elegiac poet. *Garth.*
- 20 Celsus, the Roman philosopher and physician, *a. Grievé.*
- 25 Strabo, the Greek geographer.
- 33 Phædrus, the Roman fabulist. *Smart.*
- 45 Patereulus, the Roman historian, *a. Newcome.*
- 62 Persius, the Roman satiric poet. *Brewster.*
- 64 Quintus Curtius, a Roman historian of Alexander the Great, *a. Digby.*







**IMAGE EVALUATION
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- 64 Seneca, of Spain, the philosopher and tragic poet, put to death. *L. Mfrange.*
 65 Lucan, the Roman epic poet, ditto. *Reich.*
 79 Pliny the elder, the Roman natural historian. *Holland.*
 93 Josephus, the Jewish historian. *Whiston.*
 94 Epictetus, the Greek stoic philosopher, &c. *Mrs. Carter.*
 95 Quintilian, the Roman orator and advocate. *Guthrie.*
 96 Statius, the Roman epic poet. *Lewis.*
 98 Lucius Florus, of Spain, the Roman historian, &c.
 99 Tacitus, the Roman historian. *Gordon. Murphy.*
 104 Martial, of Spain, the epigrammatic poet. *Hay.*
 Valerius Flaccus, the Roman epic poet.
 116 Pliny the younger, historical letters. *Melmoth. Orrery.*
 117 Suetonius, the Roman historian. *Hughes. Thomson.*
 119 Plutarch, of Greece, the biographer. *Dryden. Langhorne.*
 128 Juvenal, the Roman satiric poet. *Dryden.*
 140 Ptolemy, the Egyptian geographer, mathematician, and astronomer, &c.
 150 Justin, the Roman historian, &c. *Turnbull.*
 161 Arias, the Roman historian and philosopher. *Rooke.*
 167 Justin, of Samaria, the oldest Christian author after the apostles.
 180 Lucian, the Roman philologist. *Dimsdale. Dryden. Franklin.*
 Marcus Aur. Antoninus, Roman emperor and philosopher. *Collier. Elphinstone.*
 193 Galen, the Greek philosopher and physician.
 200 Diogenes Laertius, the Greek biographer, &c.
 229 Dion Cassius, of Greece, the Roman historian, &c.
 254 Origen, a Christian father, of Alexandria.
 Herodian, of Alexandria, the Roman historian, &c. *Hart.*
 258 Cyprian, of Carthage, suffered martyrdom. *Marshall.*
 273 Longinus, the Greek orator, put to death by Aurelian. *Smith.*
 320 Lactantius, a father of the church, &c.
 336 Arius, a priest of Alexandria, founder of the sect of Arians.
 342 Eusebius, the ecclesiastical historian and chronologer. *Hanmer.*
 379 Basil, bishop of Cesarea.
 389 Gregory Nazianzen, bishop of Constantinople.
 397 Ambrose, bishop of Milan.
 415 Macrobius, the Roman grammarian.
 428 Eutropius, the Roman historian.
 524 Boetius, the Roman poet and Platonic philosopher. *Bellamy. Preston. Redpath.*
 529 Procopius, of Cesarea, the Roman historian. *Holcroft.*

Here ends the illustrious list of ancient, or, as they are styled, Classic authors, for whom mankind are indebted to Greece and Rome, those two great theatres of human glory; but it will ever be regretted, that a small part only of their writings have come to our hands. This was owing to the barbarous policy of those illiterate pagans, who, in the fifth century, subverted the Roman empire, and in which practices they were joined soon after by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet. Constantinople alone had escaped the ravages of the Barbarians; and to the few literati who sheltered themselves within its walls, is chiefly owing the preservation of those valuable remains of antiquity. To learning, civility, and refinement, succeeded worse than Gothic ignorance — the superstition and buffoonery of the church of Rome; Europe therefore produces few names worthy of record during the space of a thousand years; a period which historians, with great propriety, denominate the dark or Gothic ages.

The invention of printing contributed to the revival of learning in the sixteenth century, from which memorable era a race of men have sprung up in a new soil, France, Germany, and Britain; who, if they do not exceed, at least equal the greatest geniuses of antiquity. Of these our own countrymen have the reputation of the first rank, with whose names we shall finish our list.

A. C.

- 735 Bede, a priest of Northumberland; History of the Saxons, Scots, &c.
 901 King Alfred; history, philosophy, and poetry.
 1259 Matthew Paris, monk of St. Alban's; History of England.
 1292 Roger Bacon, Somersetshire; natural philosophy.
 1308 John Fordun, a priest of Merns-shire; History of Scotland.
 1400 Geoffrey Chaucer, London; the father of English poetry.
 1402 John Gower, Wales; the poet.
 1535 Sir Thomas More, London; history, politics, divinity.
 1552 John Leland, London; lives and antiquities.

1568 Ro
 1572 Re
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1598 Ed
 1615—2
 1616 W
 1622 Jo
 1623 W
 1626 Lo
 1634 Lo
 1638 Ber
 1641 Sir
 1654 Joh
 1657 Dr.
 1667 Ab
 1674 Joh

Hy
 1675 Jan
 1677 Rev
 fern

1680 San
 1685 Tho
 1687 Ed
 1688 Dr.
 1689 Dr.
 1690 Nat

Rob
 1691 Hon
 Sir

1694 Joh
 1697 Sir
 1701 Joh
 1704 Joh
 1705 Joh

1707 Geo
 1713 Ant
 1714 Gilb
 1718 Nic
 1719 Rev

Jose
 Dr.

1721 Mat
 1724 Wil

1727 Sir
 1729 Rev

Sir
 Wil

1730 Joh
 1734 Dr.

1742 Dr.
 Dr.

1744 Ale
 1745 Rev

1746 Col
 1748 Jam

Rev

Dr.

1750 Rev
 And

1751 Hen
 Dr.

1754 Dr.
 Res

- 1568 Roger Ascham, Yorkshire; philology and polite literature.
 1572 Reverend John Knox, the Scotch reformer; History of the church of Scotland.
 1582 George Buchanan, Dumbartonshire; History of Scotland, Psalms of David, politics, &c.
 1598 Edmund Spenser, London; Fairy Queen, and other poems.
 1615—25 Beaumont and Fletcher; 39 dramatic pieces.
 1616 William Shakspeare, Stratford; 42 tragedies and comedies.
 1622 John Napier, of Merchiston, Scotland; discoverer of logarithms.
 1623 William Camden, London; history and antiquities.
 1626 Lord Chancellor Bacon, London; natural philosophy and literature in general.
 1634 Lord Chief Justice Coke, Norfolk; laws of England.
 1638 Ben Jonson, London; 53 dramatic pieces.
 1641 Sir Henry Spelman, Norfolk; laws and antiquities.
 1654 John Selden, Suffex; antiquities and laws.
 1657 Dr. William Harvey, Kent; discovered the circulation of the blood.
 1667 Abraham Cowley, London; miscellaneous poetry.
 1674 John Milton, London; Paradise Lost, Regained, and various other pieces in verse and prose.
 Hyde, earl of Clarendon, Wiltshire; History of the Civil Wars in England.
 1675 James Gregory, Aberdeen; mathematics, geometry, and optics.
 1677 Reverend Dr. Isaac Barrow, London; natural philosophy, mathematics, and sermons.
 1680 Samuel Butler, Worcestershire; Hudibras, a burlesque poem.
 1685 Thomas Otway, London; 10 tragedies and comedies, with other poems.
 1687 Edmund Waller, Bucks; poems, speeches, letters, &c.
 1688 Dr. Ralph Cudworth, Somersetshire; intellectual system.
 1689 Dr. Thomas Sydenham, Dorsetshire; History of Physic.
 1690 Nathaniel Lee, London; 11 tragedies.
 Robert Barclay, Edinburgh; Apology for the Quakers.
 1691 Honorable Robert Boyle; natural and experimental philosophy and theology.
 Sir George Mackenzie, Dundee; Antiquities and laws of Scotland.
 1694 John Tillotson, archbishop of Canterbury, Halifax; 254 sermons.
 1697 Sir William Temple, London; politics and polite literature.
 1701 John Dryden, Northamptonshire; 27 tragedies and comedies, satiric poems, Virgil.
 1704 John Locke, Somersetshire; philosophy, government, and theology.
 1705 John Ray, Essex; botany, natural philosophy, and divinity.
 1707 George Farquhar, Londonderry; eight comedies.
 1713 Ant. Ash. Cooper, earl of Shaftesbury; Characteristics.
 1714 Gilbert Burnet, Edinburgh, bishop of Salisbury; history, biography, divinity, &c.
 1718 Nicholas Rowe, Devonshire; seven tragedies, translation of Lucan's Pharsalia.
 1719 Revd. John Flamsteed, Derbyshire; mathematics and astronomy.
 Joseph Addison, Wiltshire; Spectator, Guardian, poems, politics.
 Dr. John Keil, Edinburgh; mathematics and astronomy.
 1721 Matthew Prior, poems and politics.
 1724 William Woolaston, Staffordshire; Religion of Nature delineated.
 1727 Sir Isaac Newton, Lincolnshire; mathematics, geometry, astronomy, optics.
 1729 Revd. Dr. Samuel Clarke, Norwich; mathematics, divinity, &c.
 Sir Richard Steele, Dublin; four comedies, papers in Tatler, &c.
 William Congreve, Staffordshire; seven dramatic pieces.
 1730 John Gay, Exeter; poems, fables, and eleven dramatic pieces.
 1734 Dr. John Arbuthnot, Merns-shire; medicine, coins, politics.
 1742 Dr. Edmund Halley; natural philosophy, astronomy, navigation.
 Dr. Richard Bentley, Yorkshire; classical learning, criticism.
 1744 Alexander Pope, London; poems, letters, translation of Homer.
 1745 Revd. Dr. Jonathan Swift, Dublin; poems, politics, and letters.
 1746 Colin McLaurin, Argyleshire; algebra, view of Newton's philosophy.
 1748 James Thomson, Roxburghshire; Seasons, and other poems, five tragedies.
 Reverend Dr. Isaac Watts, Southampton; logic, philosophy, psalms, hymns, sermons, &c.
 Dr. Francis Hutcheson, Airshire; system of moral philosophy.
 1750 Reverend Dr. Conyers Middleton, Yorkshire; Life of Cicero, &c.
 Andrew Baxter, Old Aberdeen; metaphysics, and natural philosophy.
 1751 Henry St. John, lord Bolingbroke, Surrey; philosophy, metaphysics, and politics.
 Dr. Alexander Monro, Edinburgh; anatomy of the human body.
 1754 Dr. Richard Mead, London; on poisons, plague, small-pox, medicine, precept.
 Henry Fielding, Somersetshire; Tom Jones, Joseph Andrews, &c.

- 1757 Colley Cibber, London; 25 tragedies and comedies.
- 1761 Thomas Sherlock, bishop of London; 69 sermons, &c.
Benjamin Hoadly, bishop of Winchester; sermons and controversy.
Samuel Richardson, London; Grandison, Clarissa, Pamela.
- Reverend Dr. John Leland, Lancashire; Answer to Deistical Writers.
- 1765 Revd. Dr. Edward Young; Night Thoughts, and other poems, three tragedies,
Robert Simpson, Glasgow; Conic Sections, Euclid, Apollonius.
- 1768 Revd. Lawrence Sterne; 45 Sermons; Sentimental Journey, Trifram Shandy.
- 1769 Robert Smith, Lincolnshire; harmonics and optics.
- 1770 Revd. Dr. Jortin; Life of Erasmus, Ecclesiastical History, and sermons.
Dr. Mark Akenfide, Newcastle-upon Tyne; poems.
Dr. Tobias Smollet, Dumbartonshire; History of England; novels, translations;
- 1771 Thomas Gray, professor of Modern History, Cambridge; poems.
- 1773 Philip Dormer Stanhope, earl of Chesterfield; letters.
George Lord Lyttleton, Worcestershire; History of England.
- 1774 Oliver Goldsmith; poems, essays, and other pieces.
Zachary Pearce, bishop of Rochester; Annotations on the New Testament, &c.
- 1775 Dr. John Hawkesworth; essays.
- 1776 David Hume, Merse; History of England, and essays.
James Ferguson, Aberdeenshire; astronomy.
- 1777 Samuel Foote, Cornwall; plays.
- 1779 David Garrick, Hereford; plays, &c.
William Warburton, bishop of Gloucester; Divine Legation of Moses, and various other works.
- 1780 Sir William Blackstone, Judge of the Court of Common Pleas, London; Commentaries on the Laws of England.
Dr. John Fothergill, Yorkshire; philosophy and medicine.
James Harris; Hermes, Philological Inquiries, Philosophical Arrangements.
- 1782 Thomas Newton, bishop of Bristol, Lichfield; Discourses on the Prophecies, and other works.
Sir John Pringle, Bart. Roxburghshire; Diseases of the Army.
Henry Home, lord Kames, Scotland; Elements of Criticism, Sketches of the History of Man.
- 1783 Dr. William Hunter, Lanerkshire; anatomy.
Dr. Benjamin Kennicott, Devonshire; Hebrew Bible, Dissertations, &c.
- 1784 Dr. Samuel Johnson, Lichfield; English Dictionary, biography, essays, poetry, died December 13, aged 71.
- 1785 William Whitehead, poet-laureat; poems and plays.
Revd. Richard Burn, LL.D. author of the Justice of Peace, Ecclesiastical Law, &c. died November 20.
Richard Glover, esq. Leonidas, Medea, &c. died Nov. 25.
- 1786 Jonas Hanway, esq. travels, miscellanies, died September 5, aged 74.
- 1787 Dr. Robert Lowth, bishop of London; criticism, divinity, grammar, died Nov. 3.
Soame Jenyns, esq. Internal Evidence of the Christian Religion, and other pieces, died December 18.
- 1788 James Stuart, esq. celebrated by the name of "Athenian Stuart," died Feb. 1.
Thomas Gainsborough, esq. the celebrated painter, died August 2.
Thomas Sheridan, esq. English Dictionary, works on education, elocution, &c. died August 14.
- 1789 William Julius Mickle, esq. Cumberland; translator of the Lucretius, died Oct. 15.
- 1790 Dr. Will. Cullen, Scotland; Practice of Physic, Materia Medica, &c. died Feb. 5.
Benjamin Franklin, esq. Boston, New England; Electricity, Natural Philosophy, miscellanies, died April 17.
Dr. Adam Smith, Scotland; Moral Sentiment, Inquiry into the Wealth of Nations, died April 17.
John Howard, esq. Middlesex; Account of Prisons and Lazarettos, &c.
Revd. Thomas Warton, B.D. poet laureat; History of English Poetry, Poems, died April 21.
- 1791 Revd. Dr. Richard Price, Glamorganhire; on Morals, Providence, Civil Liberty, Annuities, Reverentary Payments, Sermons, &c. died Feb. 19, aged 68.
Dr. Thomas Blacklock, Annandale; Poems, Consolations from Natural and Revealed Religion, died July, aged 70.
- 1792 Sir Joshua Reynolds, Devonshire; President of the Royal Academy of Painting; Discourses on Painting delivered before the Academy, died Feb. 19, aged 68.
- 1793 Revd. Dr. William Robertson, Principal of the University of Edinburgh, and Historiographer to his majesty for Scotland; History of Scotland, of the Reign

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A NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

1019

of Charles V, History of America, and Historical Disquisition concerning India, died June 11, aged 72.

1794 Edward Gibbon, esq. Surry; History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, died January 16.

1795 Sir William Jones, one of the Judges of India, and president of the Asiatic Society; several law tracts, translation of Iqisus, and of the Moallakat, or seven Arabian poems, and many valuable papers in the Asiatic Researches.

1797 Edmund Burke, esq. Sublime and Beautiful, Tracts on the French Revolution.

F I N I S .

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