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W^M. WINTERBOTHAM.

AN

HISTORICAL

GEOGRAPHICAL, COMMERCIAL,

AND

PHILOSOPHICAL

VIEW

OF THE

AMERICAN UNITED STATES,

AND OF THE

EUROPEAN SETTLEMENTS

IN

AMERICA AND THE WEST-INDIES,

BY

W. WINTERBOTHAM,

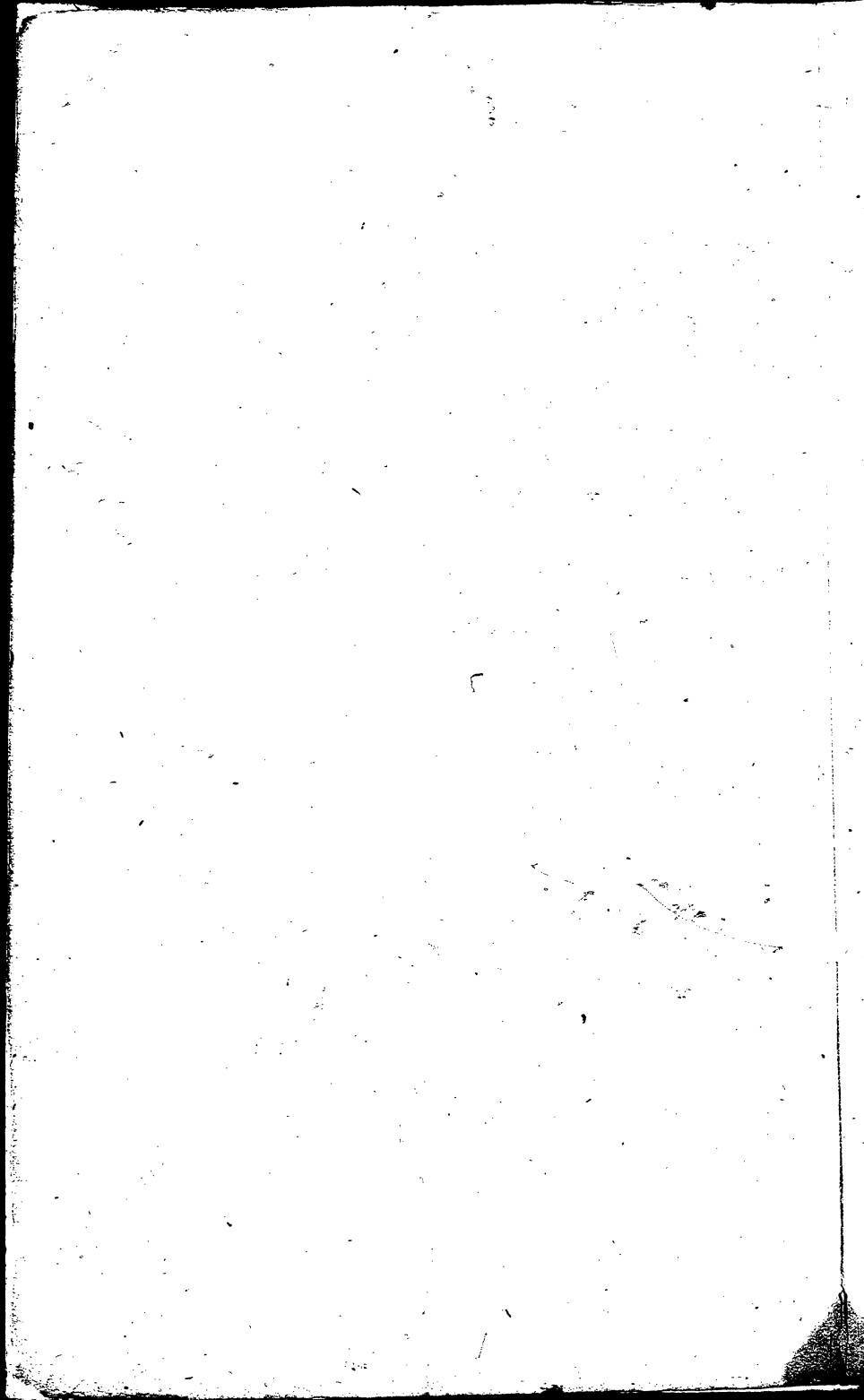
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HISTORY

OF THE

British Settlements in America.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

THE British dominion in America extending over a tract of country called, for the purpose of distinction, by the general name of British America, comprehends the vast and unknown extent of country, bounded south, by the United States of America, and the Atlantic ocean; east, by the same ocean and Davis's Straits, which divide it from Greenland; extending north to the northern limits of the Hudson's Bay charter; and westward to an unknown extent—lying between $42^{\circ} 30'$ and 7° north latitude; and between 50° and 105° west long. from Greenwich; and between 25° east and 30° west long. from Philadelphia.

It is divided into four provinces, viz. 1. Upper Canada;—2. Lower Canada, to which is annexed New Britain, or the country lying round Hudson's Bay, and the Island of Cape Breton;—3. New Brunswick;—and 4. Nova Scotia, to which is annexed the Island of St. John's.—Besides these there is the Island of Newfoundland, which is governed by the admiral for the time being, and two lieutenant governors, who reside at Placentia and St. John's.—The troops stationed at Newfoundland, however, are subject to the orders of the Governor-general of the four British Provinces.—Of each of these provinces our intention is to enter into a brief description.

PROVINCES

OF

UPPER AND LOWER CANADA.

SITUATION, EXTENT, AND BOUNDARIES.

The provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, constituted by act of parliament in 1791, comprehend the territory heretofore called Canada, or the Province of Quebec; situated between $42^{\circ} 30'$ and 50° north latitude, and 61° and 81° west longitude from London; or 14° east, and 6° west from Philadelphia. Their length is about six hundred miles, and their breadth five hundred and fifty.

These provinces are bounded on the north, by New Britain; on the east, by the Gulph of St. Lawrence, and part of the Province of New Brunswick; on the south-east and south, by the District of Main, New Hampshire, Vermont, New York, and the lakes: the western boundary is undefined. The Province of Upper Canada is the same as what is commonly called the Upper Country. It lies north of the great lakes, between the latitudes of $42^{\circ} 30'$ and 50° , and is separated from New York by the river St. Lawrence, here called the Cataract, and the Lakes Ontario and Erie.

Lower Canada lies on both sides the river St. Lawrence, between 61° and 71° W. lon. from London; and 45° and 52° N. lat. and is bounded south by New Brunswick, Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, and New York; and west by Upper Canada.

The line which divides Upper from Lower Canada commences at a stone boundary, on the north bank of the lake St. Francis, at the cove, west of *Pointe au Boudet*, in the limit between the township of Lancaster and the Seigneurie of New Longuevil, running along the said limit in the direction of north thirty-four degrees west, to the westernmost angle of the said Seigneurie of New Longuevil; thence along the north-western boundary of the Seigneurie of Vandreuil, running north, twenty-five degrees east, until it strikes the Ottawas river; to ascend the said river into the lake Tomiscanning; and from the head of the said lake by a line drawn due north, until it strikes the boundary line of Hudson's Bay, or New Britain. Upper Canada, to include all the territory to the westward and southward of the said line, to the utmost extent of the country known by the name of Canada.

AIR AND CLIMATE.

The climate is not very different from that of the New England States; but as it is farther from the sea, and more to the northward than most of them, the winters are more severe. Winter continues with such severity from December to April, as that the largest rivers are frozen over, and the snow lies commonly from four to six feet deep during the whole of that time. But the air is so serene and clear, and the inhabitants so well defended against the cold, that this season is neither unhealthy nor unpleasant. The springs open suddenly, and vegetation is surprisngly rapid. The summer is delightful, except that a part of it is extremely hot.

HISTORY OF ITS SETTLEMENT, &c.

Canada was undoubtedly discovered by Sébastian CABOT, the famous Italian adventurer, who sailed under a commission from Henry VII. But though the English monarch did not think proper to make any use of this discovery, the French quickly attempted it; we have an account of their fishing for cod on the banks of Newfoundland, and along the sea coast of Canada, in the beginning of the sixteenth century. About the year 1506, one Denys, a Frenchman, drew a map of the gulph of St. Lawrence; and two years after, one Aubort, a ship-master of Dieppe, carried over to France some of the natives of Canada. As the new country, however, did not promise the same amazing quantities of gold and silver produced by Mexico and Peru, the French for some years neglected the discovery. At last, in the year 1523, Francis I. a sensible and enterprising prince, sent four ships, under the command of Verazani, a Florentine, to prosecute discoveries in that country. The particulars of this man's first expedition are not known. All we can learn is, that he returned to France, and next year he undertook a second. As he approached the coast, he met with a violent storm; however, he came so near as to perceive the natives on the shore, making friendly signs to him to land. This being found impracticable, by reason of the surf upon the coast, one of the sailors threw himself into the sea; but, endeavouring to swim back to the ship, a surge threw him on shore without signs of life. He was, however, treated by the natives with such care and humanity, that he recovered his strength, and was allowed to swim back to the ship, which immediately returned to France. This is all we know of Verazani's second expedition. He undertook a third, but was no more heard of, and it was thought that he and all his company perished before he could form any colony.

4. GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF

In 1534, one Jaques Cartier, of St. Maloes, set sail under a commission from the French king, and on the 10th of May arrived at Cape Bonavista in Newfoundland. He had with him two small ships besides the one in which he sailed. He cruised along the coasts of that island, on which he discovered inhabitants, probably the Eskimaux. He landed in several places along the coast of the Gulf, and took possession of the country in the king's name. On his return, he was again sent out with a commission, and a pretty large force; he returned in 1535, and passed the winter at St. Croix; but the season proved so severe, that he and his companions must have died of the scurvy, had they not, by the advice of the natives, made use of the decoction of the tops and bark of the white pines. As Cartier, however, could produce neither gold nor silver, all that he could say about the utility of the settlement was disregarded: and in 1540, he was obliged to become pilot to one M. Roberval, who was by the French king appointed viceroy of Canada, and who sailed from France with five vessels. Arriving at the Gulf of St. Lawrence, they built a fort; and Cartier was left to command the garrison in it, while Roberval returned to France for additional recruits to his new settlement. At last, having embarked in 1549, with a great number of adventurers, neither he nor any of his followers were heard of more.

This fatal accident so greatly discouraged the court of France, that for fifty years no measures were taken for supplying with necessaries the settlers that were left. At last Henry IV. appointed the Marquis de la Roche lieutenant-general of Canada and the neighbouring countries. In 1598 he landed on the isle of Sable, which he absurdly thought to be a proper place for a settlement, though it was without any port, and without product except briars. Here he left about forty malefactors, the refuse of the French jails. After cruising for some time on the coast of Nova Scotia, without being able to relieve these poor wretches, he returned to France, where he died of a broken heart. His colony must have perished, had not a French ship been wrecked on the island, and a few sheep driven upon it at the same time. With the boards of the ship they erected huts; and while the sheep lasted they lived on them, feeding afterwards on fish. Their clothes wearing out, they made coats of seal-skins; and in this miserable condition they spent seven years, when Henry ordered them to be brought to France. The king had the curiosity to see them in their seal-skin dresses, and was so moved with their appearance, that he forgave them all their offences, and gave each of them fifty crowns to begin the world anew.

In 1600, one Chauvin, a commander in the French navy, attended by a merchant of St. Malo, called *Pontgrave*, made a voyage to Canada, from whence he returned with a very profitable quantity of furs. Next year he repeated the voyage with the same good fortune, but died while he was preparing for a third. The many specimens of profit to be made by the Canadian trade, at last induced the public to think favourably of it. An armament was equipped, and the command of it given to Pontgrave, with powers to extend his discoveries up the river St. Lawrence. He failed in 1603, having in his company Samuel Champlain, who had been a captain in the navy, and was a man of parts and spirit. It was not, however, till the year 1608, that the colony was fully established. This was accomplished by founding the city of Quebec, which from that time commenced the capital of all the settlements in Canada. The colony, however, for many years continued in a low way, and was often in danger of being totally exterminated by the Indians. As the particulars of these wars, however, could neither be entertaining, nor indeed intelligible, to many of our readers, we choose to omit them, and in general observe, that the French not only concluded a permanent peace with the Indians, but so much ingratiated themselves with them, that they could, with the greatest ease, prevail upon them at any time to murder and scalp the English in their settlements. These practices had a considerable share in bringing about a war with France, when the whole country was conquered by the British in 1761; and at the treaty of Paris, in 1763, was ceded, by France, to the crown of England, to whom it has ever since belonged.*

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, PRODUCE, &c.

Though the climate is cold, and the winters long and tedious, the soil in general is very good, and in many parts extremely fertile; producing many different sorts of grains, fruits, and vegetables. The meadow grounds, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and breed vast numbers of great and small cattle. The uncultivated parts are a continued wood, composed of prodigious large and lofty trees, of which there is such a variety of species, that even of those who have taken most pains to know them, there is not perhaps one that can tell half the number. Canada produces, among others, two sorts of pines, the white, and the red; four sorts of firs; two sorts of cedar and oak,

* For a more particular history of this country the reader is referred to Charlevoix's history of it; to the Encyclopedia Britannica; articles, Canada, Quebec, and America, No. 195, 200, and 207.

the white and the red; the male and 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; the ribs of these canoes are made of boughs of trees. In the hollow elms, the bears and wild cats take up their lodging from November to April. The country produces also a vast variety of other vegetables, particularly tobacco, which thrives well. Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and many excellent ones of iron have been discovered. It hath also been reported that silver is found in some of the mountains.

The rivers are extremely numerous, and many of them very large and deep. The principal are, the Ouattauais, St. John's, Seguinay, Despaire, and Trois Rivieres; but all these are swallowed up by the great river St. Lawrence. This river issues from the lake Ontario; and, taking its course north east, washes Montreal, where it receives the Ouattauais, and forms many fertile islands. It continues the same course, and meets the tide upwards of four hundred miles from the sea, where it is navigable for large vessels; and below Quebec, three hundred and twenty miles from the sea, it becomes so broad and so deep, that ships of the line contributed in the last war to reduce that city. After receiving in its progress innumerable streams, it at last falls into the ocean at Cape Rosiers, where it is ninety miles broad, and where the cold is intense, and the sea boisterous. This river is the only one upon which any settlements of note are as yet formed.

A river has been lately surveyed, by the deputy Surveyor General of Canada, from its entrance into the Bay of Kenty, near Cardarqui, to its source of Lake St. Clie; from which there is an easy and short portage across N. W. to the N. E. angle of Lake Huron; and another that is neither long nor difficult, to the southward, to the old settlement of Toronto. This is a short rout from Fort Frontinac to Michilimackinac.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.

QUEBEC.

Quebec is the capital, not only of Lower Canada, but of all British America; it is situated at the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and

St. Charles, or the Little River, about three hundred and twenty 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 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 is computed at about fifteen thousand. The river, which from the sea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all of 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 twenty-five feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montreal, which is about one hundred and seventy miles, in sailing up the river St. Lawrence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landscapes, the banks being in many places very bold and steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty close all the way, several gentlemen's houses, neatly built, shew 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 are 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 only of the summer months.

TROIS RIVIERES.

The town called Trois Rivieres, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the river St. Lawrence. 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 the river.

MONTREAL.

Montreal stands on an island in the river St. Lawrence, 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

While the French had possession of Canada, both the city and island of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them so well, that the whole island had become a most delightful spot, and produced every thing that could administer to the conveniencies of life. The city forms an oblong square, divided by regular and well-formed streets; and when taken by 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 by a wall and a dry ditch; and its fortifications have been much improved by the English. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec, but since it fell into the hands of the English it has suffered much by fires.

The principal towns in Upper Canada are Kingston, on Lake Ontario, Niagara, between Lake Ontario and Lake Erie, and *Detroit, situated on the western bank of Detroit river, between Lake Erie and Lake Huron, and nine miles below Lake St. Clair.*

POPULATION.

Upper Canada, though an infant settlement, is said by some to contain forty thousand, by others, only twenty thousand inhabitants. The truth probably is between them. Lower Canada, in 1784, contained one hundred thirteen thousand and twelve souls. Both provinces may now contain about one hundred and fifty-two thousand souls, which number is multiplying, both by natural increase and by emigrations.

RELIGION.

About nine tenths of the inhabitants of these provinces are Roman Catholics, who enjoy under the present government the same provision, rights, and privileges, as were granted them in 1774, by the act of 14th of George III. The rest of the people are Episcopalians, Presbyterians, and a few of almost all the different sects of Christians.

TRADE.

The commodities required by the Canadians from Europe are, 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

* Niagara and Detroit, though at present in possession of the British government, contrary to the treaty of peace, are, without any possible doubt, both within the limits of the United States.

kinds. While the country was in possession of the French, the Indians supplied them with poultry; and the French had traders, who, like 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 among nations entirely unknown to us. These again brought the furs, &c. 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 one thousand miles, came to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and sometimes lasted three months. On this occasion many solemnities were observed, guards were placed, and the governor assisted to preserve order in so great and various a concourse of savage nations. But sometimes great disorders and tumults happened: and the Indians frequently gave for a dram all that they were possessed of. It is remarkable, that many of these nations actually passed by the then English settlement of Albany in New York, and travelled two hundred miles further to Montreal, though they could have purchased the goods they wanted cheaper at the former.

Since Britain became possessed of Canada, her trade with that country has generally employed from thirty to forty ships, and about four thousand seamen.

The amount of the exports from the province of Quebec, as far back as in the year 1786, was three hundred forty-three thousand two hundred and sixty-two pounds, nineteen shillings and six-pence. The amount of imports in the same year was three hundred twenty-five thousand one hundred and sixteen pounds. The exports consisted of wheat, flour, biscuit, flax-seed, lumber of various kinds, fish, potash, oil, ginseng and other medicinal roots, BUT PRINCIPALLY OF FURS AND PELTRIES, to the amount of two hundred eighty-five thousand nine hundred and seventy-seven pounds*. The imports consisted of rum,

* Should America insist (as no doubt she will) on Great Britain surrendering the frontier forts, and those lands and settlements which she has hitherto held in defiance of the most solemn treaties, there cannot remain a doubt but nine tenths of the fur trade will pass into the hands of the Americans. This will prove a most severe blow to the Canadian commerce, as well as to the revenue of Great Britain, while the Americans, grown wise by experience, sending their furs direct to France, Germany, &c. instead of causing them to pass through the hands of British merchants and brokers, will be able to divide an additional profit of from thirty to fifty per cent. between themselves and the merchants of those countries.—A profit which is now exclusively enjoyed by British subjects, or foreigners residing in Great Britain, as intermediate agents;—

but

10 GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF

rum, brandy, molasses, coffee, sugar, wines, tobacco, salt, chocolate, provisions for the troops, and dry goods.

GOVERNMENT.

By the Quebec act, passed by the parliament of Great Britain in the year 1791, so much of the act of the 14th of George III. passed in the year 1774, as relates to the appointment of a council for the government of the province of Quebec, is repealed; and it is enacted that there shall be within each of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, a Legislative Council, and an Assembly, who, with the consent of the Governor, appointed by the King, shall have power to make laws. The governor may give or withhold his majesty's assent to bills passed by the legislative council and assembly, or reserve them for his majesty's pleasure. Bills reserved are to have no force till his majesty's assent is signified by the governor, which, to be valid, must be signified within two years from the time the bill is presented to the governor. The governor must transmit to the secretary of state copies of such bills as have been assented to, which his Majesty in council may declare his disallowance of within two years from the receipt.

The Legislative Council is to consist of not fewer than seven members for Upper, and fifteen for Lower Canada, to be summoned by the Governor, who must be authorized by the King. Such members are to hold their seats for life, unless forfeited by four years continual absence, or by swearing allegiance to some foreign power.

The House of Assembly is to consist of not less than sixteen members from Upper, and not less than fifty from Lower Canada, chosen by the freeholders in the several towns and districts. The council and assembly are to be called together at least once in every year; and every assembly is to continue four years, unless sooner dissolved by the Governor. All questions are to be decided by a majority of votes of the

but, it may be said, that the scarcity of specie in America, and their great demand for English manufactures, will secure the fur trade to Great Britain—such, however, should remember, that the rapid progress of manufactures in the United States, aided by the present spirit of emigration in Europe will soon lessen this demand, and leave the Americans at liberty to carry their furs and other articles to a market which will rapidly increase their specie sufficient to enable them to range the European and other markets with that advantage which the British merchant has long experienced almost without a rival—indeed, it is impossible to consider the rapid advances which America has made since her independence, without at the same time being convinced, that instead of drawing her supplies of manufactured goods from Great Britain, she will, ere long, become her rival in the most important articles in almost every other European market.

members

members present. His Majesty may authorize the Governor to fix the time and place of holding the elections, (subject, however, to such provisions as may hereafter be made by the Legislature) and to fix the times and places of holding the sessions of the assembly, and to prorogue and dissolve the same whenever he shall judge it necessary.

The Governor, together with such of the executive council as shall be appointed by the King, for the affairs of each province, are to be a court of civil jurisdiction for hearing and determining appeals, subject, however, to such appeals from their judgment as heretofore existed. All lands in Upper Canada are to be granted hereafter in free and common socage; and also in Lower Canada, when the grantee shall desire it, subject nevertheless to alterations by an act of the Legislature.

British America is superintended by an officer styled Governor General of the four British provinces in North America, who, besides other powers, is commander in chief of all the British troops in the four provinces and the governments attached to them and Newfoundland. Each of the provinces have a Lieutenant Governor, who, in the absence of the Governor General, has all the powers requisite to a chief magistrate.

THE ISLAND

OF

CAPE BRETON;

ANNEXED TO THE PROVINCE OF LOWER CANADA.

SITUATION, EXTENT, &c.

The island, or rather collection of islands, called by the French *Les Isles de Madam*, which lie so contiguous as that they are commonly called but one, and comprehended under the name of the Island of Cape Breton, lies between lat. 45° and 47° N. and between 59° and 60° , W. long. from London, or 14° and 15° E. long. from Philadelphia, and about 45 leagues to the eastward of Halifax. 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 Gulph of St. Lawrence.

It is surrounded with little sharp-pointed rocks, separated from each other by the waves, above which some of their tops are visible. All its harbours are open to the east, turning towards the south. On the other parts of the coast there are but a few anchoring places for small vessels, in creeks, or between islets. The harbour of St. Peter's, at the west end of the island, is a very commodious place for carrying on the fishery.

CLIMATE.

Except in the hilly parts, the surface of the country has but little solidity, being every where covered with a light moss and with water. The dampness of the soil is exhales in fogs, without rendering the air unwholesome. In other respects, the climate is very cold, owing either to the prodigious quantity of lakes, which cover above half the island, and remain frozen a long time; or to the number of forests, that totally intercept the rays of the sun; the effect of which is besides decreased by perpetual clouds.

HISTORY OF ITS SETTLEMENT, &c.

Though some fishermen had long resorted to this island every summer, not more than twenty or thirty had ever fixed there. The French,

who

who took possession of it in August 1713, were properly the first inhabitants. They changed its name into that of *Isle Royale*, and fixed upon Fort Dauphin for their principal settlement. This harbour was two leagues in circumference. The ships came to the very shore, and were sheltered from winds. Forests affording oak sufficient to fortify and build a large city, were near at hand; the ground appeared less barren than in other parts, and the fishery was more plentiful. This harbour might have been rendered impregnable at a trifling expence; but the difficulty of approaching it (a circumstance that had at first made a stronger impression than the advantages resulting from it) occasioned it to be abandoned, after great labour had been bestowed upon the undertaking. They then turned their views to Louisbourg, the access to which was easier; and convenience was thus preferred to security; the fortification of Louisbourg, however, was not begun till 1720.

In the year 1714, some fishermen, who till then had lived in Newfoundland, settled in this island. It was expected that their number would soon have been increased by the Acadians, who were at liberty, from the treaties that had been granted them, to remove with all their effects, and even to dispose of their estates; but these hopes were disappointed. The Acadians chose rather to retain their possessions under the dominion of Britain, than to give them up for any precarious advantage they might derive from their attachment to France. Their place was supplied by some distressed adventurers from Europe, who came over from time to time to Cape Breton, and the number of inhabitants gradually increased to four thousand. They were settled at Louisbourg, Fort Dauphin, Port Toulouse, Nerucka, and on all the coasts where they found a proper beach for drying the cod.

This island, was attacked by the English in 1745; and the event is of so singular a nature, that it deserves a particular detail. The plan of this first invasion was laid at Boston, and New England bore the expence of it. A merchant named *Pepperel*, who had excited, encouraged, and directed the enterprize, was intrusted with the command of an army of six thousand men, which had been levied for this expedition.

Though these forces, convoyed by a squadron from Jamaica, brought the first news to Cape Breton of the danger that threatened it; though the advantage of a surprize would have secured the landing without opposition; though they had but six hundred regular troops to encounter, and eight hundred inhabitants hastily armed, the success of the undertaking was still precarious. What great exploits, indeed, could
be

be expected from a militia suddenly assembled, who had never seen a siege or faced an enemy, and were to act under the direction of sea-officers only. These unexperienced troops stood in need of the assistance of some fortunate incident, which they were indeed favoured with in a singular manner.

The construction and repairs of the fortifications had always been left to the care of the garrison of Louisbourg. The soldiers were eager of being employed in these works, which they considered as conducive to their safety, and as the means of procuring them a comfortable subsistence. When they found that those who were to have paid them, appropriated to themselves the profit of their labours, they demanded justice. It was denied them, and they were determined to assert their right. As these depredations had been shared between the chief persons of the colony and the subaltern officers, the soldiers could obtain no redress. Their indignation against these rapacious extortioners rose to such a height, that they despised all authority. They had lived in an open rebellion for six months, when the British appeared before the place.

This was the time to conciliate the minds of both parties, and to unite in the common cause. The soldiers made the first advances; but their commanders mistrusted a generosity of which they themselves were incapable. It was firmly believed that the soldiers were only desirous of falling out, that they might have an opportunity of deserting; and their own officers kept them in a manner prisoners, till a defence so ill managed had reduced them to the necessity of capitulating. The whole island shared the fate of Louisbourg, its only bulwark.

This valuable possession, restored to France by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, was again attacked by the British in 1758, and taken. The possession was confirmed to Great Britain by the peace in 1763; since which the fortifications have been blown up, and the town of Louisbourg dismantled.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, &c.

The inhabitants never applied themselves to agriculture, the soil being unfit for it. They often sowed corn, but it seldom came to maturity; and when it did thrive so much as to be worth reaping, it had degenerated so considerably, that it was not fit for seed for the next harvest. They have only continued to plant a few pot-herbs that are tolerably well tasted, but must be renewed every year from abroad. The poorness and scarcity of pastures has likewise prevented the increase

breed of cattle. In a word, the soil of Cape Breton seems calculated to invite none but fishermen.

Though the island was entirely covered with forests before it was inhabited, its wood has scarce ever been an object of trade. A great quantity, however, of soft wood was found there fit for firing, and some that might be used for timber: but the oak has always been scarce, and the fir never yielded much resin. The peltry trade was a very inconsiderable object. It consisted only in the skins of a few lynxes, elks, musk-rats, wild cats, bears, otters, and foxes both of a red and silver-grey colour. Some of these were procured from a colony of Mickmac Indians who had settled on the island with the French, and never could raise more than sixty men able to bear arms. The rest came from St. John's, or the neighbouring continent. Greater advantages might possibly have been derived from the coal-mines, which abound in the island. They lie in a horizontal direction; and being no more than six or eight feet below the surface, may be worked without digging deep, or draining off the waters. Notwithstanding the prodigious demand for this coal from New England, from the year 1745 to 1749, these mines would probably have been forsaken, had not the ships which were sent out to the French islands wanted ballast. In one of these mines a fire has been kindled, which could never yet be extinguished.

The people of Cape Breton did not send all their fish to Europe, they sent part of it to the French southern islands, on board twenty or twenty-five ships from seventy to one hundred and forty tons burden. Besides the cod, which made at least half their cargo, they exported to the other colonies timber, planks, thin oak-boards, salted salmon and mackeril, train-oil, and sea-coal. All these were paid for in sugar and coffee, but chiefly in rum and molasses. The island could not consume all these commodities. Canada took off but a small part of the overplus; it was chiefly bought by the people of New England, who gave in exchange fruits, vegetables, wood, brick, and cattle. This trade of exchange was allowed; but a smuggling trade was added to it, carried on in flour, and salt fish.

POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, &c.

On this island there are about one thousand inhabitants, who have a lieutenant-governor resident among them, appointed by the king. The principal towns are Sidney, the capital, and Louisbourg, which has the best harbour in the island.

This

This island may be considered as the key to Canada, and the very valuable fishery, in its neighbourhood, depends for its protection on the possession of this island; as no nation can carry it on without some convenient harbour of strength to supply and protect it; and Louisbourg is the principal one for these purposes.

NEW BRITAIN;

ANNEXED TO THE GOVERNMENT OF LOWER CANADA.

The country lying round Hudson's Bay, or the country of the Esquimaux, comprehending Labrador, New North and South Wales, has obtained the general name of NEW BRITAIN, and is attached to the government of Lower Canada. A superintendant of trade, appointed by the Governor-General of the four British Provinces, and responsible to him, resides at Labrador.

CLIMATE.

The climate, even about Haye's river, in only lat. 57° , is, during winter, excessively cold. The snows begin to fall in October, and continue falling by intervals the whole winter: and, when the frost is most rigorous, in form of the finest sand. The ice on the rivers is eight feet thick, Port wine freezes into a solid mass; brandy coagulates. The very breath falls on the blankets of the beds in the form of a hoar frost, and the bed-cloaths often are found frozen to the wall. The sun rises, in the shortest day, five minutes past nine, and sets five minutes before three. In the longest day the sun rises at three, and sets about nine. The ice begins to disappear in May, and hot weather commences about the middle of June, which at times is so violent as to scorch the faces of the hunters. Thunder is not frequent, but very violent. But there is a great difference of heat and cold in this vast extent, which reaches from lat. 50, 40, to lat. 63 north.—During winter the firmament is not without its beauties. Mock suns, halos are not unfrequent; they are very bright, and richly tinged with all the colours of the rainbow. The sun rises and sets with a large cone of yellowish light. The night is enlivened with the Aurora Borealis, which spreads a thousand different lights and colours over the whole concave of the sky, not to be defaced even by the splendour of the full moon; and the stars are of a fiery redness.

In this season it however frequently happens, that the air is so full of watery vapours, that the sun will be obscured for several weeks together. This is occasioned by the rime, which ascends from the open sea water, and being condensed by the cold, is driven by the wind to a considerable distance at times, from forty to fifty miles.

The climate is very perceptibly milder in the interior, than in the parts on the sea coast. The snow is not half so deep, neither are the

hottest days in summer so sultry. If a man is frozen in the upper country, it is owing to his not having taken proper care of himself; whereas upon the sea coast, with every necessary precaution, a man will frequently have his nose, face, or fingers-ends skinned.

The heavens, in cold winter nights, do not exhibit that luminous appearance, which, as before remarked, is observable on the sea coast; nor do the stars shine with that refulgent lustre. The Aurora Borealis is not so common nor so brilliant; the Parhelia and Parafelenes are less frequent; and fogs in the winter, are unknown.

In short, the sea coast and the upper country will admit of no comparison: one is temperate and healthy, the land dry, pleasant, and fertile in spontaneous productions, and the animal creation various and excellent for the support of man: in it, a person who could live retired, might pass his days with ease, content, and felicity, and if he did not enjoy an uninterrupted state of health, it would not be the fault of the air he lived in. On the other hand, the lower country is one endless bog, where the savage animals themselves are sometimes constantly swamped. The finest summer's day will begin with a scorching heat, and terminate with a cold easterly sea fog. The weather usually incident to autumn and midsummer, is experienced in their different extremes during the short space of twelve hours. The inhabitants frequently fall a prey to the severity of the frost. The whole country furnishes but one species of quadruped fit for the support of man; and the Europeans are accursed with an afflicting epidemical disorder, which they very emphatically term the "The Country Distemper."

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, &c.

As far inland as the Hudson Bay Company have settlements, which is six hundred miles to the west of Fort Churchill, at a place called Hudson House, lat. 53° , lon. $106^{\circ} 27'$ W. from London, is flat country: nor is it known how far to the eastward the great chain of mountains seen by the navigators from the Pacific Ocean branches off. From Moose River, or the bottom of the bay, to Cape Churchill, the land is flat, marshy, and wooded with pines, birch, larch, and willows. The pine trees, which are of different kinds, are but small; near the sea-coasts they generally run knotty, and are unfit to be used in the structure of good buildings. The same may be said of the juniper trees, growing in the same situation.

But on leaving the marshy ground, and retiring inland to the southward, the trees are of a more stately growth; and about Moose and Albany Forts, they are found of all diameters. Here the climate is

much

much more temperate than at York Fort and Churchill Settlement. Potatoes, turnips, and almost every species of kitchen garden stuff, are reared with facility; and no doubt corn might be cultivated, if the lords of the soil, the Hudson's Bay Company, had patriotism enough to make this extensive country of any service to Great-Britain. But it has been an invariable maxim with them for many years past, to damp every laudable endeavour in their servants, that might tend to make these countries generally beneficial to the Mother Country. This conduct will appear very extraordinary to those who are unacquainted with the self-interested views of the Company. They imagine, that if it was known to the nation, that the lands they possess were capable of cultivation, it might induce individuals to enquire into their right to an exclusive charter; it is therefore their business to represent it in the worst light possible, to discourage an inquiry, which would shake the foundation of their beloved monopoly.

Throughout the woods to the southward the ground is covered with a very thick moss, among which grow various kinds of small shrubs, bearing fruit, such as gooseberries, currants, strawberries, raspberries, cranberries, with many others too tedious to mention. A herb, which the natives call *Wee suc a pucka*, grows very plentifully in all parts of the country. The Indians make use of it by way of medicine; it makes a very agreeable tea, and is much used here, both by Europeans and natives, not only for its pleasant flavour, but for its salutary effects. Its virtues are many; it is an aromatic, very serviceable in rheumatic cases, strengthens the stomach, relieves the head, and also promotes perspiration. Outwardly, it is applied to gangrenes, contusions, and excoriations; in the latter case the powder is made use of. Another herb of much utility to the natives grows likewise here; this they call *Jack asb a puck*. They mix it with their tobacco to reduce its strength.

In the interior of the country is a great quantity of coal, which is conveyed down the rivers by the currents. A person belonging to the Hudson Bay Company once brought down a piece he had taken from the earth, where it was piled up in heaps. It was in every respect similar to that brought to London from the North of England and Scotland. He said that he asked the Indians the use of it; and on their expressing their ignorance, he put some of it in the fire, which burnt violently to their great astonishment. What other treasures may be concealed in this unknown repository, or what valuable ores may be intermixed with the coal, we will not take upon us to determine.

All these countries are well stored with moose, beavers, otters, &c.

but the red deer, jumping deer, and buffalo, are not to be found till where the country becomes more open, and so free from woods, that in many places scarce a sufficiency can be procured to make a temporary fire for travellers, who are obliged instead thereof to use buffalo dung.

Many spacious lakes are to be found in the inland parts. Most of these abound with fish, especially when joined to a river; but the natives seldom or never look after them, and the greater part of those Indians who come to the English settlements to trade, will neither eat fish, water-fowl, nor any amphibious animal.

How far the soil of this country may be favourable to the culture of vegetables we are not enabled to advance. Experiments, which should be our principle guide to knowledge in these matters, never having been much made use of, though we may venture to assert, that many parts would admit of cultivation. The Hudson's Bay Company servants have tried Indian corn and barley, by way of experiment, which came to perfection; potatoes, turnips, carrots, radishes, onions, &c. have been lately reared, and found as good as those in Canada.

The fruits which spontaneously shoot up, are not in such great variety in the wildernesses of Canada, as in the country we are speaking of. The natives collect vast quantities of a kind of wild cherries and bring them in for sale. The Hudson's Bay people make an excellent beverage of them, which is grateful to the taste, and is an excellent antiscorbutic. Raspberries, strawberries, currants, cranberries, and an infinity of other kinds are to be found every where. So that a person, without the help of ammunition, may in the summer season procure a very comfortable subsistence, were he bewildered, and alone. Should any one be in this situation, almost every pond of water would furnish him with eggs of ducks, &c. and every thicket with a satiety of delicious fruit.

The eastern coast is barren, past the efforts of cultivation. The surface is every where uneven, and covered with masses of stone of an amazing size. It is a country of fruitless and frightful mountains, some of an astonishing height. The vallies are full of lakes, formed not from springs, but rain and snow, so chilly as to be productive of a few small trout only. The mountains have here and there a blighted shrub, or a little moss. The vallies are full of crooked, stunted trees, pines, fir, birch, and cedars, or rather a species of the juniper. In latitude 60° on this coast, vegetation ceases. The whole shore, like that on the west, is faced with islands at some distance from land.

The principal rivers which water this country, are the Wager,
Mork,

Monk; Seal, Pockerekesko, Churchill, Nelson, Hayes, New Severn, Albany, and Moose rivers, all which empty into Hudson's and James Bay from the west. The mouths of all the rivers are filled with shoals, except Churchill's in which the largest ships may lie; but ten miles higher the channel is obstructed by sand banks. All the rivers as far as they have been explored, are full of rapids and cataracts, from ten to sixty feet perpendicular. Down these rivers the Indian traders find a quick passage; but their return is a labour of many months.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, &c.

The inhabitants among the mountains are Indians; along the coasts, Esquimaux. The Hudson's Bay Indians, in all probability, were originally tall, properly proportioned, strongly made, and of as manly an appearance as any people whatever. This, however, was before their commerce with Europeans had enervated and debased their minds and bodies, by introducing spirituous liquors among them, and habituating them to severe courses of drinking. They are naturally much addicted to this fatal custom; but when it is encouraged and enforced by those who call themselves an enlightened people, it certainly is not only blameable, but highly criminal. Were common sense but made use of to direct the conduct of those who are benefited by the trade carried on with the Indians, self-interest and good policy would teach them to discourage, as much as possible, a habit so prejudicial to them, and fatally destructive to these miserable people. They are generally of a benevolent disposition, and easy to be persuaded by persons who understand their language; but as a most unconscionable gain is got by trading in spirits with them, it is not to be supposed the factors will ever be induced to put a stop to this unchristian practice. An Indian will barter away all his furs, nay even leave himself without a rag to cover his nakedness, in exchange for that vile unwholesome stuff, called English brandy. If by such excessive intoxication they only irreparably injured their own constitutions, and debilitated their race, the consequences, though pernicious, would not be so dreadful as they usually are; but during their intoxication not only fresh quarrels ensue, old grievances are also renewed, and death is frequently the consequence of former bickerings, which but for this stimulator had been buried in oblivion.

By this diabolical commerce the country is impoverished of inhabitants, the trade of course imperceptibly declines, and this extensive settlement is in a great measure prevented from rivalling many of our other foreign establishments.

The natives are however a people of a middle size, of a copper complexion, their features regular and agreeable, and few distorted or deformed persons are seen among them. When young they have excessive large bellies, which is to be attributed to the enormous quantity of food they devour; but as they grow towards puberty this part decreases to a common size. Their constitutions are strong and healthy, and their disorders few; the chief of these is the dysentery, and a violent pain in the breast, which the English call the Country Distemper. The latter is supposed to proceed from the cold air being drawn into the lungs; which impeding the vessels from spreading throughout that organ, hinders the circulation, and renders respiration extremely painful and difficult. They seldom live to a great age, but enjoy all their faculties to the last.

In their dispositions they are mild, affable, and good-natured, when sober; but when intoxicated they are lost to every social quality, and discover the greatest propensity to quarrelling, theft, and the worst of vices. When we view the fair side of their characters, we find them kind, courteous, and benevolent to each other, relieving the wants and necessities of their distressed brethren with the greatest good-nature, either by counsel, food, or cloathing. The good effects of this excellent disposition are frequently experienced by themselves; for, as in their mode of life no one known how soon it may be his own fate to be reduced to the verge of extremity, he secures for himself a return of kindness, should he experience that vicissitude. On the other hand they are sly, cunning, and artful to a great degree; they glory in every species of furacity and artifice, especially when the theft or deception has been so well executed as to escape detection. Their love to their offspring is carried to a very great height. From the state of childhood to maturity they seldom or never correct their children, alledging, that when they grow up they will know better of themselves. Neither is this indulgence made a bad use of when reflection succeeds the irregularities of youth; on the contrary, sentiments of reverence, gratitude, and love, link their affections to the authors of their being; and they seldom fail to give the utmost assistance to their aged parents whenever their imbecility requires it.

With respect to their corporeal abilities, they are almost without exception great walkers; they patiently endure cold, hunger, and fatigue; and bear all misfortunes with admirable fortitude and resignation, which enables them bravely to encounter the prospect of ill, and renders the mind serene under the pressure of adversity. As their country abounds with innumerable herds of deer, elks, and buffaloes, they

they frequently make great slaughter among them; and upon these occasions they have no regard to futurity, or providing for an unsuccessful day. Whether they happen to be pining under the grasp of pinching necessity, or enjoying themselves in all the happiness of health and plenty, they kill all they can, having an incontrovertible maxim among them, which is, "the more they kill, the more they have to kill:" and this opinion, though diametrically opposite to reason or common sense, is as pertinaciously held by them, as his tenets are by the most bigotted enthusiast. Indeed, they too frequently find it to their cost to be grounded on folly, as they sometimes suffer extreme hunger through it; nay, many have been starved to death, and others have been reduced to the sad necessity of devouring their own offspring.

As a great part of the Factory provisions consists of geese killed by the Indians, the English supply them with powder and shot for this purpose, allowing them the value of a beaver skin for every ten geese they kill; accordingly, after the Indian has got this supply, he sets off from his tent early in the morning into the marshes, where he sets himself down, with a degree of patience difficult to be imitated, and being sheltered by a few willows, waits for the geese. They shoot them flying, and are so very dexterous at this sport, that a good hunter will kill, in times of plenty, fifty or sixty in a day. Few Europeans are able to endure cold, fatigue, hunger, or adversity in any shape, with an equal degree of magnanimity and composure to that which is familiar to the natives of this country. After being out a whole day on a hunt, exposed to the bleakest winds and most penetrating cold, and that without the least thing to satisfy the calls of nature, an Indian comes home, warms himself at the fire, smokes a few pipes of tobacco, and then retires to rest, as calm as if in the midst of plenty; but if he happens to have a family, he cannot always boast of this equanimity; when reduced to extremity, his affection for them predominates over his philosophy, if it might be so called, and it gives way to the most pungent sorrow.

A belief in some over-ruling invisible power bears a principal share in the character of these unpolished Indians. By this he is induced to impute every occurrence of his life to supernatural causes. His good or bad success in hunting, the welfare of his friends and family, his duration in this mortal state, &c. all depend upon the will and pleasure of some invisible agent, whom he supposes to preside over all his undertakings: for instance, one man will invoke a conspicuous star, another a wolf, one a bear, and another a particular tree; in which he imagines

imagines the Great Being resides, and influences his good or ill fortune in this life.

The religious sentiments of these people, though confused, are in some respects just. They allow that there is a good Being, and they sometimes sing to him; but not out of fear or adoration, for he is too good, they say, to hurt them. He is called *Kitch-e-man-e-to*, or the Great Chief. They further say, there is an evil Being, who is always plaguing them; they call him *Whit-ti-co*. Of him they are very much in fear, and seldom eat any thing, or drink any brandy, without throwing some into the fire for *Whit-ti-co*. If any misfortune befalls them, they sing to him, imploring his mercy; and when in health and prosperity do the same, to keep him in good humour. Yet, though obsequious sometimes, at others they are angry with him, especially when in liquor; they then run out of their tents, and fire their guns in order to kill him. They frequently persuade themselves that they see his track in the moss or snow, and he is generally described in the most hideous forms. They believe that both the good and the bad Being have many servants; those of the former inhabiting the air, but those of the latter walking on the earth. They have likewise an opinion that this country was once overflowed; an opinion founded on meeting with many sea shells far inland.

They have no manner of government or subordination. The father, or head of a family, owns no superior, nor obeys any command. He gives his advice or opinion of things, but at the same time has no authority to enforce obedience: the youth of his family follow his directions, but rather from filial affection or reverence, than in consequence of any duty exacted by a superior. When several tents or families meet to go to war, or to the Factories to trade, they choose a leader, but it is only voluntary obedience they pay to the leader chosen; every one is at liberty to leave him when he pleases, and the notion of a commander is quite obliterated as soon as the voyage is over. MERIT ALONE GIVES THE TITLE TO DISTINCTION; AND THE POSSESSION OF QUALITIES THAT ARE HELD IN ESTEEM IS THE ONLY METHOD TO OBTAIN RESPECT. Thus a person who is an experienced hunter; one who knows the communication between the lakes and rivers; one who can make long harangues; is a conjuror; or if he has a family; such a man will not fail of being followed by several Indians, when they happen to be out in large parties; they likewise follow him down to trade at the settlements: he is, however, obliged to secure their attendance upon this occasion by promises and rewards, as the regard paid to his abilities is of too weak

a nature

a nature to command subjection. In war a mutual resentment against their enemies forms their union for perpetrating their revenge. *Personal courage, patience under hardships, and a knowledge of the manners and country of their adversaries, are the qualifications sought after in the choice of a leader.* They follow him, whom they have thus chosen, with fidelity, and execute his projects with alacrity; but their obedience does not proceed from any right in the leader to command, it is solely founded on his merit, on the affection of his followers, and their desire of subduing their enemies. These sentiments actuate every breast, and augment the union, while in more civilized nations such a compact is effected by a slavish submission to military laws; for as the soldier has no choice in his commander, it frequently happens that neither his abilities nor his character are calculated to gain their esteem.

The Indian's method of dividing the time, is by numbering the nights elapsed, or to come; thus, if he be asked how long he has been on his journey, he will answer, "so many nights." From this nocturnal division, they proceed to the lunar or monthly division, reckoning thirteen of these in the year, all of which are expressive of some remarkable event or appearance, that happens during that revolution of the moon.

Their method of computing numbers is rather abstract, as they reckon chiefly by *decades*; as follows:—Two tens, three tens, &c. Ten tens, or an hundred tens. A few units over or under, are added or subtracted. Thus, thirty-two in their tongue is expressed, by saying three tens and two over.

Those Indians of whom we have now been treating and of whom the Peltries are obtained are known by the following names, *viz.* *The Ne-beth-aw-a*, the *Affinne-poetuc*, the *Fall*, the *Suffee*, the *Black-feet*, the *Paegan*, and the *Blood Indians*. These are the only Indians with which the Company trade, and consequently the only ones whose manners, customs, &c. are known.

The laudable zeal of the Moravian clergy induced them, in the year 1752, to send missionaries from Greenland to this country. They fixed on Nesbit's harbour for their settlement; but of the first party, some of them were killed, and the others driven away. In 1764, under the protection of the British government, another attempt was made. The missionaries were well received by the Esquimaux, and the mission goes on with success.

A N I M A L S.

The animals of these countries are, the moose deer, stags, rein deer, bears, tygers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermines, wild cats, and hares. The rein deer pass in vast

herds towards the north in October, seeking the extreme cold. The male polar bears rove out at sea, on the floating ice, most of the winter, and till June; the females lie concealed in the woods, or beneath the banks of rivers, till March, when they come abroad with their twin cubs, and bend their course to the sea in search of their comforts. Several are killed in their passage; and those that are wounded show vast fury, roar hideously, and bite and throw up in the air even their own progeny. The females and the young, when not interrupted, continue their way to the sea. In June the males return to shore, and by August are joined by their comforts, with their cubs, by that time of a considerable size. The feathered kinds are, geese, bustards, ducks, growse, and all manner of wild fowls. Indeed multitudes of birds retire to this remote country, to Labrador and Newfoundland, from places more remotely south, perhaps from the Antilles; and some even of the most delicate little species. Most of them, with numbers of aquatic fowls, are seen returning southward with their young broods to more favourable climates. The savages in some respects regulate their months by the appearance of birds; and have their goose-month, from the vernal appearance of geese, from the south. All the grouse kind, ravens, cinereous crows, titmouse, and Lapland finch, brave the severest winter; and several of the falcons and owls seek shelter in the woods. Of fish, there are whales, morfes, seals, cod-fish, and a white fish, preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and fresh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout.

All the quadrupeds of these countries are clothed with a close, soft, warm fur. In summer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours 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 what is yet more surprising, and what is indeed one of the most striking things, that draw the most inattentive to an admiration of the wisdom and goodness of Providence, is, that the dogs and cats from Britain 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.

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

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 probable, that no practicable passage ever can be found. Forbisher discovered the Main of New Britain, of Terra de Labrador, and those freights to which he has given his name. In 1585, John Davis sailed from Portsmouth, and viewed that and the more northern coasts, but he seems never to have entered the bay. Captain 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 freights that lead into 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 stayed here until the ensuing spring, and prepared, in the beginning of 1611, to pursue his discoveries; but his crew, who suffered equal hardships, without the same spirit to support them, mutinied, seized upon him and seven of those who were most faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy seas in an open boat. Hudson and his companions were either swallowed up by the waves, or gaining the inhospitable coast, were destroyed by the savages; but the ship and the rest of the men returned home.

Other attempts towards a discovery were made in 1612 and 1667; and a patent for planting the country, with a charter for a company, was obtained in the year 1670. In 1646, Captain Ellis wintered as far north as 57 degrees and a half, and Captain Christopher attempted farther discoveries in 1661. But besides these voyages, we are indebted to the Hudson's Bay Company for a journey by land; which throws much additional light on this matter, by affording what may be called demonstration, how much farther North, at least in some parts of their voyage, ships must go, before they can pass from one side of America to the other. The northern Indians, who came down to the Company's factories to trade, had brought to their knowledge a river, which, on account of much copper being found near it, had obtained the name of the Copper Mine River. The Company being desirous of examining into this matter with precision, directed Mr. Hearne, a young gentleman in their service, and who having been brought up for the navy, and served in it the war before last, was extremely well qualified for the purpose, to proceed over land, under the convoy of those Indians, for that river; which he had orders to survey, if possible, quite down to its exit into the sea; to make observa-

tions for fixing the latitudes and longitudes; and to bring home maps and drawings, both of it and the countries through which he should pass,

Accordingly Mr. Hearne set out from Prince of Wales's Fort, on Churchill river, latitude $58^{\circ} 47\frac{1}{2}'$ north, and longitude $94^{\circ} 7\frac{1}{2}'$ west from Greenwich, on the 7th of December, 1770. Mr. Hearne on the 13th of July reached the Copper Mine river, and found it all the way, even to its exit into the sea, incumbered with shoals and falls, and emptying itself into it over a dry flat of the shore, the tide being then out, which seemed, by the edges of the ice, to rise about twelve or fourteen feet. This rise, on account of the falls, will carry it but a very small way within the river's mouth, so that the water in it has not the least brackish taste. Mr. Hearne is, nevertheless, sure of the place it emptied itself into being the sea, or a branch of it, by the quantity of whalebone and seal skins which the Esquimaux had at their tents; and also by the number of seals which he saw upon the ice. The sea, at the river's mouth, was full of islands and shoals, as far as he could see, by the assistance of a pocket telescope; and the ice was not then (July 17th) broke up, but thawed away only for about three quarters of a mile from the shore, and for a little way round the island and shoals which lay off the river's mouth. But he had the most extensive view of the sea when he was about eight miles up the river, from which station the extreme parts of it bore N. W. by W. and N. E.

By the time Mr. Hearne had finished his survey of the river, which was about one o'clock in the morning on the 18th, there came on a very thick fog and drizzling rain; and as he had found the river and sea, in every respect unlikely to be of any utility, he thought it unnecessary to wait for fair weather, to determine the latitude more exactly by observation; but by the extraordinary care he took in observing the courses and distances, walking from *Congecathawhachaga*, where he had two very good observations, he thinks the latitude may be depended on within $10'$ at the utmost. It appears from the map which Mr. Hearne constructed of this singular journey, that the mouth of the Copper Mine river lies in latitude 72° N. and longitude 25° W. from Churchill river; that is, about 119° W. of Greenwich. Mr. Hearne's journey back from the Copper Mine river to Churchill, lasted till June 30th, 1772; so that he was absent almost a year and seven months. The unparalleled hardships he suffered, and the essential service he performed, have met with a suitable reward from his masters. He has been several years governor of Prince of Wales's Fort on Churchill river, where he was taken prisoner by the French in 1782.

Though

Though the adventurers failed in the original purpose for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of advantage to England. 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 at present consist of only seven 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.

Prince Rupert was their first Governor; the Duke of Albemarle, Lord Craven, Lord Arlington, and several other noble personages, constituted the first committee. The tenor of their charter is as full, ample, and comprehensive, as words can well make it; and, as if they suspected the intrusion of some adventurers on their territories, to participate in this valuable trade, the most severe penalties, with forfeiture of property, are laid on all those, who shall haunt, frequent, or trade upon their coasts; how far their successors have been entitled to these exclusive immunities, or how far, their confined manner of carrying on the trade has proved beneficial to the country, we shall endeavour to point out.

The first traders to these parts acted upon principles much more laudable and benevolent, than their successors seem to have been actuated by. They appear to have had the good of the country at heart; and to have endeavoured by every equitable means, to render their commerce profitable to the mother country. Their instructions to their factors were full of sentiments of Christianity, and contained directions for their using every means in their power, to reclaim the uncivilized Indians from a state of barbarism, and to inculcate in their rude minds the humane precepts of the gospel. They were at the same time admonished to trade with them equitably, and to take no advantage of their native simplicity. They were further instructed to explore the country, and to reap such benefit from the soil and produce thereof, as might redound to the interest of the English nation, as well as contribute to their own emolument. And lastly, they were directed to be particularly careful in seeing that the European servants behaved orderly, and lived in sobriety and temperance, observing a proper veneration for the service of God, which was ordered to be collectively performed at every seasonable opportunity.

These were injunctions worthy the exalted stations and rank in life of those who had the first direction of the affairs of the Company; and reflected much honour on their characters, as men and christians: and had

had these praise-worthy establishments been adhered to, the country granted them might at this day have been a real advantage to Great Britain. But instead of encouraging the trade, by a mild, equitable, and engaging deportment towards the natives;—instead of ingratiating themselves by affability and condescension with a harmless people, the Hudson's Bay Company use them with undeserved rigour, causing them frequently to be beat and maltreated, although they have come some hundreds of miles in order to barter their skins, and procure a few necessaries to guard against the severity of the approaching winter: owing to this conduct the trade has materially declined of late years.

Another reason why the Company's trade has declined, is a want of spirit in themselves, to push it on with that vigour the importance of the contest deserves. The merchants from Canada have been heard to acknowledge, that was the Hudson's Bay Company to prosecute their inland trade in a spirited manner, they must be soon obliged to give up all thoughts of penetrating into the country; as from the vicinity of the Company's factories to the inland parts, they can afford to undersell them in every branch.

To explain this emulation between the Company and the Canadian traders, it will be necessary to review the state of the Company in the year 1773. About that time the Canadian traders from Montreal, actuated by a laudable spirit of industry and adventure, and experiencing the pecuniary advantages that resulted from their exertions, had become so numerous and indefatigable at the head of the rivers which lead to the Company's settlements, that the trade of the latter was in a great measure cut off from its usual channel. The Indians being supplied with every thing they could wish for at their own doors, had no longer occasion, as they hitherto had done, to build canoes, and paddle several hundred miles, for the sake of cultivating a commerce with the Company; in which peregrination they were frequently exposed to much danger from hunger; so much so, that at one time seven canoes of upland Indians perished on their return to their own country.

Ever since the above period, the Canadian adventurers have annually increased in the upland country, much to their own emolument, and the great loss of the Company: who, it may be said, are sleeping at the edge of the sea, without spirit, and without vigour or inclination to assert that right, which their exclusive charter, according to their own account, entitles them to.

It is true, the Hudson's Bay Company have at this time a few establishments in the interior country; but these are carried on in such a languid

languid manner, that their exertions have hitherto proved inadequate to the purpose of supplanting their opponents.

The Company signify to their Factors, that they have an indisputable right to all the territories about Hudson's Bay, not only including the Straits and Bay, with all the rivers, inlets, &c. therein, but likewise to all the countries, lakes, &c. indefinitely to the westward, explored and unexplored. They therefore stigmatize the Canadian merchants with the insulting epithets of pedlars, thieves, and interlopers; though the quantity of furs imported by themselves bears no comparison to those sent from Canada. If this unbounded claim, to which they pretend, be founded upon justice, why, in the name of equity do they not assert these pretensions by a proper application to the British Parliament to remove the industrious pedlars, whom they would seem to look upon with such ineffable contempt, and prevent their any longer encroaching on their territories; but the shock they received from the parliamentary application of the patriotic Mr. Dobbs, in the year 1749, has given them a distate to parliamentary inquiries. They know the weakness of their claim, and the instability of their pretensions; it is therefore their interest to hide from an inquisitive but deluded nation, every investigation which might tend to bring to light the futility of their proceedings.

If the Canadian traders can adduce any profit to themselves by prosecuting this inland business, what are not the Hudson's Bay Company enabled to do, with every advantage on their side, would they prosecute the trade with vigour?

York Fort at this time has four subordinate settlements; at which settlements, conjointly, the Company allow one hundred servants, whose wages amount to about one thousand eight hundred and sixty pounds per annum; besides a sloop of sixty tons, that makes a voyage once a year between York Fort and Severn Factories. In the year 1748, the complement of men at that settlement was no more than twenty-five, whose wages amounted to four hundred and seventy pounds per annum, and the trade then stood at thirty thousand skins one year with another. The other establishments which the Company maintain in the Bay, have suffered the like proportional change, all decreasing in trade, and bearing additional incumbrances.

To exhibit at one view a state of their several establishments in the Bay at present, the following table is subjoined.

TABLE.

TABLE.

Settlements.	Situation.		Trade on Average.	Indian Settlement	Ships con- signed to.	Sloops in the Country.		No. of Serv.
	La. N.	Lo. W.				ship tons	ship tons	
Churchill	59	094 30	Skins. 10,000		1 of 250	1 of 70	25	
York Fort	57	1093 00	25,000	4	1 of 250	1 of 60	100	
Seyern House	56	1288 57						
Albany Fort	52	1885 18	5,600	2	1 of 280	1 of 70	50	
Moose Fort	51	2883 15	7,000	2		1 of 70	40	
Eaftmain	53	2478 50				25		
			47,600	8	3—780	4—270	240	

The following is the standard of trade, by which the Governor or Factor, is ordered by the Company to trade with the natives*.

		Beav.		Beav.
Glas beads	lb.	1 as 2	Orrice lace	yd. 1½ as 1
China ditto		1 6	Brafs rings	No. 3 1
Brafs kettles		1 1½	Files	1 1
Coarfe cloth	yd.	1 3	Tobacco boxes	1 1
Blankets	No.	1 7	Awl blades	8 1
Tobacco Brazil	lb.	½ 8	Box barrels	3 1
Ditto leaf		1 1	Hawks bells	pr. 12 1
Ditto Eng. roll		1 1	Sword blades	No. 1 1
Check shirts	No.	1 2	Ice chiffels	1 1
White ditto		1 2	Gun worms	4 1
Yara stockings	pr.	1 2	Coarfe hats	1 4
Powder	lb.	1 1	Small leather trunks	1 4
Shot		4 1	Needles	12 1
Duffels	yd.	1 2	Hatchets	1 1
Knives	No.	4 1	Brandy	gall. 1 4
Guns		1 14	Medals	No. 12 1
Combs		1 1	Thimbles	6 1
Flints		16 1	Brafs collars	1 2
Vermillion	lb.	1 16	Fire steels	3 1
Piftols	No.	1 7	Razors	2 1
Small burning glaffes		1 1	Thread	lb. 1 1
Gartering	yd.	1½ 1		

* This is intended to keep up the appearance of a regular settled plan of trade; but though this farce may be played off to those who have not had the opportunities of knowing the deception, it will not have that effect upon a person any way acquainted with the business.

Notwithstanding

Notwithstanding this pretended standard is in itself sufficiently hard upon the Indians, and discouraging to the trade, yet the factors, and the company, in conjunction, do not think it so; for out of this a pernicious overplus trade must be raised; which, as Mr. Robson justly observes, "is big with iniquity, and striking at the very root of their trade as a chartered company:" it is intended to augment the emoluments of the governor, at the expence of justice and common honesty: it oppresses the Indian, who lives a most wretched life; and encounters a variety of difficulties, cold, hunger, and fatigue, to procure a few necessaries for himself and indigent family.

This overplus trade, as it is called, is carried on in the following manner; for instance; suppose an Indian would trade one pound of glass beads, it is set down in the standard at two beaver skins; but the conscientious factor will demand three, or perhaps four beaver skins for it; if the Indian asks for a blanket, he must pay eight beavers; and if he would purchase a gallon of brandy, he must give after the rate of eight beaver skins for it, as it is always one half, and sometimes two-thirds water. The consequence of this griping way of trade is in the end very hurtful to themselves, as the Canadians, in the interior country, undersell them in every article.

Before the Canadian-merchants pursued the fur trade with such diligence as they now do through the lakes, and had penetrated into the interior parts of Hudson's Bay, a great number of Indians used annually to come down to the company's settlements to barter their skins. And though the company have now in a great measure lost the benefit of this lucrative traffic, it may not be amiss to mention the manner in which the Indians prosecute their voyages to the factories.

In the month of March, the upland Indians assemble on the banks of a particular river or lake, the nomination of which had been agreed on by common consent, before they separated for the winter. Here they begin to build their canoes, which are generally completed very soon after the river ice breaks. They then commence their voyage, but without any regularity, all striving to be foremost; because those who are first have the best chance of procuring food. During the voyage, each leader canvasses, with all manner of art and diligence, for people to join his gang; influencing some by presents, and others by promises; for the more canoes he has under his command, the greater he appears at the factory.

Being come near their journey's end, they all part; the women to go in the woods to gather pine-bush for the bottoms of the

tents; while the leaders smoke together, and regulate the procession. This being settled, they re-embark, and soon after arrive at the factory. If there is but one captain, his situation is in the center of the canoes; if more, they place themselves on the wings; and their canoes are distinguished by having a small flag hoisted on a stick, and placed in the stern.

When they arrive within a few hundred yards of the fort, they discharge their fowling-pieces, to compliment the English; who, in return, salute them by firing two or three small cannon. The leaders seldom concern themselves with taking out the bundles, but the other men will assist the women. The factor being informed that the Indians are arrived, sends the trader to introduce the leaders with their lieutenants, who are usually their eldest sons or nearest relations. Chairs are placed for them to sit down on, and pipes, &c. are introduced. During the time the leader is smoking, he says very little, but as soon as this is over, he begins to be more talkative; and fixing his eyes immovably on the ground, he tells the factor how many canoes he has brought, what Indians he has seen, asks how the Englishmen do, and says he is glad to see them. After this the governor bids him welcome, tells him he has good goods and plenty, and that he loves the Indians, and will be kind to them. The pipe is by this time removed, and the conversation becomes free.

During this visit, the chief is dressed out at the expense of the factory in the following manner: a coarse cloth coat, either red or blue, lined with baize, and having regimental cuffs; and a waistcoat and breeches of baize, the whole ornamented with orris lace. He is also presented with a white or check shirt; his stockings are of yarn, one of them red, the other blue, and tied below the knee with worsted garters; his Indian shoes are sometimes put on, but he frequently walks in his stocking-feet; his hat is coarse, and bedecked with three ostrich feathers of various colours, and a worsted sash tied round the crown; a small silk handkerchief is tied round his neck, and this completes his dress. The lieutenant is also presented with a coat, but it has no lining; he is likewise provided with a shirt and cap, not unlike those worn by mariners.

The guests being now equipped, bread and prunes are brought and set before the captain, of which he takes care to fill his pockets, before they are carried out to be shared in his tent; a two gallon keg of brandy, with pipes and tobacco for himself and followers, are likewise set before him. He is now conducted from the fort to his tent

in

in the following manner : In the front a halberd and ensign are carried ; next a drummer beating a march ; then several of the factory servants bearing the bread, prunes, pipes, tobacco, brandy, &c. Then comes the captain, walking quite erect and stately, smoking his pipe, and conversing with the factor. After this follows the lieutenant, or any other friend, who had been admitted into the fort with the leader. They find the tent ready for their reception, and with clean pine-brush and beaver coats placed for them to sit on. Here the brandy, &c. is deposited, and the chief gives orders to some respectable person to make the usual distribution to his comrades. After this the factor takes his leave, and it is not long before they are all intoxicated ; when they give loose to every species of disorderly tumult, such as singing, crying, fighting, dancing, &c. ; and fifty to one but some one is killed before the morning. Such are the sad effects of the vile composition they are furnished with, upon these occasions.

After continuing in a state of intoxication, bordering on madness, for two or three days, their mental faculties return by degrees, and they prepare themselves for renewing the league of friendship, by smoking the calimut ; the ceremony of which is as follows : A pipe made of stone is filled with Brazil tobacco, mixed with a herb something like European box. The stem of the pipe is three or four feet long, and decorated with various pieces of lace, bears claws, and eagles talons, and likewise with variegated feathers, the spoils of the most beautiful of the feathered tribe. The pipe being fixed to the stem and lighted, the factor takes it in both his hands, and with much gravity rises from his chair, and points the end of the stem to the East, or sun-rise, then to the Zenith, afterwards to the West, and then perpendicularly down to the Nadir. After this he takes three or four hearty whiffs, and having done so, presents it to the Indian leader, from whom it is carried round to the whole party, the women excepted, who are not permitted to smoke out of the sacred pipe. When it is entirely smoked out, the factor takes it again, and having twirled it three or four times over his head, lays it deliberately on the table ; which being done, all the Indians return him thanks by a kind of singing out the word Ho.

Though the above ceremony made use of by the Indians, in smoking the calimut, may appear extremely ridiculous and incomprehensible, yet, when we are made acquainted with their ideas in this respect, the apparent absurdity of the custom will vanish. By this ceremony they mean to signify to all persons concerned, that whilst

the sun shall visit the different parts of the world, and make day and night; peace, firm friendship, and brotherly love, shall be established between the English and their country, and the same on their part. By twirling the pipe over the head, they further intend to imply, that all persons of the two nations, wheresoever they may be, shall be included in the friendship and brotherhood now concluded or renewed.

After this ceremony is over, and a further gratification of bread, prunes, &c. is presented, the leader makes a speech, generally to the following purport:

“ You told me last year to bring many Indians to trade, which I
 “ promised to do; you see I have not lied; here are a great many
 “ young men come with me; use them kindly, I say; let them trade
 “ good goods; let them trade good goods, I say! We lived hard last
 “ winter and hungry, the powder being short measure and bad;
 “ being short measure and bad, I say! Tell your servants to fill the
 “ measure, and not to put their thumbs within the brim; take pity
 “ on us, take pity on us, I say! We paddle a long way to see you;
 “ we love the English. Let us trade good black tobacco, moist and
 “ hard twisted; let us see it before it is opened. Take pity on us;
 “ take pity on us, I say! The guns are bad, let us trade light guns,
 “ small in the hand, and well shaped, with locks that will not freeze
 “ in the winter, and red gun cases. Let the young men have more
 “ than measure of tobacco; cheap kettles, thick, and high. Give
 “ us good measure of cloth; let us see the old measure; do you mind
 “ me? The young men prove they love you, by coming so far to see
 “ you; take pity, take pity, I say; and give them good goods; they
 “ like to dress and be fine. Do you understand me?”

As soon as the captain has finished his speech, he, with his followers, proceed to look at the guns and tobacco; the former they examine with the most minute attention. When this is over they trade their furs promiscuously; the leader being so far indulged, as to be admitted into the trading room all the time, if he desires it.

It is evident that 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, not to say iniquitous spirit, has been the subject of long and just complaint.

It will, we doubt not, seem very mysterious to the generality of people, that the company do not exert themselves to turn the riches of this country to their advantage, when they alone are to reap the benefit of their exertions. People will naturally be led to conclude from their conduct,

conduct, that what writers have said on this subject is devoid of truth, and mere chimeras; but this is for want of knowing the peculiar views of the company, their affection for their long-fostered monopoly, and that singular obscurity which envelops their whole constitution, nay, the whole of their mercantile transactions.

The company do not entertain the least doubt, but if the country they possess was properly explored by persons of ability, valuable discoveries might be made; but this they think may be so far from redounding to their interest, that it might have a contrary effect, by encouraging adventurers to petition for liberty to partake of these discoveries, and thereby occasion an investigation to take place, which would probably shake the foundation of their charter. This is not all; as the company consists at present but of seven persons; this small number *wisely* think, that as long as they can share a comfortable dividend, there is no occasion for their embarking in additional expenses, in order to prosecute discoveries which might transpire to the world, and endanger the whole.

The limits of the bay and straits comprize a very considerable extent; the soil of which, in many parts, is capable of much improvement by agriculture and industry. The countries abound with most kinds of quadrupeds, &c. whose skins are of great value. The numerous inland rivers, lakes, &c. produce fish of almost every species; and in the seas in and about the straits, and the northern parts of the bay, white and black whales, sea-horses, bears, and seals, are killed in great numbers by the Esquimaux, whose implements for this purpose are exceedingly simple. What advantage might not then arise to the nation from this branch of trade alone, were it laid open? If able harpooners were sent on this employ, with sufficient assistants, and properly encouraged, greater profits would accrue from this fishery, than from all the peltry at present imported by the company. The discovery of numberless fine harbours, and an acquaintance with the surrounding country, which at present is entirely unknown to us, would, in all likelihood, be the consequence of these seas being more frequented than they are. And indeed if ever the forts and settlements on the American boundary line are surrendered according to the treaty of peace, England has no other means in her hands to counterpoise the superior advantages the Americans will then possess in the fur trade, than to throw the trade to Hudson's bay open, and thus destroy a disgraceful monopoly; or to incorporate with it by a new charter the merchants trading to Canada, and thus infuse into it a fresh portion

tion of mercantile vigour: by this means an extensive intercourse with nations, to which we at present are almost strangers, might be opened, and a country explored whose resources may equal if not surpass those of the country round Canada.

If it be objected to this, that the vast quantities of ice in the straits must impede a vessel from making discoveries, we answer, that many years the ice is so insignificant in quantity as not to obstruct the passage of the ships in the least; and in those seasons when it is thickest, it is dissolved and dispersed in the ocean long before the return of the ships in September.

Even in the very confined manner in which the company carry on this trade, it is far from being inconsiderable in value, though their ships seldom stop but a very short time for the purpose of trading with the Esquimaux; they employ three ships annually, which are manned with seventy-five men.

The company exports commodities to the value of about ten thousand pounds, and bring home returns to the value of twenty-nine thousand three hundred and forty pounds, which yield to the revenue about three thousand seven hundred and thirty-four pounds. This includes the fishery in Hudson's bay. That this commerce, small as it is, affords immense profits to the company, and even some advantages to Great Britain in general, cannot be denied; for the commodities exchanged 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 there is the greatest plenty, and which, to use a mercantile phrase, are drugs. Though the workmanship happens to be in many respects so deficient, that no civilized people would take it, it may be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the skins and furs brought home in return afford articles for trading with many nations of Europe to great advantage. These circumstances prove the immense benefit that would redound to Britain, by throwing open the trade to Hudson's bay, since even in its present restrained state it is so advantageous.* The only attempt made to trade with Labrador, has been directed towards the fishery. Great Britain has no settlement there. The annual produce of the fishery amounts to upwards of forty-nine thousand pounds.

* In May 1732 all the forts and settlements belonging to the Hudson's bay company were destroyed by the French, the damages sustained were rated at five hundred thousand pounds.

NOVA-SCOTIA;

COMPREHENDING THE PROVINCE OF NEW-BRUNSWICK
AND NOVA-SCOTIA.

SITUATION, EXTENT, AND BOUNDARIES.

THESE provinces are situated between $43^{\circ} 30'$ and 49° north latitude and 60° and 67° east longitude from London, or 8° and 15° east longitude from Philadelphia. Their length is four hundred miles, and their breadth three hundred. They are bounded on the north, by the river St. Lawrence; on the east, by the gulf of St. Lawrence, which washes its coasts one hundred and ten leagues in extent, from the gut of Canso, at its entrance into the gulf, to cape Rozier, which forms the south part of the river St. Lawrence, and by the gut of Canso, which divides it from cape Breton; on the south, it is washed by the Atlantic ocean, having a sea coast of ninety leagues, from cape Canso, east, to cape Sables, west, which forms one part of the entrance into the bay of Fundy, which also forms a part of its southern boundary; west, by a part of Lower Canada, and the district of Maine.

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 the First 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 arisen so much 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 the other British settlements. Upon this principle, three thousand families were transported in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country, who built and settled the town of Halifax.

The tract of country within these limits, known by the name of Nova-Scotia, or New-Scotland, was, in 1784, divided into two provinces,

vinces, viz. New-Brunswick, on the north-west, and Nova-Scotia, on the south-east. The former comprehends that part of the old province of Nova-Scotia, which lies to the northward and westward of a line drawn from the mouth of the river St. Croix, through the center of the bay of Fundy to bay Verte, and thence into the gulf of St. Lawrence, including all lands within six leagues of the coast. The rest is the province of Nova-Scotia, to which is annexed, the island of St. John's, which lies north of it, in the gulf of St. Lawrence.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, &c.

During a great part of the year, the atmosphere is clouded with thick fog, which renders it unhealthy for the inhabitants; and four or five months it is intensely cold. A great part of this country lies in forest, and the soil, in many parts, is thin and barren. On the banks of the rivers, however, and some other parts, the soil is very good, producing large crops of English grass, hemp, and flax: many of the bays, and salt water rivers, and some parts of the sea coast, are bordered with fine tracts of salt marsh; but the inhabitants do not raise provisions enough for home consumption.

RIVERS, BAYS, LAKES AND CAPES.

The rivers which water this country we shall mention in connection with the different counties in which they principally flow, a few, however, call for separate notice. The rivers *Risconge* and *Nipisiguit* run from west to east into *Chaleur* and *Nipisiguit* bays, which communicate with the gulf of St. Lawrence. The river *St. Croix* (which is the true *St. Croix*, is yet undetermined) empties into *Passamaquoddy* bay, and forms a part of the boundary between *New-Brunswick* and *Maine*. *St. John's* is the largest river in the province. It empties into the north side of the bay of *Fundy*, and is navigable for vessels of fifty tons, sixty miles, and for boats upwards of two hundred miles. This is a common route to *Quebec*. The banks of this river, enriched by the annual freshets, are excellent land. About thirty miles from the mouth of this river commences a fine level country, covered with large trees of timber of various kinds. Masts, from twenty to thirty inches in diameter, have been cut on this tract. The tide flows, in this river, eighty or ninety miles. It furnishes the inhabitants with salmon, bass, and sturgeon. Near *fort Howe*, the river suddenly narrows, and occasions a fall at certain times of tide, like that at *London Bridge*.

The coast of these provinces is indented with numerous bays, and commodious harbours. The principal, as you descend southerly from the mouth of St. Lawrence river, are Gaspee, Chaleur, Verte, which is separated from the bay of Fundy by a narrow isthmus of about eighteen miles wide; cape and harbour of Canso, forty leagues eastward of Halifax. Chedabueto bay about ten leagues north-west of Canso. Chebueto bay, on which stands the town of Halifax. The bay of Fundy, which extends fifty leagues into the country, in which the ebb and flow of the tide is from forty-five to sixty feet. Chenigto bay is at the head of Fundy bay. Passamaquoddy bay borders on the district of Maine, and receives the waters of St. Croix river. At the entrance of this bay is an island, granted to several gentlemen in Liverpool in Lancashire, who named it Campobello. At a very considerable expense, they attempted to form a settlement there, but failed. On several other islands in this bay there are settlements made by people from Massachusetts. Among the lakes in these provinces, which are very numerous, and many as yet without names, is Grand lake, in the province of New-Brunswick, near St. John's river, about thirty-miles long, and eight or ten broad, and in some places forty fathoms deep.

The principal capes are cape Canso, on the west side of the entrance into Chedabueto bay, and cape Sables, on the east side of the entrance into the bay of Fundy.

CIVIL DIVISIONS,

These in 1783, were as follows:

<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Townships.</i>	<i>By whom settled.</i>	<i>Rivers.</i>
HANTS, on the river Avon.	Windfor Falmouth Newport		Avon or Pigiguit } All emptying St. Croix } into the Avon, Kenetcoot } and except the Coemiguen } last navigable. Cacaguet } Nav. 40 m. for Cobeguit } vess. of 60 tons.
HALIFAX, Eastern part of Nova-Scotia.	Halifax London Der. Truro Onflow Colchester Lawrence Southampton Canfo Tinmouth	Irish and Scotch from New-Eng- land	Shebbenaccadie. Boatable. Pitcoudiac Memremcoot
KINGS, on the Baſon of Miner.	Cornwallis Horton		Percau, ſmall Habitant, navig. for veſſ. of 40 tons a ſmall diſtance. Canaid, navig. for veſſ. of 160 tons 3 or 4 miles. Cornwallis, navig. for veſſ. of 100 tons 5 miles, for veſ. of 50 tons 10 miles. Salmon river.*
ANNAPOLIS, on Annapolis river.	Wilmot Granville Annapolis Clare Moncton	ſett. from Irel. and New-Engl. do. a fine town- ſhip 30 miles in leng. on the bay of Fundy. 4 families of Acadians. Do.	Annapolis, navigable for ſhips of any burthen 10 miles—of 100 tons 15 miles; tide flows 30 miles, paſſable in boats to within twenty miles of Horton.
CUMBER- LAND, at the head of bay of Fundy.	Cumberland Sackville Amherſt Hillboro' Hopewell	ſettled from N. Eng. & Yorkſh. ſettled from N. of Ire. N. Eng. and Yorkſhire.	An Lac Marequeſh } which are nav. 3 or 4 La Planche } miles for veſſels of Napan } 5 tons. Macon } ſhoal rivers. Memrem } Percoudia } navigable 4 or 5 mil. Chepodie } Herbert } navigable by boats to its head 12 miles.
SUNBURY, on the river St. John's, north ſhore of bay of Fundy.	Conway Gage-Town Burton Sunbury St. Ann's Willmot Newton Maugerville	ſettled from Maſſachuſetts, Connecticut, &c.	St John's, already deſcribed.
QUEENS, ſouth ſide of bay of Fundy.	Argyle Yarmouth Barrington (Sable Iſl.) Liverpool	Scots & Acad. New-England Quakers from Nantucket New-England	None.
LUNENBURG, on Mahoné bay.	New-Dublin Lunenburgh Cheſter Blandford	Irish formerly, now Germans Germans New-England, 3 families only.	None.

* There are ſettlements of Acadians on all theſe rivers, whoſe banks are good land.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.

HALIFAX is the capital of the province of Nova-Scotia. It stands on Chebucto bay, commodiously situated for the fishery, and has a communication with other parts of this province and New-Brunswick by land and water carriage. It has a good harbour, where a small squadron of ships of war lie during the winter, and in the summer protects the fishery. The town has an entrenchment, and is strengthened with forts of timber. It is said to contain fifteen or sixteen thousand inhabitants.

SHELBURNE on port Roseway, near cape Sables, was supposed, in 1783, to contain six hundred families; since that time it has become less populous. Guysborough formerly called Manchester, situated on Chedabucto bay, about ten leagues north-west of cape Canso, contained, in 1783, about two hundred and fifty families. Rawdon forty miles from Halifax, has about sixty houses. Annapolis on the east side of Fundy bay, has one of the finest harbours in the world. In other respects it is a poor, inconsiderable place.

FREDERICKTOWN, about ninety miles up St. John's river, is the capital of the province of New-Brunswick.

FORTS.

There are several forts in these provinces: these are fort Edward at Windsor, capable of containing two hundred men; Annapolis, in its present state, one hundred; Cumberland, three hundred; fort Howe, on St. John's river, one hundred: besides which there are barracks, inclosed in a stockade at Cornwallis, for about fifty men.

TRADE.

The exports from Great Britain to this country consist chiefly of linen and woollen cloths, and other necessaries for wear, of fishing tackle, and rigging for ships. The amount of exports, at an average of three years, before the new settlements, was about twenty-six thousand five hundred pounds. The only articles obtained in exchange are, timber and the produce of the fishery, which, at a like average, amounted to thirty-eight thousand pounds. But from the late increase of inhabitants, it is supposed that they will now erect saw mills, and endeavour to supply the West-India islands with lumber of every kind, as well as the produce of the fishery, which will be a profitable article

ticle to both countries. The whole population of Nova-Scotia and the islands adjoining, is estimated at fifty thousand. This estimate it is supposed is considerably too large. Recent accounts of these settlements represent them as in a declining state, having great numbers of the houses built in the new towns uninhabited, and considerably reduced in value.

INDIANS, &c.

The Indians here are the Micmaeks, and the tribe called the Marechites. The former inhabit the eastern shore, between Halifax and cape Breton; between Cumberland county and the north-east coast of the province, towards Chaleur bay; about the heads of the rivers which run through the counties of Hants and King's county; and between cape Sable and Annapolis royal. This tribe is supposed to have about three hundred fighting men. The Marechites inhabit the river St. John, and around Passamaquoddy bay, are estimated at one hundred and forty fighting men; they are much superior in all respects to the Micmaeks.—The animals are the same as in the United States, though much less numerous.

ISLAND OF SAINT JOHN.

THIS island lies in the gulf of St. Lawrence, near the northern coast of the province of Nova-Scotia, and is about sixty miles long, and thirty or forty broad. It has several fine rivers, a rich soil, and is pleasantly situated. Charlotte-town is its principal town, and is the residence of the lieutenant-governor, who is the chief officer on the island. The number of inhabitants are estimated at about five thousand. Upon the reduction of cape Breton in 1745, the inhabitants of this island, amounting to about four thousand, submitted quietly to the British arms. While the French possessed this island, they improved it to so much advantage, that it was called the granary of Canada, which it furnished with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork. It is attached to the province of Nova-Scotia.

NEWFOUNDLAND ISLAND.

NEWFOUNDLAND is situated to the east of the gulf of St. Lawrence, between forty-six and fifty-two degrees of north latitude, and between fifty-three and fifty-nine degrees west longitude, separated from Labrador, or New-Britain, by the straits of Belleisle; and from Canada, by the bay of St. Lawrence; being five hundred and fifty miles long and two hundred broad. The coasts are extremely subject to fogs, attended with almost continual storms of snow and fleet, the sky being usually overcast. From the soil of this island the British reap no 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; for the soil, at least in those parts of the island which have been explored, is rocky and barren; 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 will be at no very remote period, it is said, will afford a large supply for 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 three thousand sail of small craft in this fishery; on board of which, and on shore to cure and pack the fish, are upwards of one hundred thousand 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 for seamen. This fishery is computed to increase the national stock three hundred thousand pounds a year in gold and silver, remitted for the cod sold 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 to 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
New-

Newfoundland, Nova-Scotia, New-England, and the isle of cape Breton; and very profitable fisheries are carried on upon all their coasts.

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. Lawrence, 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 the fisheries on the north and on the west coasts of the island; and the inhabitants of the United States are allowed the same privileges in fishing as before their independence. The chief towns in Newfoundland are, Placentia, Bonavista, and St. John's: but not above one thousand families remain here in winter. A small squadron of men of war are sent out every spring to protect the fisheries and inhabitants, the admiral of which, for the time being, is governor of the island, besides whom there are two lieutenant-governors, one at Placentia, and the other at St. John's.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION

OF

GREENLAND.

GREENLAND is a general name by which is now denoted the most easterly parts of America, stretching towards the north-pole, and likewise some islands northward of the continent of Europe, lying in very high latitudes. The whole of this country was formerly described as belonging to Europe, but from its contiguity to, and probable union with the American continent, it appears most proper to be classed among the countries belonging to the latter; we therefore have followed Mr. Morfe, and placed it among the divisions of North-America.—It is divided into two parts, viz. West and East Greenland, of each we shall here give a description from the best authorities extant.

WEST GREENLAND.

THIS country is now laid down, in our latest maps, as part of the continent of America, though on what authority is not very clear.*

That

* Whether Greenland is an island, has not yet been decided, as no ship has penetrated higher than the seventy-eighth degree, on account of the ice. That it is not an island, but a part of the American continent, is rendered probable; 1st. Because Davis' straits, or rather Baffin's bay, grows narrower and narrower towards the seventy-eighth degree north.—2d. Because the coast, which in other places is very high towards the sea, grows lower and lower northward.—3d. Because the tide, which at cape Farewell, and as far up as Cockin's sound, in the sixty-fifth degree of latitude, rises eighteen feet at the new and full moon, decreases to the northward of Disko, so that in the seventieth degree of latitude

That part of it which the Europeans have any knowledge of is bounded on the west by Baffin's bay, on the south by Davis' straits, and on the east by the northern part of the Atlantic ocean. It is a very mountainous country, and some parts of it so high that they may be discerned thirty leagues off at sea. The inland mountains, hills, and rocks, are covered with perpetual snow; but the low lands on the sea-side are clothed with verdure in the summer season. The coast abounds with inlets, bays, and large rivers; and is surrounded with a vast number of islands of different dimensions. In a great many places, however, on the eastern coast especially, the shore is inaccessible by reason of the floating mountains of ice. The principal river, called Baal, falls into the sea in the sixty-fourth degree of latitude, where the first Danish lodge was built in 1721; and has been navigated above forty miles up the country.

West Greenland was first peopled by Europeans in the eighth century. At that time a company of Icelanders, headed by one Ericke Rande, were by accident driven on the coast. On his return he represented the country in such a favourable light, that some families again followed him thither, where they soon became a thriving colony, and bestowed on their new habitation the name of Groenland, or Greenland, on account of its verdant appearance. This colony was converted to Christianity by a missionary from Norway, sent thither by the celebrated Olaf, the first Norwegian monarch who embraced the Christian religion. The Greenland settlement continued to increase and thrive under his protection; and in a little time the country was provided with many towns, churches, convents, bishops, &c. under the jurisdiction of the archbishop of Drontheim. A considerable commerce was carried on between Greenland and Norway; and a regular intercourse maintained between the two countries till the year 1406, when the last bishop was sent over. From that time all correspondence was cut off, and all knowledge of Greenland has been buried in oblivion.

latitude it rises little more than eight feet, and probably continues to diminish, till there is no tide at all.—To which may be added the relation of the Greenlanders, which however cannot be much depended on, viz. that the strait contracts itself so narrow at last, that they can go on the ice so near to the other side as to be able to call to the inhabitants, and that they can strike a fish on both sides at once; but that there runs such a strong current from the north into the strait, that they cannot pass it.

Ellis' voyage to Hudson's bay for the discovery of a north-west passage.

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This strange and abrupt cessation of trade and intercourse has been attributed to various causes; but the most probable is the following: The colony, from its first settlement, had been harassed by the natives, a barbarous and savage people; agreeing in customs, garb, and appearance, with the Esquimaux found about Hudson's bay. This nation, called Schrellings, at length prevailed against the Iceland settlers who inhabited the western district, and exterminated them in the fourteenth century: inasmuch, that when their brethren of the eastern district came to their assistance, they found nothing alive but some cattle and flocks of sheep running wild about the country. Perhaps they themselves afterwards experienced the same fate, and were totally destroyed by these Schrellings, whose descendants still inhabit the western parts of Greenland, and from tradition confirm this conjecture. They affirm that the houses and villages, whose ruins still appear, were inhabited by a nation of strangers, whom their ancestors destroyed. There are reasons, however, for believing that there may be still some descendants of the ancient Iceland colony remaining in the eastern district, though they cannot be visited by land, on account of the stupendous mountains, perpetually covered with snow, which divide the two parts of Greenland; while they have been rendered inaccessible by sea, by the vast quantity of ice driven from Spitzbergen, or East Greenland. One would imagine that there must have been some considerable alteration in the northern parts of the world since the fifteenth century, so that the coast of Greenland is now become almost totally inaccessible, though formerly visited with very little difficulty. It is also natural to ask, by what means the people of the eastern colony surmounted the above-mentioned obstacles when they went to the assistance of their western friends; how they returned to their own country; and in what manner historians learned the success of their expedition? Concerning all this we have very little satisfactory information. All that can be learned from the most authentic records is, that Greenland was divided into two districts, called West-Bygd and East-Bygd: that the western division contained four parishes and one hundred villages: that the eastern district was still more flourishing, as being nearer to Iceland, sooner settled, and more frequented by shipping from Norway. There are also many accounts, though most of them romantic and slightly attested, which render it probable that part of the eastern colony still subsists, who, at some time or other, may have given the imperfect relation above mentioned. This colony, in ancient times, certainly comprehended twelve exten-

GENERAL DESCRIPTION

five parishes ; one hundred and ninety villages ; a bishop's see, and two monasteries. The present inhabitants of the western district are entirely ignorant of this part, from which they are divided by rocks, mountains, and deserts, and still more effectually by their apprehension : for they believe the eastern Greenlanders to be a cruel, barbarous nation, that destroy and eat all strangers who fall into their hands. About a century after all intercourse between Norway and Greenland had ceased, several ships were sent successively by the kings of Denmark in order to discover the eastern district ; but all of them miscarried. Among these adventurers, Mogens Heiason, after having surmounted many difficulties and dangers, got sight of the land ; which, however, he could not approach. At his return, he pretended that the ship was arrested in the middle of her course by certain rocks of loadstone at the bottom of the sea. The same year, 1576, in which this attempt was made, has been rendered remarkable by the voyage of Captain Martin Frobisher, sent upon the same errand by Queen Elizabeth. He likewise descried the land ; but could not reach it, and therefore returned to England ; yet not before he had sailed sixty leagues in the strait, which still retains his name, and landed on several islands, where he had some communication with the natives. He had likewise taken possession of the country in the name of Queen Elizabeth ; and brought away some pieces of heavy black stone, from which the refiners of London extracted a certain proportion of gold. In the ensuing spring he undertook a second voyage, at the head of a small squadron, equipped at the expense of the public, entered the straits a second time ; discovered upon an island a gold and silver mine ; bestowed names upon different bays, islands, and head-lands ; and brought away a lading of ore, together with two natives, a male and a female, whom the English kidnapped.

Such was the success of this voyage, that another armament was fitted out under the auspices of Admiral Frobisher, consisting of fifteen sail, including a considerable number of soldiers, miners, smelters, carpenters, and bakers, to remain all the winter near the mines in a wooden fort, the different pieces of which they carried out in the transports. They met with boisterous weather, impenetrable fogs, and violent currents upon the coast of Greenland, which retarded their operations until the season was far advanced. Part of their wooden fort was lost at sea ; and they had neither provision nor fuel sufficient for the winter. The admiral therefore determined to return with as much ore as he could procure, of this they obtained large quantities

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out of a new mine, to which they gave the name of the Countess of Suffex. They likewise built an house of stone and lime, provided with ovens; and here, with a view to conciliate the affection of the natives, they left a quantity of small morrice-bells, knives, beads, looking-glasses, leaden pictures, and other toys, together with several loaves of bread. They buried the timber of the fort where it could be easily found next year; and sowed corn, pease, and other grain, by way of experiment, to know what the country would produce. Having taken these precautions, they sailed from thence in the beginning of September; and after a month's stormy passage, arrived in England: but this noble design was never prosecuted.

Christian IV. king of Denmark, being desirous of discovering the old Greenland settlement, sent three ships thither, under the command of captain Godtke Lindenow, who is said to have reached the east coast of Greenland, where he traded with the savage inhabitants, such as they are still found in the western district, but saw no signs of a civilized people. Had he actually landed in the eastern division, he must have perceived some remains of the ancient colony, even in the ruins of their convents and villages. Lindenow kidnapped two of the natives, who were conveyed to Copenhagen; and the same cruel fraud was practised by other two ships which sailed into Davis' straits,* where they discovered divers fine harbours, and delightful meadows

* Nothing can be more inhuman and repugnant to the dictates of common justice than this practice of tearing away poor creatures from their country, their families, and connections: unless we suppose them altogether destitute of natural affection; and that this was not the case with those poor Greenlanders, some of whom were brought alive to Copenhagen, appears from the whole tenor of their conduct, upon their first capture, and during their confinement in Denmark. When first captivated, they rent the air with their cries and lamentations: they even leaped into the sea; and, when taken on board, for some time refused all sustenance. Their eyes were continually turned towards their dear country, and their faces always bathed in tears. Even the kindness of his Danish majesty, and the caresses of the court and people, could not alleviate their grief. One of them was perceived to shed tears always when he saw an infant in the mother's arms; a circumstance from whence it was naturally concluded, that he had left his wife with a young child in Greenland. Two of them went to sea in their little canoes in hope of reaching Greenland; but one of them was retaken. Other two made the same attempt; but were driven by a storm on the coast of Schonen, where they were apprehended by the peasants, and reconveyed to Copenhagen. One of them afterwards died of a fever, caught in fishing pearl, during the winter, for the governor of Kolding. The rest lived some years in Denmark; but at length, seeing no prospect of being able to revisit their native country, they sunk into a kind of melancholy disorder, and expired.

covered with verdure. In some places they are said to have found a considerable quantity of ore, every hundred pounds of which yielded twenty-six ounces of silver. The same Admiral Lindenow made another voyage to the coast of Greenland in the year 1606, directing his course to the westward of cape Farewell. He coasted along the straits of Davis, and having made some observations on the face of the country, the harbours and islands, returned to Denmark. Carsten Richards, being detached with two ships on the same discovery, descried the high land on the eastern side of Greenland, but was hindered by the ice from approaching the shore.

Other expeditions of the same nature have been planned and executed with the same bad success, under the auspices of a Danish company of merchants. Two ships returned from the western part of Greenland loaded with a kind of yellow sand, supposed to contain a large proportion of gold. This being assayed by the goldsmiths of Copenhagen, was condemned as useless, and thrown overboard; but from a small quantity of this sand, which was reserved as a curiosity, an expert chemist afterwards extracted a quantity of pure gold. The captain, who brought home this adventure, was so chagrined at his disappointment, that he died of grief, without having left any directions concerning the place where the sand had been discovered. In the year 1654, Henry Moller, a rich Dane, equipped a vessel under the command of David de Nelles, who sailed to the west coast of Greenland, from which he carried off three women of the country. Other efforts have been made, under the encouragement of the Danish king, for the discovery and recovery of the old Iceland colony in Greenland; but all of them miscarried, and people began to look upon such expeditions as wild and chimerical. At length the Greenland company at Bergen in Norway, transported a colony to the western coast, about the sixty-fourth degree of latitude; and these Norwegians sailed in the year 1712, accompanied by the Rev. Hans Egede, to whose care, ability and precision, we owe the best and most authentic account of modern Greenland. This gentleman endeavoured to reach the eastern district, by coasting southwards, and advanced as far as the States Promontory; but the season of the year, and continual storms, obliged him to return; and, as he could not even find the strait of Frøbisher, he concluded, that no such place ever existed. In the year 1724, a ship, being equipped by the company, failed on this discovery, with a view to land on the east side opposite to Iceland; but the vast

shoals

floals of ice, which barricadoed that part of the coast, rendered this scheme impracticable. His Danish majesty, in the year 1728, caused horses to be transported to Greenland, in hope that the settlers might by their means travel over land to the eastern district; but the icy mountains were found impassable. Finally, Lieutenant Richards, in a ship which had wintered near the new Danish colony, attempted, in his return to Denmark, to land on the eastern shore; but all his endeavours proved abortive.

Mr. Egede is of opinion, that the only practicable method of reaching that part of the country, will be to coast north-about in small vessels, between the great flakes of ice and the shore; as the Greenlanders have declared, that the currents continually rushing from the bays and inlets, and running south-westwards along the shore, hinder the ice from adhering to the land; so that there is always a channel open, through which vessels of small burden might pass, especially if lodges were built at convenient distances on the shore, for the convenience and direction of the adventurers.

That part of the country which is now visited and settled by the Danes and Norwegians, lies between the sixty-fourth and sixty-eighth degrees of north latitude; and thus far it is said the climate is temperate. In the summer, which continues from the end of May to the middle of September, the weather is warm and comfortable, while the wind blows easterly; though even at this time storms frequently happen, which rage with incredible violence; and the sea coasts are infested with fogs that are equally disagreeable and unhealthy. Near the shore, and in the bays and inlets, the low land is clothed with the most charming verdure; but the inland mountains are perpetually covered with ice and snow. To the northward of the sixty-eighth degree of latitude the cold is prodigiously intense; and towards the end of August all the coast is covered with ice, which never thaws till April or May; and sometimes not till the latter end of June. Nothing can exhibit a more dreadful, and at the same time a more dazzling, appearance, than those prodigious masses of ice that surround the whole coast in various forms, reflecting a multitude of colours from the sun-beams, and calling to mind the enchanted scenes of romance. Such prospects they yield in calm weather; but when the wind begins to blow, and the waves to rise in vast billows, the violent shocks of those pieces of ice dashing against one another, fill the mind with horror. Greenland is seldom visited with thunder and lightning, but the aurora borealis is very frequent
and

and bright. At the time of new and full moon, the tide rises and falls upon this coast about three fathoms; and it is remarkable, that the springs and fountains on shore rise and fall with the flux and reflux of the ocean.

The soil of Greenland varies like that of all other mountainous countries: the hills are very barren, being indeed frozen throughout the whole year; but the valleys and low grounds, especially near the sea, are rich and fruitful. The ancient Norwegian chronicles inform us, that Greenland formerly produced a great number of cattle; and that considerable quantities of butter and cheese were exported to Norway; and, on account of their peculiar excellency, set apart for the king's use. The same histories informs us, that some parts of the country yielded excellent wheat; and that large oaks were found here, which carried acorns as big as apples. Some of these oaks still remain in the southern parts, and in many places the marks of ploughed land are easily perceived: at present, however, the country is destitute of corn and cattle, though in many places it produces excellent pasture, and, if properly cultivated, would probably yield grain also. Mr. Egede sowed some barley in a bay adjoining to the Danish colony; it sprang up so fast, that by the latter end of July it was in the full ear; but being nipped by a night frost it never arrived at maturity. This seed was brought from Bergen, where the summer is of greater heat and duration than in Greenland; but in all probability the corn which grows in the northern parts of Norway would also thrive here. Turnips and coleworts of an excellent taste and flavour are also produced here. The sides of the mountains near the bays are clothed with wild thyme, which diffuses its fragrance to a great distance. The herb tormentil is very common in this country, and likewise many others not described by the botanists. Among the fruits of Greenland we number juniper-berries, blue-berries, bil-berries and bramble-berries.

Greenland is thought to contain many mines of metal, though none of them are wrought. To the southward of the Danish colony are some appearances of a mine of copper. Mr. Egede once received a lump of ore from one of the natives, and here he found calamine of a yellow colour. He once sent a considerable quantity of sand of a yellow colour, intermixed with streaks of vermilion, to the Bergen company: they probably found their account in this present; for they desired him, by a letter, to procure as much of
that

that sand as possible; but he was never able to find the place where he saw the first specimen. It was one of the smallest among a great number of islands, and the mark he had set up was blown down by a violent storm: possibly this might be the same mineral of which Captain Frobisher brought so much to England. This country produces rock-crystals both red and white, and whole mountains of the asbestos or incombustible flax. Around the colony, which is known by the name of Good Hope, they find a kind of bastard marble of various colours, which the natives form into bowls, lamps, pots, &c. All that has been said of the fertility of Greenland, however, must be understood only of that part which lies between the sixtieth and sixty-fifth degrees of latitude: the most northern parts are totally destitute of herbs and plants. The wretched inhabitants cannot find grass in sufficient quantities to stuff into their shoes to keep their feet warm, but are obliged to buy it from those who inhabit the more southern parts.

The animals which abound most in Greenland are, rein-deer, foxes, hares, dogs and white bears. The hares are of a white colour and very fat; the foxes are of different colours, white, greyish and blueish, and smaller than those of Denmark and Norway. The natives keep a great number of dogs, which are large, white or speckled, and rough, with ears standing upright, as is the case with all the dogs peculiar to cold climates; they are timorous and stupid, and neither bay nor bark, but sometimes howl dismally. In the northern parts the natives yoke them in sledges, which, though heavy laden, they will draw on the ice at the rate of seventy miles in a short winter's day. These poor animals are very ill rewarded for their service, being left to provide for themselves, except when their masters happen to catch a great number of seals: on these occasions the dogs are regaled with the blood and entrails; at other times they subsist, like wild beasts, upon muscles and berries. Here also are found great numbers of ravens, eagles of a prodigious size, falcons, and other birds of prey; and likewise a kind of linnæus, which warbles very melodiously. Whales, sword-fish, porpoises, &c. abound on the coasts; also holybut, turbot, cod, haddock, &c. The more dubious animals also, called mermaids, sea-serpents and krakens, said to be found on the coast of Norway, are said likewise to dwell in these seas. Mr. Egede assures us, that in the year 1734 the sea-serpent was seen off the new Danish colony, and raised its head mast-high above the surface of the water.

The

The people who now inhabit the western coast of Greenland, and who, without doubt, are the descendants of the ancient Schreelings, who exterminated the first Iceland colony, bear a near resemblance to the Samoiedes and Laplanders in their persons, complexions, and way of life: they are short, brawny, and inclined to corpulency, with broad faces, flat noses, thick lips, black hair and eyes, and a yellowish tawny complexion: they are for the most part vigorous and healthy, but remarkably short-lived, few of them reaching the grand climacteric, and many dying in their infancy and in the prime of youth: they are subject to a weakness in the eyes, occasioned by the piercing winds and the glare of the snow in the winter-time: the leprosy is known among them, but is not contagious. Those that dwell in the northern parts are miserably tormented with dysenteries, rheums, and pulmonary disorders, boils and epilepsy. The small-pox being imported among them from Copenhagen in the year 1734, made terrible havoc among these poor people, who are utterly destitute of any knowledge of the medicinal art, and depend entirely for assistance upon their angekuts or conjurers. In their dispositions the Greenlanders are cold, phlegmatic, indolent and slow of apprehension, but very quiet, orderly and good-natured: they live peaceably together, and have every thing in common, without strife, envy or animosity: they are civil and hospitable, but slovenly to a degree almost beyond the Hottentots themselves; they never wash themselves with water, but lick their paws like the cat, and then rub their faces with them. They eat after their dogs without washing their dishes; devour the lice which devour them; and even lick the sweat which they scrape off from their faces with their knives. The women wash themselves with their own urine, which they imagine makes their hair grow, and in the winter-time go out immediately after, to let the liquor freeze upon their skin. They will often eat their victuals off the dirty ground, without any vessel to hold it in, and devour rotten flesh with the greatest avidity. In times of scarcity they will subsist on pieces of old skin, reeds, sea-weed, and a root called tugloronet, dressed with train oil and fat. The dung of rein-deer taken from the intestines, the entrails of partridges, and all sorts of offals, are counted dainties among these savages; and of the scrapings of seals skins they make *delicate* pancakes. At first they could not taste the Danish provisions without abhorrence, but now they are become extremely fond of bread and butter, though they still retain

tain an aversion to tobacco and spirituous liquors; in which particular they differ from almost all savages on the face of the earth.

The Greenlanders commonly content themselves with one wife, who is condemned, as among other savage nations, to do all the drudgery, and may be corrected, or even divorced, by the husband at pleasure. Heroes, however, and extraordinary personages, are indulged with a plurality of wives. Their young women are generally chaste and bashful; but at some of their feasts, in the midst of their jollity, a man retires with his neighbour's wife behind a curtain made of skins; and all the guests, thus coupled, retire in their turns. The women think themselves happy if an angekut or prophet will thus honour them with his caresses. These people never marry within the prohibited degrees of consanguinity, nor is it counted decent in a couple to marry who have been educated in the same family. They have a number of ridiculous and superstitious customs; among which the two following are the most remarkable:—While a woman is in labour, the gossips hold a chamber-pot over her head, as a charm to hasten the delivery. When the child is a year old, the mother licks and flabbers it all over, to render it, as she imagines, more strong and hardy.

All the Greenlanders hitherto known, speak the same language, though different dialects prevail in different parts of the country: it abounds with double consonants, and is so guttural, that the pronunciation of many words is not to be learned except by those who have been accustomed to it from their infancy. The letters C, D, Q and X, are not known in their alphabet. Like the North-Americans, and inhabitants of Kamtschatka, they have a great number of long polysyllables. Their words, nouns as well as verbs, are inflected at the end by varying the terminations without the help of articles; but their language being found defective, they have adopted a good many words from the Norwegian dialect. Notwithstanding the endeavours of the Danish missionaries, they have no great reason to boast of the profelytes they have made of the natives of Greenland. These savages pay great deference and respect to the Danes, whom indeed they obey as their masters, and hear the truths of the Christian religion expounded without doubting the veracity of their teachers; but at the same time they listen with the most mortifying indifference, without being in the least influenced by what they have heard. They believe in the immortality of the soul, and the existence of a spirit whom they call Torngarsuk, but

of whom they have formed the most ridiculous notions.* The Angekuts, who are supposed to be his immediate ministers, differ con-

* The first missionaries among the Greenlanders entertained a doubt whether they had any conception of a Divine Being, as they had no word in their language by which to designate him. When they were asked who made the heaven and earth, and all visible things? their answer was—"We know not; or, we do not know him; or, it must have been some mighty person; or, things always have been as they are, and will always remain so." But when they understood their language better, they found they had some vague notions concerning the soul and spirits, and were solicitous about the state after death. It was evident also that they had some faint conceptions of a Divine Being.

They believe in the doctrine of the transmigration of souls—that the soul is a spiritual essence quite different from the body—that it needs no corporeal nourishment—that it survives the body, and lives in a future better state, which they believe will never end. But they have very different ideas of this state. Many place their Elysium in the abysses of the ocean, or the bowels of the earth, and think the deep cavities of the rocks are avenues leading to it. There dwells Torngarsuck and his mother; there a joyous summer is perpetual, and a shining sun is obscured by no night; there is the limpid stream, and abundance of fowls, fishes, rein-deer, and their beloved seals, and these are all to be caught without toil, nay, they are even found in a great kettle boiling alive. But to these delightful seats none must approach but those who have been dextrous and diligent at their work, (for this is their grand idea of virtue) that have performed great exploits, and have mastered many whales and seals, have undergone great hardships, have been drowned in the sea, or died in childbed. The disembodied spirit does not enter dancing into the Elysian fields, but must spend five whole days, some say longer, in sliding down a rugged rock, which is thereby smeared with blood and gore. Those unfortunate souls which are obliged to perform this rough journey in the cold winter, or in boisterous weather, are peculiar objects of their pity, because they may be easily destroyed on the road, which destruction they call the second death, and describe it as a perfect extinction, and this, to them, is the most dreadful consideration. Therefore during these five days or more, the surviving relations must abstain from certain meats, and from all noisy work, except the necessary fishing, that the soul may not be disturbed or perish in its perilous passage. From all which, it is plain, that the Greenlanders, stupid as they have been represented, have an idea that the good will be rewarded, and the bad punished, and that they conceive a horror at the thought of the entire annihilation of the soul.

Others have their paradise among the celestial bodies, and they imagine their flight thither so easy and rapid, that the soul rests the very same evening in the mansion of the moon, who was a Greenlander, and there it can dance and play at ball with the rest of the souls; for they think the northern lights to be the dance of sportive souls. The souls in this paradise are placed in tents round a vast lake abounding with fish and fowl. When this lake overflows it rains on the earth, but should the dam once break, there would be a general deluge.

concerning the principles of his existence; some affirming that he is without form or shape; others, that he has the shape of a bear; others, that he has a large human body with only one arm; while others affirm, that he is no larger than a man's finger, with many other absurdities of a similar kind. They have also a peculiar kind of mythology, by which they believe all the elements to be full of spirits, from among which every one of their prophets is supplied with a familiar which they name Torngack, and who is always ready when summoned to his assistance.

The Greenlanders are employed all the year round either in fishing or hunting. At sea they pursue the whales, morfes, seals, fish for eating, and sea fowl. On shore they hunt the rein-deer in different parts of the country: they drive these animals, which feed in large herds, into a narrow circle or defile, where they are easily slain with arrows. Their bow is made of fir-tree, wound about with the twisted sinews of animals; the string is composed of the same stuff, or of seal skin; the arrow is a good fathom in length, pointed with a bearded iron, or a sharp bone; but those with which they kill birds are blunt, that they may not tear the flesh. Sea fowls they kill with lances, which they throw to a great distance with surprising dexterity. Their manner of catching whales is quite different from that practised by the Europeans: about fifty persons, men and women, set out in one long boat, which is called a *kone boat*, from *kone* a "woman," because it is rowed by females only. When they find a whale, they strike him with harpoons, to which are fastened with long lines some seal skins blown up like bladders. These, by floating on the surface, not only discover the back of the whale, but hinder him from diving under water for any length of time. They continue to pursue him until he loses strength, when they pierce him with spears and lances till he expires. On this occasion they are clad in their spring coats, consisting of one piece, with gloves, boots, and caps made of seal skin so closely laced and sewed that they

The wiser Greenlanders, who consider the soul as a spiritual immaterial essence, laugh at all this, and say, if there should be such a material, luxuriant paradise, where souls could entertain themselves with hunting, still it can only endure for a time; afterwards the souls will certainly be conveyed to the peaceful mansions: but they know not what their food or employment will be. On the other hand, they place their hell in the subterraneous regions, which are devoid of light and heat, and filled with perpetual terror and anxiety. This last sort of people lead a regular life, and refrain from every thing they think is evil.

keep out water. Thus accoutred they leap into the sea, and begin to flice off the fat, even under water, before the whale is dead.— They have many different ways of killing seals; namely, by striking them with a small harpoon equipped also with an air bag; by watching them when they come to breathe at the air-holes in the ice, and striking them with spears; by approaching them in the disguise of their own species, that is, covered with a seal skin, creeping upon the ice, and moving the head from side to side as the seals are accustomed to do. By this stratagem the Greenlander moves towards the unsuspecting seal, and kills him with a spear. The Greenlanders angle with lines made of whalebone cut very small, by means of which they succeed wonderfully. The Greenland canoe, like that used in Nova-Zembla and Hudson's bay, is about three fathoms in length, pointed at both ends, and three quarters of a yard in breadth; it is composed of thin rafts fastened together with the sinews of animals. It is covered with dressed seal-skins both below and above, in such a manner that only a circular hole is left in the middle, large enough to admit the body of one man. Into this the Greenlander thrusts himself up to the waist, and fastens the skin so tight about him that no water can enter. Thus secured, and armed with a paddle broad at both ends, he will venture out to sea in the most stormy weather to catch seals and sea-fowl; and if he is overset, he can easily raise himself by means of his paddle. A Greenlander in one of these canoes, which was brought with him to Copenhagen, outfripped a pinnace of sixteen oars, manned with choice mariners. The kone boat is made of the same materials, but more durable, and so large that it will contain fifty persons with all their tackle, baggage and provisions: she is fitted with a mast, which carries a triangular sail made of the membranes and entrails of seals, and is managed without the help of braces and bowlings: these kones are flat-bottomed, and sometimes sixty feet in length. The men think it beneath them to take charge of them, and therefore they are left to the conduct of the women, who indeed are obliged to do all the drudgery, including even the building and repairing their houses, while the men employ themselves wholly in preparing their hunting implements and fishing tackle.

This country is but thinly inhabited.* In the winter time the
people

* Most of the Greenlanders live to the southward of the sixty-second degree of north latitude, or as the inhabitants are wont to say, in the south; but no Europeans live

people dwell in huts built of stone or turf; on the one side are the windows, covered with the skins of seals or rein-deer. Several families live in one of these houses, possessing each a separate apartment, before which is a hearth with a great lamp placed on a trevit, over which hangs their kettle; above is a rack or shelf on which their wet clothes are dried. They burn train oil in their lamps, and for a wick they use a kind of moss, which fully answers the purpose. These lamps are not only sufficient to boil their victuals, but likewise produce such a heat, that the whole house is like a bagnio. The door is very low, that as little cold air as possible may be admitted. The house within is lined with oil skins, and surrounded with benches for the conveniency of strangers. In the summer time they dwell in tents made of long poles fixed in a conical form, covered in the inside with deers skins, and on the outside with seals skins, dressed so that the rain cannot pierce them.

EAST GREENLAND.

East-Greenland was for a long time considered as a part of the continent of West-Greenland, but is now discovered to be an assemblage of islands lying between $76^{\circ} 46'$ and $80^{\circ} 30'$ of north latitude, and between 9° and 20° of east longitude. It was discovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby in the year 1553, who called it Groenland, supposing it to be a part of the western continent. In 1595, it was again visited by William Barentz and John Cornelius, two Dutchmen, who pretended to be the original discoverers, and called the country Spitzbergen, or Sharp Mountains, from the many sharp-

live there, so that these parts are but little known. The European colonies have fixed themselves to the northward of the sixty-second degree of latitude.

A factor, who lived many years in the country, and whose accuracy, as far as the subject will admit, may be depended on, found, in the compass of forty leagues, which was the circle of his dealings, nine hundred and fifty-seven constant residents, besides occasional visitors. This part of Greenland is the most populous, except Diskohay, which is the best place for trade, and the southern parts. In other places, an individual may travel sixty miles and not meet with a single person. Suppose, however, that the country is inhabited for the space of four hundred leagues, and that there are one thousand souls for every forty leagues, the amount would be ten thousand. The above-mentioned factor thinks, that there are not more than seven thousand, because there are so many desert places. He asserts, indeed, that the native Greenlanders, in 1730, amounted to thirty thousand; and when he made his first calculation in 1746, there were still twenty thousand: consequently, since that time, their number has diminished at least one-half.

pointed and rocky mountains with which it abounds. They alleged, that the coast discovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby was some other country; which accordingly the Hoilanders delineated on their maps and charts by the name of Willoughby Land; whereas in fact no such land ever existed; and long before the voyage of these Dutchmen, Stephen Barrows, an English shipmaster, had coasted along a desolate country from north latitude 78° to $80^{\circ} 11'$, which was undoubtedly Spitzbergen. The sea in the neighbourhood of the islands of Spitzbergen abounds very much with whales, and is the common resort of the whale-fishing ships from different countries, and the country itself is frequently visited by these ships; but till the late voyage of the Hon. Capt. Phipps, by order of his Majesty, the situation of it was erroneously laid down. It was imagined, that the land stretched to the northward as far as 82° of north latitude; but Capt. Phipps found the most northerly point of land, called Seven Islands, not to exceed $80^{\circ} 30'$ of latitude. Towards the east he saw other lands lying at a distance, so that Spitzbergen plainly appeared to be surrounded by water on that side, and not joined to the continent of Asia, as former navigators had supposed. The north and west coasts also he explored, but was prevented by the ice from sailing so far to the northward as he wished. The coast appeared neither habitable nor accessible: it is formed of high, barren, black rocks, without the least marks of vegetation; in many places bare and pointed, in others covered with snow, appearing even above the clouds. The valleys between the high cliffs were filled with snow and ice. "This prospect," says Capt. Phipps, "would have suggested the idea of perpetual winter, had not the mildness of the weather, the smooth water, bright sunshine, and constant day-light, given a cheerfulness and novelty to the whole of this romantic scene." The current ran along this coast half a knot an hour, north. The height of one mountain seen here was found, by geometrical mensuration, to be at one time one thousand five hundred and three feet and a half, at another one thousand five hundred and three feet and eight-tenths. By a barometer constructed after De Luc's method, the height was found to be one thousand five hundred and eighty-eight feet and a half. On this occasion Capt. Phipps has the following remarks: "I cannot account for the great difference between the geometrical measure and the barometrical according to M. De Luc's calculation, which amounts to eighty-four feet seven inches. I have no reason to doubt the accuracy

racy of Dr. Irving's observations, which were made with great care. As to the geometrical measure, the agreement of so many triangles, each of which must have discovered even the smallest error, is the most satisfactory proof of its correctness. Since my return, I have tried both the theodolite and barometer, to discover whether there was any fault in either, and find them, upon trial, as I had always done before, very accurate."

There is good anchorage in Schmeerenburgh harbour, lying in north latitude $74^{\circ} 44'$, east longitude $9^{\circ} 50' 45''$, in thirteen fathom, sandy bottom, not far from the shore, and well sheltered from all winds. Close to this harbour is an island called Amsterdam Island, where the Dutch used formerly to boil their whale oil; and the remains of some conveniency erected by them for that purpose are still visible. The Dutch ships still resort to this place for the latter season of the whale fishery.—The stone about this place is chiefly a kind of marble, which dissolves easily in the marine ~~acid~~. There were no appearance of minerals of any kind, nor any signs of ancient or modern volcanoes. No insects, nor any species of reptiles, were seen, not even the common earth worm. There were no springs or rivers, but great plenty of water was produced from the snow which melted on the mountains.

The most remarkable views which these dreary regions present are those called Icebergs. They are large bodies of ice filling the valleys between the high mountains: their face towards the sea is nearly perpendicular, and of a very lively light green colour. One was about three hundred feet high, with a cascade of water issuing from it. The black mountains on each side, the white snow, and greenish coloured ice, composed a very beautiful and romantic picture. Large pieces frequently broke off from the icebergs, and fell with great noise into the water: one piece was observed to have floated out into the bay, and grounded in twenty-four fathoms; it was fifty feet high above the surface of the water, and of the same beautiful colour with the iceberg from which it had separated.

These islands are totally uninhabited, though it doth not appear but that human creatures could subsist on them, notwithstanding their vicinity to the pole. Eight English sailors, who were accidentally left here by a whale-fishing ship, survived the winter, and were brought home next season. The Dutch then attempted to settle a colony on Amsterdam island above mentioned, but all the people perished, not through the severity of the climate, but of the scurvy,

fcurvy, owing to the want of those remedies which are now happily discovered, and which are found to be so effectual in preventing and curing that dreadful disease. The late account also of six Russian sailors, who staid four years in this inhospitable country, affords a decisive proof, that a colony might be settled on East-Greenland, provided the doing so could answer any good purpose.

A Greenland company was formed in London in the year 1693. A joint stock of forty thousand pounds was by statute to be raised by subscribers, who were incorporated for fourteen years from the first day of October in that year; and the company to use the trade of catching whales, &c. to and from Greenland, and the Greenland seas; they may make bye-laws for the government of the persons employed in their ships, &c. Stat. 4 & 5 W. III. cap. 17. This company was farther encouraged by parliament in 1696; but partly by unskilful management, and partly by real losses, it was under a necessity of entirely breaking up, before the expiration of the term assigned to it, ending in 1707. But any person who will adventure to Greenland for whale-fishing, has all privileges granted to the Greenland company, by 1 Anne, cap. 16. and thus the trade was again laid open. Any subjects may import whale fins, oil, &c. of fish caught in the Greenland seas, without paying any customs, &c. Stat. 10 Geo. I. cap. 16. And ships employed in the Greenland fishery are to be of such burden, provided with boats, so many men, fishing lines, harping irons, &c. and be licensed to proceed; and on their return are paid twenty shillings per ton bounty, for whale fins, &c. imported; 6 Geo. II. cap. 33. The bounty was afterwards increased, but has been lately diminished, and since this diminution the trade has increased.

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HISTORY
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EAST AND WEST-FLORIDA.

SITUATION, BOUNDARY AND EXTENT.

EAST and West-Florida are situated between 25° and 31° north latitude, and 5° and 17° west-longitude from Philadelphia; the length is about six hundred miles, and the breadth about one hundred and thirty. They are bounded north, by Georgia; east, by the Atlantic ocean; south, by the gulph of Mexico; west, by the Mississippi; lying in the form of an L. The climate varies very little from that of Georgia. Florida was first discovered in 1497, by Sebastian Cabot, a Venetian, then in the English service; whence a right to the country was claimed by the kings of England; and this territory, as well as Georgia, was included in the charter granted by Charles II. to Carolina. In 1512, however, Florida was more fully discovered by Ponce de Leon, an able Spanish navigator, but who undertook his voyage from the most absurd motives that can

well be imagined. The Indians of the Caribbee islands had among them a tradition, that somewhere on the continent there was a fountain, whose waters had the property of restoring youth to all old men who tasted them. The romantic imaginations of the Spaniards were delighted with the idea. Many embarked in voyages to find out this imaginary fountain, who were never afterwards heard of. Their superstitious countrymen never imagined that these people had perished. They concluded that they did not return, only because they had drank of the immortalizing liquor, and had discovered a spot so delightful, that they did not choose to leave it. Ponce de Leon set out with this extravagant view as well as others, fully persuaded of the existence of a third world, the conquest of which was to immortalize his name. In the attempt to discover this country, he rediscovered Florida, but returned visibly more advanced in years than when he set out on his voyage. For some time this country was neglected by the Spaniards, and some Frenchmen settled in it. But the new colony being neglected by the ministry, and Philip II. of Spain having accustomed himself to think that he was the sole proprietor of America, fitted out a fleet at Cadiz to destroy them. His orders were executed with barbarity; the French encroachments were forced, and most of the people killed. The prisoners were hanged on trees, with this inscription, "Not as Frenchmen, but as heretics."

The cruelty was soon after revenged by Dominic de Gourgues, a skilful and intrepid seaman of Gascony, an enemy to the Spaniards, and passionately fond of hazardous expeditions and glory. He sold his estates, built some ships, and with a select band of adventurers like himself, embarked for Florida. He drove the Spaniards from all their posts with incredible valour and activity, defeated them in every encounter, and by way of retaliation, hung the prisoners on trees, with this inscription, "Not as Spaniards, but as assassins." This expedition was attended with no other consequences; Gourgues blew up the forts he had taken, and returned home, where no notice was taken of him. It was again conquered in 1539, by the Spaniards under Ferdinand de Soto, not without a great deal of bloodshed, as the natives were very warlike, and made a vigorous resistance. The settlement, however, was not fully established till the year 1665, when the town of St. Augustine, the capital of the colony while it remained in the hands of the Spaniards, was founded. In 1586, this place was taken and pillaged by Sir Francis Drake. It met with the same fate
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in 1665, being taken and plundered by Captain Davis, and a body of buccaneers. In 1702, an attempt was made upon it by Colonel More, governor of Carolina. He set out with five hundred English and seven hundred Indians; and having reached St. Augustine, he besieged it for three months, at the expiration of which, the Spaniards having sent some ships to the relief of the place, he was obliged to retire. In 1740, another attempt was made by General Oglethorpe; but he being outwitted by the Spanish governor, was forced to raise the siege with loss, and Florida continued in the hands of the Spaniards till the year 1763, when it was ceded by treaty to Great-Britain. During the last war it was again reduced by his Catholic Majesty, and was guaranteed to the crown of Spain at the peace.

Among the rivers that flow through this territory, and fall into the Atlantic sea, St. John's and Indian rivers are the principal. St. John's river rises in or near a large swamp, in the heart of East-Florida, and pursues a northern course in a broad navigable stream, which, in several places, spreads into broad bays or lakes. Lake George, which is only a dilatation of the river, is a beautiful piece of water, generally about fifteen miles broad, and from fifteen to twenty feet deep. It is ornamented with several charming islands, one of which is an orange grove, interspersed with magnolias and palm trees. Near Long lake, which is two miles long and four wide, and which communicates with St. John's river by a small creek, is a vast fountain of warm, or rather hot mineral water, issuing from a high bank on the river: it boils up with great force, forming immediately a vast circular basin, capacious enough for several shallops to ride in, and runs with rapidity into the river, at three or four hundred yards distance: the water is perfectly clear, and the prodigious number and variety of fish in it, while swimming many feet deep, appear as plainly as though lying on the table before your eyes: the water has a disagreeable taste, and smells like bilge water. This river enters into the Atlantic, north of St. Augustine.—Indian river rises a short distance from the sea coast, and runs from north to south, forming a kind of inland passage for many miles along the coast.—Saguana, Apalachicola, Chatahatchi, Escambia, Mobile, Pascagoula, and Pearl rivers, all rise in Georgia, and run southerly into the gulph of Mexico.

There are, in this territory, a great variety of soils. The eastern part of it, near and about St. Augustine, is far the most unfruitful; yet even here two crops of Indian corn are produced. The banks of the rivers which water the Floridas, and the parts contiguous, are of

a superior quality, and well adapted to the culture of rice and corn, while the more interior country, which is high and pleasant, abounds with wood of almost every kind; particularly white and red oak, live oak, laurel magnolia, pine, hiccory, cypress, red and white cedar. The live oaks, though not tall, contain a prodigious quantity of timber: the trunk is generally from twelve to twenty feet in circumference, and rises ten or twelve feet from the earth, and then branches into four or five great limbs, which grow in nearly a horizontal direction, forming a gentle curve. "I have stepped," says Bartram,* "above fifty paces, on a straight line, from the trunk of one of these trees to the extremity of the limbs." They are ever green, and the wood almost incorruptible. They bear a great quantity of small acorns, which are agreeable food, when roasted, and from which the Indians extract a sweet oil, which they use in cooking hominy and rice.

The laurel magnolia is the most beautiful among the trees of the forest, and is usually one hundred feet high, though some are much higher. The trunk is perfectly erect, rising in the form of a beautiful column, and supporting a head like an obtuse cone. The flowers are on the extremities of the branches; are large, white, and expanded like a rose, and are the largest and most complete of any yet known; when fully expanded, they are from six to nine inches diameter, and have a most delicious fragrance. The cypress is the largest of the American trees. "I have seen trunks of these trees," says Bartram, "that would measure eight, ten, and twelve feet in diameter, for forty and fifty feet straight shaft." The trunks make excellent shingles, boards, and other timber; and when hollowed, make durable and convenient canoes. "When the planters fell these mighty trees, they raise a stage around them, as high as to reach above the buttresses; on this stage eight or ten negroes ascend with their axes, and fall to work round its trunk."

The intervals between the hilly part of this country are extremely rich, and produce spontaneously the fruits and vegetables that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas. But this country is rendered valuable in a peculiar manner by its extensive ranges for cattle.

St. Augustine, the capital of East-Florida, is situated on the sea coast, latitude $29^{\circ} 45'$; is of an oblong figure, and intersected by four streets, which cut each other at right angles. The town is fortified with bastions, and inclosed with a ditch: it is likewise defended

* Travels, page 85.

by a castle, called fort St. John, which is well appointed as to ordnance. The north and south breakers, at the entrance of the harbour, form two channels, whose bars have eight feet water.

The principal town in West-Florida is Pensacola, latitude $30^{\circ} 22'$. It lies along the beach, and, like St. Augustine, is of an oblong form. The water approaches to the town except for small vessels, are obstructed by a low and sandy shore. The bay, however, on which the town stands, forms a very commodious harbour, and vessels may ride there secure from every wind. The exports from this town, consisting of skins, logwood, dying stuff, and silver dollars, amounted, while in the possession of the British, on an average, to sixty-three thousand pounds annually; the average value of imports, for three years, from Great-Britain, was ninety-seven thousand pounds.

LOUISIANA.

LOUISIANA is bounded by the Mississippi, on the east; by the gulf of Mexico, on the south; by New-Mexico, on the west; and runs indefinitely north. Under the French government Louisiana included both sides of the Mississippi, from its mouth to the Illinois, and back from the river, east and west indefinitely.

The Mississippi, on which the fine country of Louisiana is situated, was first discovered by Ferdinand de Soto, in 1541. Monsieur de la Salle was the first who traversed it. He, in the year 1682, having passed down to the mouth of the Mississippi, and surveyed the adjacent country returned to Canada, from whence he took passage to France.

From the flattering accounts which he gave of the country, and the consequential advantages that would accrue from settling a colony in those parts, Louis XIV. was induced to establish a company for the purpose. Accordingly a squadron of four vessels, amply provided with men and provisions, under the command of Monsieur de la Salle, embarked, with an intention of settling near the mouth of the Mississippi; but he unintentionally failed a hundred leagues to the westward of it, where he attempted to establish a colony; but through the unfavourableness of the climate, most of his men miserably perished, and he himself was villanously murdered, not long after, by two of his own men. Monsieur Ibberville succeeded him in his laudable attempts. He, after two successful voyages, died while preparing for a third. Crozat succeeded him; and in 1712, the king gave him Louisiana. This grant continued but a short time after the death of Louis XIV. In 1763, Louisiana was ceded to the king of Spain, to whom it now belongs.

This country is intersected by a number of fine rivers, among which are the St. Francis, which empties into the Mississippi at Kappas Old fort, navigable about two hundred and fifty or three hundred miles; its course is nearly parallel with the Mississippi, and from twenty to thirty miles distant from it; the Natchitoches, which empties

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empties into the Mississippi above Point Coupee; the Adayes or Mexicano river, emptying into the gulph of Mexico; and the river Rouge, on which, it is well known, are as rich silver mines as any in Mexico. This is supposed to be one principal reason why the exclusive navigation of the Mississippi has been so much insisted on by Spain.

Louisiana is agreeably situated between the extremes of heat and cold; its climate varies as it extends towards the north. The southern parts, lying within the reach of the refreshing breezes from the sea, are not scorched like those under the same latitudes in Africa; and its northern regions are colder than those of Europe under the same parallels, with a wholesome serene air. To judge of the produce to be expected from the soil of Louisiana, we should turn our eyes to Egypt, Arabia-Felix, Persia, India, China, and Japan, all lying in corresponding latitudes. Of these, China alone has a tolerable government; and yet it must be acknowledged, they all are, or have been, famous for their riches and fertility. From the favourableness of the climate, two annual crops of Indian corn may be produced; and the soil, with little cultivation, would furnish grain of every kind in the greatest abundance. The timber is as fine as any in the world, and the quantities of live oak, ash, mulberry, walnut, cherry, cypress, and cedar, are astonishing. The neighbourhood of the Mississippi, besides, furnishes the richest fruits in great variety; the soil is particularly adapted to hemp, flax, and tobacco; and indigo is at this time a staple commodity, which commonly yields the planter three or four cuttings a year. In a word, whatever is rich and rare in the most desirable climates in Europe, seems to be the spontaneous production of this delightful country. The Mississippi and the neighbouring lakes furnish in great plenty several sorts of fish, particularly perch, pike, sturgeon, and eels.

In the northern part of Louisiana, forty-five miles below the mouth of the Ohio river, on the west bank of the Mississippi, a settlement is commenced, conducted by Colonel Morgan, of New-Jersey, under the patronage of the Spanish king. The spot on which the city is proposed to be built, is called New-Madrid, after the capital of Spain, and is in north latitude $36^{\circ} 30'$.

The limits of the new city of Madrid are to extend four miles south, and two miles west from the river, so as to cross a beautiful, living, deep lake, of the purest spring water, one hundred yards wide, and several

Several miles in length, emptying itself, by a constant rapid narrow stream, through the center of the city. The banks of this lake, which is called St. Annis, are high, beautiful, and pleasant; the waters deep, clear, and sweet; the bottom a clear sand, free from woods, shrubs, or other vegetables, and well stored with fish. On each side of this delightful lake streets are laid out, one hundred feet wide, and a road is to be continued round it of the same breadth; and the trees are directed to be preserved for ever, for the health and pleasure of the citizens. A street one hundred and twenty feet wide, on the banks of the Mississippi, is laid out, and the trees are directed to be preserved for the same purpose. Twelve acres, in a central part of the city, are to be reserved in like manner, to be ornamented, regulated, and improved by the magistracy of the city for public walks; and forty half acre lots for other public uses; and one lot of twelve acres for the king's use.

New-Madrid, from its local situation and adventitious privileges, is in a prospect of being the great emporium of the western country, unless the free navigation of the Mississippi should be opened to the United States: and even should this desired event take place, which probably will not without a rupture with Spain, this must be a place of great trade. For here will naturally center the immense quantities of produce that will be borne down the Illinois, the Mississippi, the Ohio, and their various branches; and if the carriers can find as good a market for their cargoes here, as at New-Orleans, or the West-Indies, and can procure the articles they desire, they will gladly save themselves the difficulties and dangers of navigating the long Mississippi.

The country in the vicinity of this intended city is represented as excellent, in many parts beyond description. The natural growth consists of mulberry, locust, sassafras, walnut, hickory, oak, ash, dog wood, &c. with one or more grape vines running up almost every tree; the grapes yield, from experiment, good red wine, in plenty and with little labour. In some of the low grounds grow large cypress trees. The country is interspersed with prairies, and now and then a cane patch of one hundred, and some of one thousand acres. These prairies have no trees on them, but are fertile in grass, flowering plants, strawberries, &c. and, when cultivated, produce good crops of wheat, barley, Indian corn, flax, hemp, and tobacco, and are easily tilled. The climate is said to be favourable for health, and to the culture of fruits of various kinds, and particularly for garden

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vegetables. Iron and lead mines, and salt springs, it is asserted, are found in such plenty as to afford an abundant supply of these necessary articles. The banks of the Mississippi, for many leagues in extent, commencing about twenty miles above the mouth of Ohio, are a continued chain of lime-stone. A fine tract of high, rich, level land, S. W. by W. and N. W. of New-Madrid, about twenty-five miles wide, extends quite to the river St. Francis.

It has been supposed by some, that all settlers who go beyond the Mississippi will be for ever lost to the United States. There is, we believe, little danger of this, provided they are not provoked to withdraw their friendship. The emigrants will be made up of the citizens of the United States. They will carry along with them their manners and customs, their habits of government, religion and education; and as they are to be indulged with religious freedom, and with the privilege of making their own laws, and of conducting education upon their own plans, these American habits will undoubtedly be cherished; if so, they will be Americans in fact, while they are *nominally* the subjects of Spain.

It is true, Spain will draw a revenue from them, but in return they will enjoy peculiar commercial advantages, the benefit of which will be experienced by the United States, and perhaps be an ample compensation for the loss of so many citizens as may migrate thither. In short, this settlement, if conducted with judgment and prudence, might be mutually serviceable both to Spain and the United States; it might prevent jealousies; lessen national prejudices; promote religious toleration; preserve harmony, and be a medium of trade reciprocally advantageous.

But it is well known that empire has been travelling from east to west. Probably her last and broadest seat will be America. There the sciences and arts of civilized life are to receive their highest improvements: there civil and religious liberty are to flourish, unchecked by the cruel hand of civil or ecclesiastical tyranny: there genius, aided by all the improvements of former ages, is to be exerted in humanizing mankind, in expanding and enriching their minds with religious and philosophical knowledge, and in planning and executing a form of government, which will involve all the excellencies of former governments, with as few of their defects as is consistent with the imperfection of human affairs, and which will be calculated to protect and unite, in a manner consistent with the natural rights of mankind, the largest empire that ever existed. Eleva-

ted with these prospects, which are not merely the visions of fancy, we cannot but anticipate the period, as not far distant, when the American empire will comprehend millions of souls west of the Mississippi. Judging upon probable grounds, the Mississippi was never designed as the western boundary of the American empire. The God of Nature never intended that some of the best part of his earth should be inhabited by the subjects of a monarch four thousand miles from them. And we may venture to predict, that, when the rights of mankind shall be more fully known, and the knowledge of them is fast increasing both in Europe and America, the power of European potentates will be confined to Europe, and their present American dominions become, like the United States, free, sovereign, and independent empires.

It seems to depend on a timely adoption of a wise and liberal policy on the part of Spain, whether or not there shall be a speedy revolution in her American colonies. It is asserted by the best informed on the subject, that there are not a hundred Spanish families in all Louisiana and West-Florida; the bulk of inhabitants are French people, who are inimical to the Spaniards, and emigrants from the United States, and a few English, Scots, Dutch, and Irish. This was the case in 1791; and as all emigrations to this country have since been, and will probably in future be, from the United States, and these emigrations are numerous, the time will soon come, when the Anglo Americans in this country will far exceed the number of all other nations.

The wretched policy of New-Orleans, unless changed, will hasten a revolution in the Spanish colonies. So long as the governor can dictate laws and dispense with them at his pleasure, and create monopolies in trade for his own and his favourites' advantage, as is now the case, there can be no stability in the commerce of this place. The exclusive right, even of supplying the market with fresh beef, pork, veal, mutton, is monopolized. No farmer or planter is allowed to kill his own beef, swine, calf, or sheep, and send it to market; he must sell it to the king's butcher, as he is called, at the price he is pleased to give; and this man retails it out at a certain price agreed upon by the governor, in just such pieces as he thinks proper, through a window or grate. Ask for a roasting piece, and he will give you a shin or brisket of beef; point to the piece you want, and he will tell you it is engaged to your superior. From similar conduct, turkeys now sell for four or five dollars a piece, which, under the

French

French government, were in abundance for half a dollar. The monopoly of flour is, if possible, on still a worse footing for the inhabitant; and the tobacco inspection yet more discouraging to the planter. The GOVERNOR, or the crown, as it is called, must have an undefined advantage in every thing. Hence all are ripe for a revolution the moment one shall offer with prospect of being supported, whether it shall come from the United States, England, France, or internally from the inhabitants.

It is said to have been the fixed resolution of the British ministry to seize on New-Orleans, in the first instance, in case a rupture with Spain had taken place, as a necessary prelude to an attack on the Spanish possessions in the West-Indies and on the main. For this purpose every bend of the river, every bay and harbour on the coast, have been surveyed and sounded with the utmost exactness, and all of them are better known to the British than to the Spaniards themselves.

Whilst the United States were engaged in the revolution war against England, the Spaniards attacked and possessed themselves of all the English posts and settlements on the Mississippi, from the Iberville up to the Yazoo river, including the Natchez country; and by virtue of this conquest are now peopling and governing an extent of country three degrees north of the United States' south boundary, and claiming authority which no treaties warrant. This alone will probably be deemed sufficient cause for the United States to join with any other power against Spain, the first opportunity, as they conceive these territories belong to them by treaty. In such case, the Kentucky country alone could, in one week, raise a sufficient force to conquer all the Spanish possessions on the Mississippi; whilst one thousand men would be equal to defend the whole country of New-Orleans and Louisiana from any enemy approaching it by sea. The greater a hostile fleet entering the Mississippi, the greater and more certain would be their destruction, if opposed by men of knowledge and resolution.*

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* The following extract of a letter from a gentleman at New-Orleans, dated September, 1790, contains much useful information, in confirmation of the above:

"When I left you and my other friends at Baltimore, last year, I promised to write to you by every opportunity, and to communicate to you every information which I could derive from my excursion to the Ohio, down that beautiful stream, during my stay

New-Orleans stands on the east side of the Mississippi, one hundred and five miles from its mouth, in latitude $30^{\circ} 2'$ north. In the beginning

at Kentucky and the western posts, my visit to the Illinois and the different settlements on the Mississippi, from thence down to New-Orleans.

“As I have devoted more than twelve months in making this tour, with the determination to judge for myself, and to give you and my other friends information to be depended upon, regarding the climate, soil, natural productions, population, and other advantages and disadvantages, which you may depend on finding in the country I have passed through, I cannot, within the narrow bounds of this letter, comply with my intention, and your wish, but I must beg of you to rest satisfied with what follows :

* * * * *

“Nearly opposite to Louisville is a stockade fort, garrisoned by two companies of the first United States regiment. What use this post is of, I never could learn.—It is a mere hospital in the summer season, and the grave of brave men, who might be usefully employed elsewhere. Fort Harmar is as remarkably healthful ; so is the New-England settlement at Muskingum ; and I think the Miami settlement will be healthful when the people have the comforts of good living about them ; at present they are the poorest among the poor emigrants to this country, and not the best managers. Below the falls, on the west side, is a miserable settlement, called Clarksville, frequently flooded, and composed of a people who cannot better themselves at present, or I suppose they would not continue here. From thence I made an excursion by land to Post Vincent, distant about one hundred miles : the fort here is garrisoned by two companies, at great expense, but little use. Not liking the country on account of the many hostile neighbouring Indians, I hastened out of it, and went with a party of Frenchmen to Kaskaskias, in the Illinois country, and visited Prairie des Rochers, St. Philip's, Belle Fontaine, and Cahokia ; from whence making up a party to pursue some hostile Kikapooos, and steering due east, we fell on the head waters of the Kaskaskia river, which we crossed at some distance. This is a delightful country ! On our return to Cahokia, I crossed over to St. Louis, on the Spanish side, but I did not proceed far into the country ; what I did see I did not like, and therefore bought a canoe and went down the Mississippi to St. Genevieve and the Saline. Not being pleased with these places, nor the country around, I embraced the company of some French hunters and traders going towards the St. Francis river, in a south-west direction from St. Genevieve. After travelling thirty miles nearly, I came to a sweet country ; here meeting with some Shawanese Indians going to l'Ance la Graisse, and New-Madrid, I made them a small present, and engaged them to escort me there, which they did through a country fine and beautiful beyond description ; variegated by small hills, beautiful timber, and extensive plains of luxuriant soil. Here the Spaniards are building a handsome fort, to encourage the settlement by Americans, on a plan of Colonel Morgan's, of New-Jersey, which, had it been pursued, as proposed by him, would have made this the first in all the western country ; but they have deviated from it, so much as to discourage the settlement, and many have left it. The banks of the Mississippi overflow above and below the town, but the country back from the river is incomparably beautiful and fine. I made a

tour

ning of the year 1787 it contained about one thousand one hundred houses, seven-eighths of which were consumed by fire in the space of five hours, on the 19th of March, 1788. It is now rebuilt. Its advantages for trade are very great. Situated on a noble river, in a fertile and healthy country, within a week's sail of Mexico by sea, and as near to the British, French, and Spanish West-India islands, with a moral certainty of its becoming the general receptacle for the produce of that extensive and valuable country, on the Mississippi and Ohio; these circumstances are sufficient to ensure its future growth and commercial importance.

The greater part of the white inhabitants are Roman Catholics; they are governed by a viceroy from Spain; the number of inhabitants is unknown.

tour back to the river St. Francis, distant about twenty-eight or thirty miles, and returned by another route more southward, to my great satisfaction. Expressing to some of the people, at New-Madrid, my surprize at Colonel S***'s account of this country, I was told that he never went one hundred yards back from the river, either on the Ohio or Mississippi, except once, and that was at l'Ance la Graisse, where a horse was provided for him, and he rode fifteen or twenty miles, and returned so enraptured with the country, that he would not listen to the proposed settlement of New-Madrid being fixed at any other place; and he actually applied to Colonel Morgan for forty surveys, most of which were executed; and he entered into obligations for settlements thereon; but the Colonel refusing to grant him three hundred acres of the town lots, for a farm, as it would be injurious to other applicants of equal merit, S*** swore he would do every thing in his power to injure Morgan and the settlement; which it seems he has endeavoured to do, to the ruin, however, of his own reputation. I am satisfied that the failure of this settlement is only owing to a narrow policy in the Spanish government, or to a deviation from their first plan, and not from the causes represented by its enemies. This is the country, of all others, I have seen, which I would wish to settle in, had Colonel Morgan's plan been adopted, or carried into execution; and thousands among the best people of the western country would already have been settled here. Why it was not, I know not; but I am told jealousy of his success was the cause.

"After continuing two months in this delightful country, I proceeded to the Natchez, which has already become a considerable settlement, and is now under the government of Don Gayoso, a man greatly beloved; but the Spanish government, though I think it liberal at present, will not long agree with American ideas of liberty and justice; and a revolution is now in embryo, which a small matter will blow to a flame; and New-Orleans itself will be at the mercy of new subjects, if joined by a handful of the Kentucky people.

MEXICO, OR NEW-SPAIN.

MEXICO is situated between 9° and 40° north-latitude, and 18° and 50° west-longitude. Its length is two thousand one hundred miles, and breadth one thousand six hundred. It is bounded on the north, by unknown regions; on the east, by Louisiana and the gulph of Mexico; on the south, by the isthmus of Darien, which separates it from Terra Firma in South-America; and on the west, by the Pacific ocean.

This vast country is divided into three grand divisions, viz. 1. OLD-MEXICO. 2. NEW-MEXICO PROPER. 3. CALIFORNIA, lying on the west, and a peninsula.

OLD-MEXICO.

The ancient kingdom of Mexico, properly so called, was divided into several provinces, of which the vale of Mexico itself was the finest in every respect. This vale is surrounded by verdant mountains, measuring upwards of one hundred and twenty miles in circumference at their base. A great part of it is occupied by two lakes, the upper one of fresh water, but the lower one brackish, communicating with the former by means of a canal. All the water running from the mountains is collected in this lower lake, on account of its being in the bottom of the valley; hence it was ready, when swelled by extraordinary rain, to overflow the city of Mexico. This delightful region contained the three imperial cities of Mexico, Acolhuacan, and Tlacopan; besides forty others, with innumerable villages and hamlets; but the most considerable of these, according to Clavigero, now scarcely retain one twentieth part of their former magnificence. The principal inland provinces to the northward were the Otomies; to the south-west the Malatzincas and Cuitlatecas; to the south the Tlahuicas and Cohuixcas; to the south-east, after the states of Itzocan, Jauhtepac, Quauhquecollon, Atlixco, Tehuacan, and others, were the great provinces of the Mixtecas, the Zapotecas, and the Chiapanecas; towards the east were the provinces of Tepayacac, the Popolocas, and Totonacas. The maritime provinces on the Mexican

gulf were Coatzacoalco and Cuetlachtlan, called by the Spaniards Cotafta. On the Pacific ocean were those of Coliman, Zacatollan, Tototepec, Tecuantepec, and Zoconochco.

The province of the Otomies began in the northern part of the vale of Mexico, extending through the mountains to the north, to the distance of ninety miles from the city of Mexico; the principal cities being Tollan, or Tula, and Xilotepec: the latter made the capital of the country by the Spaniards. Beyond the settlements of the Otomies, the country for more than a thousand miles in extent was inhabited only by barbarous and wandering savages.

The Malatzinca province contained the valley of Tolocan, and all the country from Taximaroa to the frontier of the kingdom of Michuacan. The valley of Tolocan is upwards of forty miles long from south-east to north-west, and thirty in breadth, where broadest. Its principal city, named also Tolocan, is situated at the foot of a high mountain covered with snow, thirty miles distant from Mexico.

The country of the Cuilatecas extended from north-east to south-west, upwards of two hundred miles, extending as far as the Pacific ocean. Their capital was named Mexcaltepec, once a great and populous city, situated upon the sea coast, but of which the ruins are now scarcely visible. That of the Tlahuicas was named Quauhnahuac, and situated about forty miles to the southward of Mexico. The province extended almost sixty miles southward, commencing from the southern mountains of the vale of Mexico.

The country of the Coahuixcas extended on the southward as far as the Pacific ocean, through that part where at present the port and city of Acapulco lie. It was divided into the states of Tzompanco, Chilapan, Tlapan, and Tistla; the latter a very hot and unwholesome country. To this province belonged a place named Tlachco, celebrated for its silver mines.

The province of the Mixtecas extended from Acatlan, a place distant about one hundred and twenty miles from Mexico, as far as the Pacific ocean towards the south-east. The inhabitants carried on a considerable commerce, and had several well-inhabited cities and villages. To the east of the Mixtecas were the Zapotecas, so called from their capital Teotzapotlan. In their district was the valley of Huaxyacac, now Oaxaca, or Guaxaca.

The province of Mazatlan lay to the northward of the Mixtecas; and to the northward and eastward of the Zapotecas was Chimantla, having their capitals of the same name with their provinces. The
Chia-

Chiapanecas, Zoqui, and Queleni, were the last of the Mexican provinces towards the south-east. On the side of the mountain Popocatepec, and around it, lay several states, of which the most considerable were Cholallan and Huexotzinco. These two having, with the assistance of the Tlascalans, shaken off the Mexican yoke, re-established their former aristocratical government. The Cholulans possessed a small hamlet called Cuitlaxcoapan, in the place where the Spaniards afterwards founded the city of Angelopoli, which is the second of New-Spain.

To the eastward of Cholula lay a considerable state named Tepeyacac; and beyond that the Popolocas, whose principal cities were Tecamachalco and Quecholac. To the southward of the Popolocas was the state of Tabuacan, bordering upon the country of the Mixtecas; to the east, the maritime province of Cuetlachtlan; and to the north, the Totonacas. The extent of this province was one hundred and fifty miles, beginning from the frontier of Zacatlan, a state distant about eighty miles from the court, and terminating in the gulf of Mexico. Besides the capital, named Mizquihuacan, this country had the beautiful city of Chempoallan, situated on the coast of the gulf, remarkable for being that by which the Spaniards entered the Mexican empire.

Coliman was the most northerly of the province on the Pacific ocean; the capital, named also Coliman, being in latitude 19, longitude $27^{\circ} 2'$. Towards the south-east was the province of Zacotlan, with its capital of the same name; then came the coast of the Cuitlatecas; after it that of the Cohuicans, in which was the celebrated port of Acapulco. The Jopi bordered on the Cohuixca coast; and adjoining to that the Mixteca country, now called Xicayan; next to that was the large province of Tecuantepec; and lastly, that of Xocho-nochco.

This province, the most southerly of the Mexican empire, was bounded on the east and south-east by the country of Xochitepec, which did not belong to Mexico; on the west by Tecuantepec; and on the south by the ocean. The capital, called also Xoconochco, was situated between two rivers, in 14 degrees of latitude, and $28^{\circ} 3'$ of longitude. On the Mexican gulf there were, besides the country of Totonecas, the provinces of Cuetlachtlan and Coatzacualco; the latter bounded on the east by the States of Tabasco, and the peninsula of Yucatan. The province of Cuetlachtlan comprehended all the coast

between

between the river Alvarado and Antigua, where the province of the Totonecas began.

The climate of this vast country varies much according to the situation of its different parts. The maritime places are hot, unhealthy, and moist; the heat being so great as to cause people to sweat even in the month of January. This heat is supposed to be owing to the flatness of the coasts, and the accumulation of sand upon them. The moisture arises from the vast evaporation from the sea, as well as from the great torrents of water descending from the mountains. The lands which lie in the neighbourhood of high mountains, the tops of which are always covered with snow, must of necessity be cold; and Clavigero informs us, that he has been on a mountain not more than twenty-five miles distant from the city of Mexico, where there was white frost and ice even in the dog days. "All the other inland countries," says the same author, "where the greatest population prevailed, enjoy a climate so mild and benign, that they neither feel the rigour of winter nor the heat of summer. It is true, in many of the countries, there is frequently white frost in the three months of December, January, and February, and sometimes even it snows; but the small inconvenience which such cold occasions, continues only till the rising sun: no other fire than his rays is necessary to give warmth in winter; no other relief is wanted in the season of heat but the shade: the same clothing which covers men in the dog-days, defends them in January, and the animals sleep all the year under the open sky.

"This mildness and agreeableness of climate under the torrid zone is the effect of several natural causes entirely unknown to the ancients, who did not believe it to be inhabited, and not well understood by some moderns, by whom it is believed unfavourable to those who live in it. The purity of the atmosphere, the smaller obliquity of the solar rays, and the longer stay of this luminary above the horizon in winter, in comparison of other regions farther removed from the equator, concur to lessen the cold, and to prevent all that horror which disfigures the face of nature in other climes. During that season a serene sky and the natural delights of the country are enjoyed; whereas under the frigid, and even for the most part under the temperate zones, the clouds rob man of the prospect of heaven, and the snow buries the beautiful productions of the earth. No less causes combine to temper the heat of summer. The plentiful showers which frequently water the earth after mid-day, from April or May,

to September or October; the high mountains, continually loaded with snow, scattered here and there through the country of Anahuac; the cool winds which breathe from them in that season; and the shorter stay of the sun above the horizon, compared with the circumstances of the temperate zone, transform the climes of those happy countries into a cool and cheerful spring. But the agreeableness of the climate is counterbalanced by thunder storms, which are frequent in summer, particularly in the neighbourhood of the mountain of Tlascala; and by earthquakes, which are at all times felt, though with less danger than terror. Storms of hail are neither more frequent nor more severe than in Europe."

One undoubted inconvenience which Mexico has, is that of volcanoes, of which Clavigero enumerates five. One named by the Spaniards Volcan d'Orizaba, is higher than the peak of Teneriffe, according to the account of the Jesuit Tallandier, who measured them both. It began to send forth smoke in the year 1545, and continued burning for twenty years, but has not discovered any symptoms of eruption since that time. It is of a conical figure, and by reason of its great height, may be seen at fifty leagues distance. The top is always covered with snow, but the lower part with woods, of pine and other valuable timber. It is about ninety miles to the eastward of the capital.

Two other mountains, named Popocatepec and Iztaccihuatl, which lie near each other, at the distance of thirty-three miles to the south-east of Mexico, are likewise surprisingly high. Clavigero supposes the former to be higher than the highest of the Alps, considering the elevated ground on which the base of it stands. It has a crater more than half a mile wide; from which, in the time of the Mexican kings, great quantities of smoke and flame issued. In the last century it frequently threw out great showers of ashes upon the adjacent places; but in this century hardly any smoke has been observed. This mountain is named by the Spaniards Volcan, and the other Sierra Nevada: the latter has also sometimes emitted flames. Both of them have their tops always covered with snow in such quantities, that the masses which fall down upon the neighbouring rocks supply the cities of Mexico, Gelopoli, Cholula, and all the adjacent country to the distance of forty miles, with that commodity, of which the consumption is so great, that in 1746 the impost upon what was consumed in the city of Mexico, amounted to fifteen thousand two hundred and twelve Mexican crowns; some years after, it

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amounted to twenty thousand, and is now in all probability a great deal more. Besides these, there are the two mountains of Coliman and Tochtlan, both of which have occasionally emitted flames. Ciavigero does not include in the list of Mexican volcanoes, either those of Nicaragua or Guatemala, because these countries were not subject to the Mexican sovereigns. Those of Guatemala sometimes break forth in a most furious manner, and in the year 1773 entirely destroyed that beautiful city. The Nicaraguan volcano, called Juruyo was only a small hill before the year 1760. In that year, however, on the 29th of September, it began to burn with furious explosions, ruining entirely the sugar work, and the neighbouring village of Guacana: and from that time continued to emit fire and burning rocks in such quantities, that the erupted matters in six years had formed themselves into three high mountains, nearly six miles in circumference. During the time of the first eruption, the ashes were carried as far as the city of Queretaro, one hundred and fifty miles distant from the volcano; and at Valladolid, distant sixty miles from it, the shower was so abundant, that the people were obliged to sweep the house yards two or three times a day.

Besides these volcanoes, there are others in Mexico of a very remarkable height. The great chain of mountains called the Andes, are continued through the isthmus of Panama, and through all Mexico, until they are lost in the unknown mountains of the north. The most considerable of that chain is known in Mexico by the name of Sierra Madre, particularly in Cinalo and Tarahumara, provinces no less than one thousand two hundred miles distant from the capital.

Mexico is well watered by very considerable rivers, though none of them are comparable to those of South-America. Some of these run into the gulf of Mexico, and others into the Pacific ocean. The Alvarado has its principal source among the mountains of the Zapotecas, and discharges itself by three navigable mouths into the Mexican gulf, at the distance of thirty miles from Vera Cruz. The Coatzacoalco rises among the mountains of the Mixtecas, and empties itself into the gulf near the country of Onohualco. The river Chiapan, which likewise runs into this gulf, rises among the mountains which separate the district of Chiapan from that of Guatemala. The Spaniards call this river Tabasco, by which name they also called that tract of land which unites Yucatan to the Mexican continent. It was

also called Grijalva, from the name of the commander of the Spanish fleet who discovered it.

The most celebrated of the rivers which run into the Pacific ocean, is that called by the Spaniards Guadalaxara, or Great river. It rises in the mountains of Toloccan; and after running a course of more than six hundred miles, discharges itself into the ocean in 22° latitude.

There are likewise in this country several lakes of very considerable magnitude; but those of Nicaragua, Chapallan, and Pazquaro, which are of the greatest extent, did not belong to the ancient Mexican empire. The most remarkable were those in the vale of Mexico, upon which the capital of the empire was founded. Of these, the fresh water one called the lake of Chalco, extended in length from east to west twelve miles, as far as the city of Xochimilco; from thence, taking a northerly direction, it incorporated itself by means of a canal with the lake of Tezcuco; but its breadth did not exceed six miles. The other, named the lake of Tezcuco, extended fifteen, or rather seventeen miles from east to west, and something more from south to north; but its extent is now much less, by reason of the Spaniards having diverted the course of many of the streams which run into it. This lake is salt, which Clavigero supposes to arise from the nature of the soil which forms its bed.

Besides these, there are a number of smaller lakes, some of which are very delightful. There is a vast variety of mineral waters, of the nitrous, sulphureous, and aluminous kinds, some of them so hot, that meat might be boiled in them. At Tetuhuacan is a kind of petrifying water, as well as in several other parts of the empire. One of them forms a kind of smooth white stones, not displeasing to the taste; the scrapings of which taken in broth are celebrated as a diaphoretic, probably without any good reason. The dose for a person not difficult to be sweated is one dram of the scrapings. Many of the rivers of Mexico afford surprising and beautiful cascades, particularly the great river Guadalaxara, at a place called Tempizque, fifteen miles to the southward of that city. Along a deep river called Atoyaque, is a natural bridge, consisting of a vast mound of earth, along which carriages pass conveniently. Clavigero supposes it to have been the fragment of a mountain thrown down by an earthquake, and then penetrated by the river.

The mineral productions of Mexico are very valuable; the natives found gold in several provinces of the empire; they gathered it
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principally from among the sands of their rivers in grains, and the people in whose country it was found, were obliged to pay a certain quantity by way of tribute to the emperor. They dug silver out of the mines in Tlocho, and some other countries; but it was less prized by them than by other nations. Since the conquest, however, so many silver mines have been discovered in that country, especially in the provinces to the north-west of the capital, that it is in vain to attempt any enumeration of them. They had two sorts of copper; one hard, which served them instead of iron, to make axes and other instruments for war and agriculture; the other kind, which was soft and flexible, served for domestic utensils as with us. They had also tin from the mines of Tlachco, and dug lead out of mines in the country of the Otomies, but we are not informed what uses they put this last metal to. They had likewise mines of iron in Tlafcala, Tlachco, and some other places; but these were either unknown to the Mexicans, or they did not know how to benefit themselves by them. In Chilapan were mines of quicksilver; and in many places they had sulphur, alum, vitriol, cinnabar, ochre, and an earth greatly resembling white lead. These minerals were employed in painting and dyeing, but we know not to what use they put their quicksilver. There was great abundance of amber and asphaltum upon their coasts, both of which were paid in tribute to the king of Mexico from many parts of the empire: the former was wont to be set in gold by way of ornament, and asphaltum was employed in their sacrifices.

Mexico produces some diamonds, though but few in number; but they had in greater plenty some other precious stones, such as amethysts, cats eyes, turquoises, cornelians, and some green stones resembling emeralds, and very little inferior to them, of all which a tribute was paid to the emperor by the people in whose territories they were found. They were likewise furnished with crystal in plenty from the mountains which lay on the coast of the Mexican gulph, between the port of Vera Cruz and the river Coatzacoahuac. In the mountains of Celpolalpan, to the eastward of Mexico, were quarries of jasper and marble of different colours: they had likewise alabaster at a place called Tecalco, now Tecale, in the neighbourhood of the province of Tapeyacac, and many other parts of the empire. The stone tetzontli is generally of a dark red colour, pretty hard, porous, and light, and unites most firmly with lime and sand, on which account it is of great request for buildings in the capital,

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where the foundation is bad. There are entire mountains of load-stone, a very considerable one of which lies between Teoitztan and Chilapan, in the country of the Coahuixcas. They formed curious figures of nephritic stone, some of which are still preserved in European museums. They had a kind of fine white talc, which burnt into an excellent plaster, and with which they used to whiten their paintings. But the most useful stone they had, was that called itztli, of which there is great abundance in many parts of Mexico: it has a glossy appearance, is generally of a black colour, and semi-transparent; though sometimes also of a blue or white colour. In South-America this stone is called *pietra del galinazzo*; and Count Caylus endeavours to shew, in a manuscript dissertation quoted by Bomare, that the obfidiona, of which the ancients made their vases murini, were entirely similar to this stone. The Mexicans made of it looking-glasses, knives, lancets, razors, and spears. Sacred vases were made of it after the introduction of Christianity.

The soil of Mexico, though various, produced every where the necessaries, and even the luxuries of life. "The celebrated Dr. Hernandez, the Pliny of New-Spain," says Clavigero, "has described in his Natural History about one thousand two hundred plants, natives of the country; but his description, though large, being confined to medicinal plants, has only comprised one part of what provident nature has produced there for the benefit of mortals. With regard to the other classes of vegetables, some are esteemed for their flowers, some for their fruit, some for their leaves, some for their root, some for their trunk or their wood, and others for their gum, resin, oil, or juice."

Mexico abounds with a great variety of flowers, many of which are peculiar to the country, while multitudes of others imported from Europe and Asia rival in luxuriance the natives of the country itself. The fruits are partly natives of the Canary islands, partly of Spain, besides those which grow naturally in the country. The exotics are water melons, apples, pears, peaches, quinces, apricots, pomegranates, figs, black cherries, walnuts, almonds, olives, chestnuts, and grapes; though these last are likewise natives. There are two kinds of wild vine found in the country of the Mixtercas, the one resembling the common vine in the shoots and figure of its leaves; it produces large red grapes covered with an hard skin, but of sweet and grateful taste, which would undoubtedly improve greatly by culture. The grape of the other kind is hard, large, and of a very
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harsh taste, but they make an excellent conserve of it. Clavigero is of opinion that the cocoa tree, plantain, citron, orange, and lemon, came from the Philippine islands and Canaries; but it is certain that these, as well as other trees, thrive in this country as well as in their native soil. All the maritime countries abound with cocoa nut trees; they have seven kinds of oranges, and four of lemons, and there are likewise four kinds of plantains; the largest, called the zapalat, is from fifteen to twenty inches long, and about three in diameter; it is hard, little esteemed, and only eat when roasted or boiled. The *platano largo*, or "long plantain," is about eight inches long, and one and a half in diameter; the skin is at first green, and blackish when perfectly ripe. The guinco is a smaller fruit, but richer, softer, and more delicious, though not so wholesome. A species of plantain, called the dominico, is smaller and more delicate than the others. There are whole woods of plantain trees, oranges, and lemons; and the people of Michuacan carry on a considerable commerce with the dried plantains, which are preferable either to raisins or figs. Clavigero enumerates twenty-eight different sorts of fruit, natives of Mexico, besides many others, the names of which are not mentioned. Hernandez mentions four kinds of cocoa nuts, of which the smallest of the whole was in the most use for chocolate and other drinks daily made use of; the other kinds served rather for money in commerce than for aliment. The cocoa was one of the plants most cultivated in the warm countries of the empire, and many provinces paid it in tribute to the emperor, particularly that of Xocochocho, the cocoa nut of which is preferable to the others. Cotton was one of the most valuable productions of the country, as it served instead of flax, though this last also was produced in the country: it is of two kinds, white and tawny-coloured. They made use of rocou, or Brasil-wood in their dyeing, as the Europeans also do: they made cordage of the bark, and the wood was made use of to produce fire by friction.

The principal grain of Mexico, before the introduction of those from Europe, was maize, in the Mexican language called *tluolli*, of which there were several kinds, differing in size, weight, colour, and taste. This kind of grain was brought from America to Spain, and from Spain to other countries of Europe. The French bean was the principal kind of pulse in use among them, of which there were more species than of the maize; the largest was called *ayacotli*, of the size of a common bean, with a beautiful red flower;

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but the most esteemed was the small, black, heavy French bean. This kind of pulse, which is not good in Italy, is in Mexico so excellent, that it not only serves for sustenance to the poorer class of people, but is esteemed a luxury even by the Spanish nobility.

Of the esculent roots of Mexico, the following were the most remarkable: 1. The xicama, called by the Mexicans *catzotl*, was of the figure and size of an onion, solid, fresh, juicy, and of a white colour; it was always eat raw. 2. The *camote*, is another, very common in the country, of which there are three sorts, white, yellow, and purple: they eat best when boiled. 3. The *cacomite*, is the root of a plant which has a beautiful flower called the tyger-flower, with three red pointed petals, the middle part mixed with white and yellow, somewhat resembling the spots of the creature whence it takes its name. 4. The *huacamote*, is the root of a kind of Cassava plant, and is likewise boiled. 5. The *papa*, a root transplanted into Europe, and greatly valued in Ireland, was brought from South-America into Mexico. Besides all which they have a number of kitchen vegetables imported from the Canaries, Spain, and other countries of Europe. The American aloe is very similar to the real one, and is a plant of which the Mexicans formerly, and the Spaniards still, make great use.

They have a variety of palm trees. From the fibres of the leaves of one species they make thread: the bark of another kind, to the depth of three fingers, is a mass of membranes, of which the poor people make mats: the leaves of another kind are used for ornaments in their festivals: they are round, gross, white, and shining, having the appearance of shells heaped upon one another. A fourth kind bears nuts called cocoas, or nuts of oil. These nuts are of the size of a nutmeg, having in the inside a white, oily, eatable kernel, covered by a thin purple pellicle. The oil has a sweet scent, but is easily condensed, when it becomes a soft mass, as white as snow.

Of timber trees there are great variety, of a quality not inferior to any in the world; and as there are a variety of climates in the country, every one produces a kind of wood peculiar to itself. There are whole woods of cedars and ebonies, vast quantities of agallochum, or wood of aloes; besides others valuable on account of their weight, durability and hardness, or for their being easily cut, pliable, of a fine colour, or an agreeable flavour. There are also in Mexico innumerable trees remarkable for their size. Acofta mentions a cedar,

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the trunk of which was sixteen fathoms in circumference; and Clavigero mentions one of the length of one hundred and seven Paris feet. In the city of Mexico he mentions very large tables of cedar made out of single planks. In the valley of Atlixco is a very ancient fir tree, hollowed by lightning, the cavity of which could conveniently hold fourteen horsemen; nay, we are informed by the archbishop of Toledo, that in 1770 he went to view it along with the archbishop of Guatimala, at which time he caused an hundred young lads to enter its cavity. Our author mentions some other trees, of the species called ceiba, which for magnitude may be compared with this celebrated fir: "The largeness of these trees," says he, "is proportioned to their prodigious elevation, and they afford a most delightful prospect at the time they are adorned with new leaves and loaded with fruit, in which there is inclosed a particular species of fine, white, and most delicate cotton: this might be, and actually has been, made into webs as soft, delicate, and perhaps more so than silk; but it is toilsome to spin, on account of the smallness of the threads, and the profit does not requite the labour, the web not being lasting. Some use it for pillows and mattresses, which have the singular property of expanding enormously when exposed to the heat of the sun. De Bomare says, that the Africans make of the thread of the ceiba that vegetable taffety which is so scarce, and so much esteemed in Europe. The scarcity of such cloth is not to be wondered at, considering the difficulty of making it. The ceiba, according to this author, is higher than all other trees yet known."

Clavigero mentions a Mexican tree, the wood of which is very valuable, but poisonous, and if incautiously handled when fresh cut, produces a swelling in the scrotum. He has forgot the name given to it by the Mexicans, nor has he ever seen the tree itself, nor been witness to the effect.

This country abounds also with aromatic and medicinal trees, producing gums, resins, &c. From one of these a balsam is produced, not in the least inferior to the celebrated balsam of Mecca; it is of a reddish black or yellowish white, of a sharp, bitter taste, and of a strong but most grateful odour; it is common in the provinces of Panuco and Chiapan, and other warm countries: the kings of Mexico caused it to be transplanted into their celebrated garden of Huaxtepec, where it flourished, and was afterwards multiplied in all the neighbouring mountains. The Indians, in order to procure

a greater quantity of this balsam, burn the branches, which afford more than mere distillation, though undoubtedly of an inferior quality; nor do they regard the loss of the trees, which are very abundant: the ancient Mexicans were wont to extract it also by decoction. The first parcel of this balsam brought from Mexico to Rome was sold at one hundred ducats per ounce, and was, by the apostolic see, declared to be matter fit for chrism, though different from that of Mecca, as Acofta and all other writers on this subject observe. An oil is likewise drawn from the fruit of this tree similar in taste and smell to that of the bitter almond, but more acrimonious. From two other trees, named the huaconex and maripenda, an oil was extracted equivalent to the balsam: the former is a tree of a moderate height, the wood of which is aromatic, and so hard, that it will keep fresh for several years, though buried under the earth: the leaves are small and yellow, the flowers likewise small and white, and the fruit similar to that of the laurel. The oil was distilled from the bark of the tree, after breaking it, and keeping it three days in spring water, and then drying it in the sun: the leaves likewise afforded an agreeable oil by distillation. The maripenda is a shrub with lanceolated leaves, the fruit of a red colour when ripe, and resembling the grape. The oil is extracted by boiling the branches with a mixture of some of the fruit.

The trees producing liquid amber, the liquid storax of the Mexicans, is of a large size, the leaves similar to those of the maple, indented, white in one part and dark in the other, disposed of in threes; the fruit is thorny and round, but polygonous, with the the surface and the angles yellow; the bark of the tree partly green and partly tawny. By incisions in the trunk they extract that valuable substance named liquid amber, and the oil of the same name, which is still more valuable. Liquid amber is likewise obtained from a decoction of the branches, but it is inferior to that obtained from the trunk.

The name copalli in Mexico is generic; and common to all the resins, but especially signifies those made use of for incense. There are ten species of these trees yielding resins of this kind, the principal of which is that from which the copal is got, so well known in medicine and varnishes. A great quantity of this was made use of by the ancient Mexicans, and is still used for similar purposes by the Spaniards. The tecopalli, or tepecopalli, is a resin similar to the incense of Arabia, which distils from a tree of moderate size
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that grows in the mountains, having a fruit like an acorn, and containing the nut enveloped in a mucilage, within which there is a small kernel useful in medicine.

The mizquitl, or mezquite, is a species of true acacia, and the gum distilling from it is said to be the true gum arabic: it is a thorny shrub, with branches irregularly disposed, the leaves small, thin, and pinnated; the flowers being like those of the birch tree: the fruits are sweet and eatable, containing a seed, of which the barbarous Chichemecas were wont to make a kind of paste that served them for bread. The wood is exceedingly hard and heavy, and the trees are as common in Mexico as oaks are in Europe, particularly on hills in the temperate countries.

Of the elastic gum, which is found in plenty in Mexico, the natives were in use to make foot-balls, which, though heavy, have a better spring than those filled with air. At present they varnish with it their hats, cloaks, boots and great coats, in a manner similar to what is done in Europe with wax, and by which means they are rendered all water proof.

Clavigero laments, that the natural history of vegetables in Mexico is very little known, and that of animals no better. The first Spaniards, says he, who gave them names, were more skilful in the art of war than in the study of nature. Instead of retaining the terms which would have been most proper, they denominated many animals tygers, wolves, bears, dogs, squirrels, &c. although they were very different in kind, merely from some resemblance in the colour of their skin, their figure, or some similarity in habits and disposition. The quadrupeds found in Mexico at the arrival of the Spaniards, were lions, tygers, wild cats, bears, wolves, foxes, the common stags, white stags, bucks, wild goats, badgers, pole-cats, weasels, martins, squirrels, polatucas, rabbits, hares, otters and rats. All these animals are supposed to be common to both continents. The white stag, whether it be the same species of the other or not, is undoubtedly common to both, and was known to the Greeks and Romans. The Mexicans call it "the king of the stags." M. Buffon imagines the white colour of this creature to be the effect of captivity; but Clavigero says, that it is found wild, and of the same white colour, on the mountains of New-Spain. In many other points, he also controverts the opinions of this celebrated naturalist, who will not allow the lion, tyger or rabbit, to be natives of America.

The animals which are common to Mexico, with the other parts of the continent, are, the Mexican hog, the moufete, the opossum, the armadillo, the techichi, a small animal resembling a dog, which being perfectly dumb, gave occasion to a report, that the Mexican dogs could not bark. The flesh of this animal was eat by them, and was esteemed agreeable and nourishing food. After the conquest of Mexico, the Spaniards having neither large cattle nor sheep, provided their markets with this quadruped, by which means the species soon came to be extinct, though it had been very numerous. The land-squirrel is very numerous in the kingdom of Michuacan, has great elegance of form, and is extremely graceful in its movement; but it cannot be tamed, and bites most furiously every person who approaches it.

Besides these, there are sea-lions, raccoons, and that voracious animal named the tapir. There are likewise great numbers of monkeys of many different kinds, some of which have heads resembling those of dogs; some of them are strong and fierce, equalling a man in stature when they stand upright.

Among the animals peculiar to Mexico, is one named by Clavigero coyoto, which appears to have been inaccurately described by natural historians, some making it one species and some another. The tlalcojotl, or tlacoyoto, is about the size of a middling dog, and in Clavigero's opinion, is the largest animal that lives under the earth. The tepeizuintli, or mountain-dog, though it is but of the size of a small dog, is so bold that it attacks deer, and sometimes kills them. Another animal, larger than the two foregoing, is called the xoloitzcuintli; some of these are no less than four feet in length; it has a face like the dog, but tusks like the wolf, with erect ears, the neck gross, and the tail long: it is entirely destitute of hair, except only the snout, where there are some thick crooked bristles: the whole body is covered with a smooth, soft, ash-coloured skin, spotted partly with black and tawny. This species of animals, as well as the two former, are almost totally extinct. A Lyncean academician, named Giovanni Fabri, has endeavoured to prove, that the xoloitzcuintli is the same with the wolf of Mexico; but this is denied by Clavigero.

An animal called ocochtli, a kind of wild cat, is remarkable more for the fabulous account of it, than for any singular property with which it is really endowed. According to Dr. Hernandez, when this creature takes any prey, it covers it with leaves, and afterwards

Afterwards mounting on some neighbouring tree, it begins howling to invite other animals to eat its prey, being itself always the last to eat, because the poison of its tongue is so strong, that if it ate first the prey would be infected, and other animals which eat of it would die. To these must be added a curious animal of the mole kind, which is called tozan, or tuza; it is about the size of an European mole, but very different otherwise.*

The birds are so numerous, and of such various appearances and qualities, that Mexico has been called the country of birds as Africa is of quadrupeds. Though Hernandez passes over a great number of species, he yet describes above two hundred peculiar to the country. He allows to the eagles and hawks of Mexico a superiority over those of Europe; and the falcons of this country were formerly esteemed so excellent, that, by the desire of Philip II. an hundred of them were sent every year over to Spain. The largest, the most beautiful, and the most valuable kind of eagles is called by the Mexicans itzquauhtli, and will pursue not only the larger kind of birds, but quadrupeds, and even men.

The aquatic birds are very numerous and of great variety: there are at least twenty species of ducks, a vast number of geese, with several kinds of herons, great number of swans, quails, water-rails, divers, king's fishers, pelicans, &c. The multitude of ducks is sometimes so great, that they cover the fields, and appear at a distance like flocks of sheep: Some of the herons and egrets are perfectly white, some ash-coloured: others have the plumage of the body white, while the neck, with the tops and upper part of the wings, and part of the tail, are enlivened with a bright scarlet, or beautiful blue.

There are a great number of birds valuable on account of their plumage, which was made use of by the Mexicans in their excellent Mosaic works, an art which seems now to be totally lost. Peacocks have been carried from the old continent to Mexico; but not being attended to, have propagated very slowly. The birds remarkable for their song are likewise very numerous; among which that called the centzonitl, by Europeans the mocking-bird, is the most remarkable, on account of its counterfeiting naturally the notes of all others it hears.

* For a more particular account of these animals see History of Quadrupeds annexed.

Mexico, like all other American countries, abounds with reptiles, many of them of an enormous size. The crocodiles are not less to be dreaded than those of Africa or Asia; and there are likewise some of those monstrous serpents met with in the East-Indies and in South-America, though happily the species of those terrible creatures seems to be nearly extinct, as they are seldom to be found but in some solitary wood, or other remote place. There are great numbers of lizards, some of which the people suppose to be poisonous; but others think this opinion ill-founded. There are several kinds of poisonous serpents, of which the rattle-snake is one. The cenocoatl is another poisonous serpent, and remarkable for having a luminous appearance in the dark; by which, as by the rattle in the tail of the former, travellers are warned to avoid it. Among the harmless snakes is a very beautiful one about a foot in length, and of the thickness of the little finger; it appears to take great pleasure in the society of ants, insomuch that it will accompany these insects upon their expeditions, and return with them to their usual nest: it is called both by the Mexicans and Spaniards the "mother of the ants;" but Clavigero supposes, that all the attachment which the snake shews to the ant-hills proceeds from its living on the ants themselves. The ancient Mexicans were wont to take delight in keeping an harmless green snake, which they caught in the fields, and which, when well fed, would grow to the length of five or six feet. It was generally kept in a tub, which it never left but to receive food from the hand of its master; and this it would take either mounted on his shoulder or coiled about his legs.

The aquatic animals are innumerable. Clavigero mentions a species of frogs so large that a single one will weigh a pound, and which are excellent food. Of fish proper for food, he says, that he has counted upwards of one hundred species, without taking in the turtle, crab, lobster, or any other crustaceous animal.

Of flying and other minute insects the number is prodigiously great. There are a variety of beetles; some of a green colour make a great noise in flying, on which account children are fond of them. There are great numbers of shining beetles, which make a delightful appearance at night, as well as the luminous flies which abound in the country. There are six kinds of bees and four kinds of wasps; of which last, one collects wax and honey of a very sweet taste: another is called the wandering wasp, from its frequent change of abode; and in consequence of these changes, it is constantly employed

ployed in collecting materials for its habitations. There is also a black hornet with a red tail, the sting of which is so large and strong, that it will not only penetrate a sugar-cane, but even the trunk of a tree. The lake of Mexico abounds with a kind of fly, the eggs of which are deposited upon the flags and rushes in such quantities as to form large masses: these are collected by the fishermen, and carried to market for sale: they are eaten by both Mexicans and Spaniards, and have much the same taste as the caviare of fish: the Mexicans eat also the flies themselves, ground and made up with salt-petre. There are abundance of gnats in the moist places and lakes, but the capital, though situated upon a lake, is entirely free from them. There are other flies which make no noise in their flight, but cause a violent itching by their bite, and if the part be scratched, an open wound is apt to ensue. The butterflies are in vast numbers, and their wings glow with colours far superior to those of Europe; the figures of some of them are given by Hernandez. But notwithstanding its beauties and advantages, Mexico is subject to the dreadful devastations of locusts, which sometimes occasion the most destructive famines.

There are some of the worms of Mexico made use of by the inhabitants as food, others are poisonous. There are great numbers of scolopendræ and scorpions, some of the former growing to an immense size. Hernandez says, that he has seen some of them two feet long and two inches thick. The scorpions are very numerous, and in the hot parts of the country their poison is so strong as to kill children, and give terrible pain to adults. Their sting is most dangerous during those hours of the day in which the sun is hottest. In the province of Michuacan is a singular species of ant, larger than the common one, with a greyish body and black head; on its hinder part is a little bag full of a sweet substance, of which children are very fond: the Mexicans suppose this to be a kind of honey collected by the insect; but Clavigero thinks it rather is its eggs. There is a mischievous kind of tick, which in the hot countries abounds among the grass: from thence it easily gets upon the clothes, and from them upon the skin; there it fixes with such force, from the particular figure of its feet, that it can scarcely be got off: at first it seems nothing but a small black speck, but in a short time enlarges to such a degree, from the blood which it sucks, that it equals the size of a bean, and then assumes a leaden colour. Oviedo says, that the best and safest method of getting speedily rid of it is by anointing

anointing the part with oil, and then scraping it with a knife. If it is not speedily removed, a wound is made similar to that which the *nigera* or *chegoc* makes. The following insects were eaten by the ancient Mexicans: 1. The *atelepitz*, a marsh beetle, resembling in shape and size the flying beetles, having four feet, and covered with a hard shell. 2. The *atopinan*, a marsh grasshopper of a dark colour and great size, being not less than six inches long and two broad. 3. The *ahuihuitla*, a worm which inhabits the Mexican lake, four inches long, and of the thickness of a goose quill, of a tawny colour on the upper part of the body, and white upon the under part; it stings with its tail, which is hard and poisonous. 4. The *oculiztac*, a black marsh-worm, which becomes white on being roasted.

Among the curious productions of the animal kind to be met with in this country, *Clavigero* mentions a kind of zoophytes, which he saw in the year 1751, in a house in the country, about ten miles from *Angelopoli*, towards the south-east: they were three or four inches long, and had four very slender feet, with two antennæ; but their body was nothing more than the fibres of the leaves, of the same shape, size and colour, with those of the other leaves of the trees upon which these creatures were found. *Gemelli* describes another kind of these zoophytes which are found in *Manilla*.

Mexico produces also silk-worms; and the manufacture of silk might be carried on to great advantage, were it not prohibited for some political reasons. Besides the common silk, there is another found in the woods, very white, soft and strong. It grows on the trees in several maritime places, particularly in dry seasons: unless by poor people, however, this silk is not turned to any use, partly from inattention to their interests, but "chiefly" says *Clavigero*, "to the obstructions which would be thrown in the way of any one who should attempt a trade of that kind. We know from *Cortes's* letters to *Charles V.* that silk used to be sold in the Mexican markets: and some pictures are still preserved, done by the ancient Mexicans upon a paper made of silk."

Cochineal is one of the most valuable products of Mexico, and great care is taken to rear the insect in different parts; but the best is that which comes from the province of *Mizteca*: some have reckoned, that more than two thousand five hundred bags of cochineal are sent every year from *Mizteca* to Spain; and the trade in that

that article carried on by the city of Oaxaca is computed at two hundred thousand crowns value.

Though Mexico was originally inhabited by a number of different nations, yet all of them resembled each other pretty much, not only in character, but in external appearance. "They generally rather exceed," says Clavigero, "than fall under the middle size, and are well-proportioned in all their limbs: they have good complexions, narrow foreheads, black eyes, clean, firm, white and regular teeth; thick, black, coarse, glossy hair; thin beards, and generally no hair upon their legs, thighs and arms, their skin being of an olive colour. There is scarcely a nation on earth in which there are fewer persons deformed: and it would be more difficult to find a single hump-backed, lame or squint-eyed man among a thousand Mexicans, than among an hundred of any other nation. The unpleasantness of their colour, the smallness of their foreheads, the thinness of their beards, and the coarseness of their hair, are so far compensated by the regularity and fine proportion of their limbs, that they can neither be called very beautiful nor the contrary, but seem to hold a middle place between the extremes: their appearance neither engages nor disgusts; but among the young women of Mexico there are many very beautiful and fair, whose beauty is at the same time rendered more winning by the natural sweetness of their manner of speaking, and by the pleasantness and natural modesty of their whole behaviour. Their senses are very acute, especially that of sight, which they enjoy unimpaired to the latest age. Their constitutions are sound and their health robust: they are entirely free of many disorders which are common among the Spaniards; but of the epidemical diseases to which their country is occasionally subject they are generally the victims: with them these diseases begin, and with them they end. One never perceives in a Mexican that stinking breath which is occasioned in other people by the corruption of the humours or indigestion: their constitutions are phlegmatic; but the pituitous evacuations from their heads are very scanty, and they seldom spit. They become grey-headed and bald earlier than the Spaniards; and although most of them die of acute diseases, it is not very uncommon among them to attain the age of an hundred. They are now, and ever have been, moderate in eating, but their passion for strong liquors is carried to the greatest excess: formerly they were kept within bounds by the severity of the laws, but now that these liquors are become so common, and drunkenness is un-

punished, one-half of the people seem to have lost their senses; and this, together with the poor manner in which they live, exposed to all the baneful impressions of disease, and destitute of the means of correcting them, is undoubtedly the principal cause of the havoc which is made among them by epidemical disorders.

“ Many persons allow the Mexicans to possess a great talent of imitation, but deny them that of invention; a vulgar error, which is contradicted by the ancient history of that people. Their minds are affected by the same variety of passions with those of other nations, but not to an equal degree: the Mexicans seldom exhibit those transports of anger, or frenzies of love, which are so common in other countries. They are slow in their motions, and shew a wonderful tenacity and steadiness in those works which require time and long-continued attention. They are most patient of injury and hardship, and where they suspect no evil intention, are most grateful for any kindness shewn: but some Spaniards, who cannot distinguish patience from insensibility, nor distrust from ingratitude, say proverbially, that the Indians are alike insensible to injuries or benefits. That habitual distrust which they entertain of all who are not of their nation, prompts them often to lye and betray; so that good faith certainly has not been respected among them so much as it deserves. They are by nature taciturn, serious and austere, and shew more anxiety to punish crimes than to reward virtue.

“ Generosity and perfect disinterestedness are the principal features of their character. Gold, with the Mexicans, has not that value which it enjoys elsewhere. They seem to give without reluctance what has cost them the utmost labour to acquire. The neglect of selfish interests, with the dislike which they bear to their rulers, and consequently their aversion to perform the tasks imposed by them, seem to have been the only grounds of that much exaggerated indolence with which the Americans have been charged; and, after all, there is no set of people in that country who labour more, or whose labour is more necessary. The respect paid by the young people to the old, and by children to their parents, seem to be feelings that are born with them. Parents are very fond of their children; but the affection which husbands bear to their wives is certainly less than that which wives bear to their husbands; and it is very common for the men to love their neighbour's wives better than their own.

“Courage and cowardice seem alternately to affect their minds, that it is often difficult to determine whether the one or the other predominates: they meet dangers with intrepidity when they proceed from natural causes, but are easily terrified by the stern look of a Spaniard. That stupid indifference about death and eternity, which many authors have thought inherent in the character of every American, is peculiar only to those who are yet so rude and uninformed as to have no idea of a future state.”

Thus much with respect to the general character of the Mexicans; but Clavigero observes, that “the modern Mexicans are not in all respects similar to the ancient, as the Greeks of these days have little resemblance to those who lived in the times of Plato and Pericles. The ancient Mexicans shewed more fire, and were more sensible to the impressions of honour; they were more intrepid, more nimble, more active, more industrious; but they were at the same time more superstitious and cruel.”

The principal inhabitants of Mexico, in modern times, are Spaniards sent thither by the court, to fill the posts of government. They are obliged, like those in the mother country who aspire to any ecclesiastical, civil or military employments, to prove, that there have been neither heretics, Jews, Mahomedans, nor any person in their family who have been called before the inquisition for four generations. Merchants who are desirous of going to Mexico, as well as to other parts of America, without becoming colonists, are compelled to observe the same forms: they are also obliged to swear that they have three hundred palms of merchandise, their own property, in the fleet in which they embark, and that they will not carry their wives with them. On these absurd conditions they become the principal agents of the European commerce with the Indies. Though their charter is only to continue three years, and a little longer for countries more remote, it is of great importance. To them alone belongs the right of selling, as commissioners, the major part of the cargo. If these laws were observed, the merchants stationed in the new world would be confined to dispose of what they have received on their own account.

The predilection which the administration has for Spaniards born in Europe, has reduced the Spanish Creoles to acquiesce in subordinate stations. The descendants of the companions of Cortes, and of those who came after them, being constantly excluded from all places of honour or of trust that were any way considerable, have seen

the gradual decay of the power that supported their fathers. The habit of being obliged to bear that unjust contempt with which they have been treated, has at last made them become really contemptible. They have totally lost, in the vices which originate from indolence, from the heat of the climate, and from a superfluous enjoyment of all things, that firmness and that sort of pride which have ever characterised their nation. A barbarous luxury, shameful pleasures, and romantic intrigues, have enervated all the vigour of their minds, and superstition hath completed the ruin of their virtues. Blindly devoted to priests too ignorant to enlighten them by their instructions, too depraved to edify them by their example, and too mercenary to attend to both these duties of their function, they have no attachment to any part of their religion but that which enfeebles the mind, and have neglected what might have contributed to rectify their morals.

The Mestees, who constitute the third order of citizens, are held in still greater contempt. It is well known that the court of Madrid, in order to replenish a part of that dreadful vacancy which the avarice and cruelty of the conquerors had occasioned, and to regain the confidence of those who had escaped their fury, encouraged as much as possible the marriage of Spaniards with Indian women: these alliances, which became pretty common throughout all America, were particularly frequent in Mexico, where the women had more understanding and were more agreeable than in other places. The Creoles transferred to this mixed progeny the contemptuous slight they received from the Europeans. Their condition, equivocal at first, in process of time was fixed between the whites and the blacks.

These blacks are not very numerous in Mexico. As the natives are more intelligent, more robust and more industrious, than those of the other colonies, they have hardly introduced any Africans except such as were required either to indulge the caprice, or perform the domestic service, of rich people. These slaves, who are much beloved by their masters, on whom they absolutely depend, who purchased them at an extravagant price, and who make them the ministers of their pleasures, take advantage of the high favour they enjoy to oppress the Mexicans: they assume over these men, who are called *free*, an ascendancy which keeps up an implacable hatred between the two nations. The law has studied to encourage this aversion, by taking effectual measures to prevent all connection between

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tween them. Negroes are prohibited from having any amorous correspondence with the Indians; the men, on pain of being mutilated; the women, of being severely punished. On all these accounts, the Africans, who in other settlements are enemies to Europeans, are in the Spanish Indies their warm friends.

Authority has no need of this support, at least in Mexico, where population is no longer what it was formerly. The first historians, and those who copied them, have recorded, that the Spaniards found there ten millions of souls. This is supposed to have been the exaggerated account of conquerors, to exalt the magnificence of their triumph; and it was adopted, without examination, with so much the more readiness, as it rendered them the more odious. We need only trace with attention the progress of those ruffians who at first desolated these fine countries, in order to be convinced that they had not succeeded in multiplying men at Mexico and the adjacent parts, but by depopulating the center of the empire; and that the provinces which are remote from the capital, differed in nothing from the other deserts of South and North-America. It is making a great concession, to allow that the population of Mexico has only been exaggerated one-half, for it does not now much exceed two millions.

It is generally believed, that the first conquerors massacred the Indians out of wantonness, and that even the priests incited them to these acts of ferocity. Undoubtedly these inhuman soldiers frequently shed blood without even an apparent motive; and certainly their fanatic missionaries did not oppose these barbarities as they ought to have done. This was not, however, the real cause, the principal source of the depopulation of Mexico; it was the work of a slow tyranny, and of that avarice which exacted from its wretched inhabitants more rigorous toil than was compatible with their constitution and the climate.

This oppression was coeval with the conquest of the country. All the lands were divided between the crown, the companions of Cortes, and the grandees or ministers who were most in favour at the court of Spain. The Mexicans, appointed to the royal domains, were destined to public labours, which originally were considerable. The lot of those who were employed on the estates of individuals was still more wretched; all groaned under a dreadful yoke; they were ill fed, they had no wages given them, and services were required

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of them, under which the most robust men would have sunk: their misfortunes excited the compassion of Bartholomew de las Casas.

This man, so famous in the annals of the new world, had accompanied his father in the first voyage made by Columbus. The mildness and simplicity of the Indians affected him so strongly, that he made himself an ecclesiastic, in order to devote his labours to their conversion; but this soon became the least of his attention. As he was more a man than a priest, he felt more for the cruelties exercised against them than for their superstitions. He was continually hurrying from one hemisphere to the other, in order to comfort the people for whom he had conceived an attachment, or to soften their tyrants. This conduct, which made him idolized by the one, and dreaded by the other, had not the success he expected. The hope of striking awe, by a character revered among the Spaniards, determined him to accept the bishopric of Chiapa in Mexico. When he was convinced that this dignity was an insufficient barrier against that avarice and cruelty which he endeavoured to check, he abdicated it. It was then that this courageous, firm, disinterested man, accused his country before the tribunal of the whole universe. In his account of the tyranny of the Spaniards in America, he accuses them of having destroyed fifteen millions of the Indians. They ventured to find fault with the acrimony of his stile, but no one convicted him of exaggeration. His writings, which indicate the amiable turn of his disposition, and the sublimity of his sentiments, have stamped a disgrace upon his barbarous countrymen, which time hath not, nor never will efface.

The court of Madrid, awakened by the representations of the virtuous Las Casas, and by the indignation of the whole world, became sensible at last, that the tyranny it permitted was repugnant to religion, to humanity, and to policy, and resolved to break the chains of the Mexicans. Their liberty was now only constrained by the sole condition, that they should not quit the territory where they were settled. This precaution owed its origin to the fear that was entertained of their going to join the wandering savages to the north and south of the empire.

With their liberty their lands ought also to have been restored to them, but this was not done. This injustice compelled them to work solely for their oppressors. It was only decreed, that the Spaniards, in whose service they laboured, should stipulate to keep them well, and pay them to the amount of five pounds five shillings a year.

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From these profits the tribute imposed by government was subtracted, together with four shillings and four-pence half-penny for an institution, which is astonishing the conquerors should have thought of establishing. This was a fund set apart in each community, and appropriated to the relief of such Indians as were decayed or indisposed, and to their support under private or public calamities.

The distribution of this fund was committed to their caciques. These were not the descendants of those whom they found in the country at the time of the conquest. The Spaniards chose them from among those Indians who appeared the most attached to their interests, and were under no apprehension at making these dignities hereditary. Their authority was limited to the supporting the police in their district, which in general extended eight or ten leagues, to the collecting the tribute of those Indians who laboured on their own account, that of the others being stopped by the masters whom they served, and to the preventing their flight by keeping them always under their inspection, and not suffering them to contract any engagement without their consent. As a reward of their services, these magistrates obtained from government a property. They were permitted to take out of the common stock two-pence half-penny annually, for every Indian under their jurisdiction. At last they were empowered to get their fields cultivated by such young men as were not yet subject to the poll tax; and to employ girls till the time of their marriage, in such occupations as were adapted to their sex, without allowing them any salary except their maintenance.

These institutions, which totally changed the condition of the Indians in Mexico, irritated the Spaniards to a degree not to be conceived. Their pride would not suffer them to consider the Americans as free men, nor would their avarice permit them to pay for labour which hitherto had cost them nothing. They employed themselves successively, or in combination, craft, remonstrances, and violence, to effect the subversion of an arrangement which so strongly contradicted their warmest passions; but their efforts were ineffectual. Las Casas had raised up for his beloved Indians protectors who seconded his design with zeal and warmth. The Mexicans themselves finding a support, impeached their oppressors before the tribunals, and even the tribunals that were either weak or in the interest of the court. They carried their resolution so far, as even unanimously

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to refuse to work for those who had treated any of their countrymen with injustice. This mutual agreement, more than any other circumstance, gave solidity to the regulations which had been decreed: the other, prescribed by the laws, was gradually established. There was no longer any regular system of oppression, but merely several of those particular vexations which a vanquished people, who have lost their government, can hardly avoid from those who have subdued it.

These clandestine acts of injustice did not prevent the Mexicans from recovering, from time to time, certain detached portions of that immense territory of which their fathers had been despoiled. They purchased them of the royal domain, or of the great proprietors. It was not their labour which enabled them to make these acquisitions; for this they were indebted to the happiness of having discovered, some of them, mines, others, treasures, which had been concealed at the time of the conquest. The greatest number derived their resources from the priests and monks, to whom they owed their existence.

Even those who experienced a fortune less propitious, procured for themselves, by the sole profits of their pay, more convenience than they had enjoyed before they underwent a foreign yoke. We should be very much deceived if we should judge of the ancient prosperity of the inhabitants of Mexico by what has been said by different writers of its emperor, its court, its capital, and the governors of its provinces. Despotism had there produced those fatal effects which it produces every where. The whole state was sacrificed to the caprices, pleasures, and magnificence, of a small number of persons.

The government drew considerable advantages from the mines which it caused to be worked, and still greater from those which were in the hands of individuals. The salt works greatly added to its revenue. Those who followed agriculture, at the time of harvest paid a kind of a third of all the produce of the lands, whether they belonged to them as their own property, or whether they were only the farmers of them. Men who lived by the chase, fishermen, potters, and all mechanics, paid the same proportion of their industry every month. Even the poor were taxed at certain fixed contributions, which their labour or their alms might put them in a condition to pay.

The Mexicans are now less unhappy; European fruits, corn and cattle, have rendered their food more wholesome, agreeable, and abundant,

abundant. Their houses are better built, better disposed, and better furnished. Shoes, drawers, shirts, a garment of wool or cotton, a ruff, and a hat, constitute their dress. The dignity which it has been agreed to annex to these enjoyments, has made them better economists, and more laborious. This case, however, is far from being universal; it is even very uncommon in the vicinity of the mines, towns, and great roads, where tyranny seldom sleeps: but we often find it with satisfaction in remote parts, where the Spaniards are not numerous, and where they have in some measure become Mexicans.

The employments of this people are very various; the most intelligent, and those who are in easy circumstances, devote themselves to the most necessary and most useful manufactures, which are dispersed through the whole empire. The most beautiful manufactures are established among the people of Tlascal; their old capital, and the new one, which is called Angelos, are the center of this industry; here they manufacture cloth that is pretty fine, calicoes that have an agreeable appearance, certain slight silks, good hats, gold lace, embroidery, lace, glasses, and a great deal of hardware.

The care of flocks affords a maintenance to some Mexicans, whom fortune or nature have not called to more distinguished employments. America, at the time it was discovered, had neither hogs, sheep, oxen, horses, nor even any domestic animal. Columbus carried some of these useful animals to St. Domingo, from whence they were generally dispersed, and at Mexico more than any other place: these have multiplied prodigiously. They count their horned cattle by thousands, whose skins are become an object of considerable exportation. The horses are degenerated, but the quality is compensated by the number. Hog's lard is here substituted for butter. Sheep's wool is dry, coarse, and bad, as it is every where between the tropics.

The vine and olive tree have experienced the same degeneracy; the cultivation of them was at first prohibited, with a view of leaving a free market for the commodities of the mother country. In 1706, permission was given to the Jesuits, and a little afterwards to the Marquis Del Valle, a descendant from Cortes, to cultivate them: the attempts have not proved successful. The trials, indeed, that have been made, have not been abandoned, but no person has solicited the liberty of following an example which did not promise

any great emoluments. Other cultures have been more successful; cotton, sugar, silk, cocoa, tobacco, and European corn, have all thriven in some degree. The Spaniards are encouraged to prosecute the labours which these cultures require, from the happy circumstance of their having discovered iron mines, which were entirely unknown to the Mexicans, as well as some mines of a kind of copper that is hard enough to serve for implements of husbandry; all these articles, however, for want of men and industry, are merely consumed within the country. There is only the vanilla, indigo, and cochineal, which make a part of the trade of Mexico with other nations.

NEW-MEXICO.

New-Mexico is so called, because of its being discovered later than Old-Mexico; is bounded on the north by high mountains, beyond which is a country altogether unknown; by Louisiana on the east; by New-Spain on the south; and on the west by the gulph of California, and the Rio Colorado; extending, it is said, above one hundred miles from east to west, and about nine hundred from south to north; but the twentieth part of the country within these limits is neither cultivated nor inhabited, either by Spaniards or Indians. As it lies in the midst of the temperate zone, the climate, in general, is very pleasant; the summers, though very warm, are neither sultry nor unwholesome; and the winters, though pretty sharp, are far from being insupportable, and, for the most part, clear and healthy.

The greatest encomiums are lavished on the fertility of the soil, the richness of the mines, and the variety of valuable commodities produced in this country. It is said to be beautifully diversified with fields, meadows, rising grounds, and rivers; abounding with fruit and timber trees, turquoises, emeralds, and other precious stones, mines of gold and silver, a great variety of wild and tame cattle, fish and fowls. Upon the whole, we may safely affirm, that New-Mexico is among the pleasanter, richest, and most plentiful countries in America, or any other part of the world. There are few great or navigable rivers in it: the most considerable are, the Rio Solado, and Rio del Norte, which, with several smaller streams, fall into the gulph of Mexico. On the coast of the gulph are divers bays, ports, and creeks, which might be easily converted into excellent harbours, if the Spaniards were possessed of any portion of that commercial spirit which animates the other maritime nations of Europe.

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The Spanish writers tell us, that New-Mexico is inhabited by a great variety of Indian nations or tribes, totally unconnected with each other; but the principal are the Apaches, a brave, warlike, resolute people, fond of liberty, and the inveterate enemies of tyranny and oppression. About the close of the last century, thinking themselves aggrieved by the Spanish government, they made a general insurrection, and did a great deal of mischief, but were at last obliged to submit, and have since been curbed by stronger garrisons. Most of the natives are now Christians. When the Spaniards first entered this country, they found the natives well clothed, their lands cultivated, their villages neat, and their houses built with stone. Their flocks also were numerous, and they lived more comfortably than most of the other savages of America. As to religion, they were idolaters, and worshipped the sun and moon; but whether they offered human sacrifices, we are not sufficiently informed.

As to the number of the provinces of this country, we can advance nothing certain; some writers making them only five, others ten, fifteen, twenty, and twenty-five, but adding no description, either of them, or the towns contained in them, excepting the capital, Santa Fé, which we are told stands near the source of the Rio del Norte, in 36° north latitude, and about one hundred and thirty leagues from the gulph; that it is a well-built, handsome, rich town, and the seat of the bishop, suffragan of Mexico, as well as the governor of the province, who is subordinate to the viceroy of Mexico, or New-Spain.

CALIFORNIA.

California is the most northerly of all the Spanish dominions on the continent of America, is sometimes distinguished by the name of New-Albion, and the *Islas Carabiras*; but the most ancient appellation is California, a word probably owing to some accident, or to some words spoken by the Indians and misunderstood by the Spaniards. For a long time California was thought to be an island, but Father Caino, a German Jesuit, discovered it to be a peninsula joining to the coast of New-Mexico, and the southern parts of America. This peninsula extends from Cape St. Sebastian, lying in north latitude 43° 30', to Cape St. Lucar, which lies in north latitude 22° 32'. It is divided from New-Mexico by the gulph, or, as some call it, the lake of California, or Vermillion sea, on the east; on the north, by that part of the continent of North-America which is least known; and on the west and south, by the Pacific ocean or great South sea. The

coasts, especially towards the Vermillion sea, are covered with inhabited islands, on some of which the Jesuits have established settlements, such as St. Clement, Paxaros, St. Anne, Cedars, so called from the great number of these trees it produces, St. Joseph, and a multitude of others. But the islands best known, are three lying off cape St. Lucar, towards the Mexican coast. These are called Les Tres Marias, "the three Marias." They are but small, have good wood and water, salt pits, and abundance of game; therefore the English and French pirates have sometimes wintered there, when bound on cruizes in the South Seas.

As California lies altogether within the temperate zone, the natives are neither chilled with cold, nor scorched with heat; and, indeed, the improvements in agriculture made by the Jesuits, afford strong proofs of the excellency of the climate. In some places the air is extremely hot and dry, and the earth wild, rugged, and barren. In a country stretching about eight hundred miles in length, there must be a considerable variation of soil and climate; and, indeed, we find, from good authority, that California produces some of the most beautiful lawns, as well as many of the most inhospitable deserts in the universe. Upon the whole, although California is rather rough and craggy, we are assured by the Jesuit Vinegas, and other good writers, that with due culture, it furnishes every necessary and conveniency of life; and that even where the atmosphere is hottest, vapours rising from the sea, and dispersed by pleasant breezes, render it of a moderate temperature.

The peninsula of California is now stocked with all sorts of domestic animals known in Spain and Mexico. Horses, mules, asses, oxen, sheep, hogs, goats, and all other quadrupeds imported, thrive and increase in this country. Among the native animals is a species of deer, of the size of a young heifer, and greatly resembling it in shape; the head is like that of a deer, and the horns thick and crooked like those of a ram. The hoof of the animal is large, round, and cloven, the skin spotted, but the hair thinner, and the tail sharper than those of a deer. Its flesh is greatly esteemed. There is another animal peculiar to this country, larger and more bulky than a sheep, but greatly resembling it in figure, and, like it, covered with a fine black or white wool. The flesh of this animal is nourishing and delicious, and, happily for the natives, is so abundant, that nothing more is required than the trouble of hunting, as these animals wander about in droves in the forests and on the mountains. Father Torquemado

describes

describes a creature which he calls a species of large bear, something like a buffalo, of the size of a steer, and nearly of the figure of a stag; its hair is a quarter of a yard in length, its neck long and aukward, and on its forehead are horns branched like those of a stag. The tail is a yard in length, and half a yard in breadth, and the hoofs cloven like those of an ox. With regard to birds, we have but an imperfect account; only, in general, Father Venegas tells us, that the coast is plentifully stored with peacocks, bustards, geese, cranes, and most of the birds common in other parts of the world. The quantity of fish which resort to these coasts are incredible. Salmon, turbot, barbel, skate, mackerel, &c. are caught here with very little trouble; together with pearl oysters, common oysters, lobsters, and a variety of exquisite shell fish. Plenty of turtle are also caught on the coasts. On the South sea coasts are some shell fish peculiar to it, and perhaps the most beautiful in the world; their lustre surpassing that of the finest pearl, and darting their rays through a transparent varnish of an elegant vivid blue, like the lapis lazuli. The fame of California for pearls soon drew forth great numbers of adventurers, who searched every part of the gulph, and are still employed in that work, notwithstanding fashion has greatly diminished the value of this elegant natural production. Father Torquemado observes, that the sea of California affords very rich pearl fisheries, and that the hostias, or beds of oysters, may be seen in three or four fathoms water, almost as plain as if they were on the surface.

The extremity of the peninsula towards cape St. Lucar is more level, temperate, and fertile than the other parts, and consequently more woody. In the more distant parts, even to the farthest missions on the east coast, no large timber hath yet been discovered. A species of manna is found in this country, which, according to the accounts of the Jesuits, has all the sweetness of refined sugar without its whiteness. The natives firmly believe that the juice drops from heaven.

The Californians are well made, and very strong; they are extremely pusillanimous, inconstant, stupid, and even insensible, and seem deserving of the character given to the Indians in general. Before the Europeans penetrated into California, the natives had no form of religion. The missionaries, indeed, tell us many tales concerning them, but they so evidently bear the marks of forgery, as not to be worth repeating. Each nation was then an assemblage of several cottages more or less numerous, that were all mutually consecrated

derated by alliances, but without any chief. They were strangers even to filial obedience. No kind of dress was used by the men, but the women made use of some covering, and were even fond of ornamenting themselves with pearls and such other trinkets as the country afforded. What mostly displayed their ingenuity was the construction of their fishing nets, which are said by the Jesuits to have even exceeded in goodness those made in Europe; they were made by the women, of a coarse kind of flax procured from some plants which grow there. Their houses were built of branches and leaves of trees; nay, many of them were only inclosures of earth and stone, raised half a yard high, without any covering, and even these were so small, that they could not stretch themselves at length in them. In winter they dwelt under ground, in caves either natural or artificial.

In 1526, Ferdinand Cortes having reduced and settled Mexico, attempted the conquest of California, but was obliged to return, without even taking a survey of the country, a report of his death having disposed the Mexicans to general insurrection. Some other attempts were made by the officers of Cortes, but these were also unsuccessful, and this valuable coast was long neglected by the Spaniards, who, to this day, have but one settlement upon it. In 1595, a galleon was sent to make discoveries on the Californian shore, but the vessel was unfortunately lost. Seven years after, the Count de Monteroy, then viceroy of New-Spain, sent Sebastian Biscayno on the same design with two ships and a tender, but he made no discovery of importance. In 1684, the Marquis de Laguna, also viceroy of New-Spain, dispatched two ships with a tender to make discoveries on the lake of California; he returned with an indifferent account, but was among the first that asserted that California was not an island, which was afterwards confirmed by Father Caino, as already related. In 1697, the Spaniards being discouraged by their losses and disappointments, the Jesuits solicited and obtained permission to undertake the conquest of California. They arrived among the savages with curiosities that might amuse them, corn for their food, and clothes for which they could not but perceive the necessity. The hatred these people bore the Spanish name, could not support itself against these demonstrations of benevolence. They testified their acknowledgments as much as their want of sensibility and their inconstancy would permit them. These faults were partly overcome by the religious institutors, who pursued their project with a degree of warmth and resolution peculiar to the society. They made them-

selves carpenters, masons, weavers, and husbandmen; and by these means succeeded in imparting knowledge, and in some measure a taste for the useful arts, to this savage people, who have been all successively formed into one body. In 1745, they composed forty-three villages, separated from each other by the barrenness of the soil and the want of water. The inhabitants of these small villages subsist principally on corn and pulse, which they cultivate, and on the fruits and domestic animals of Europe, the breeding of which last is an object of continual attention. The Indians have each their field, and the property of what they reap; but such is their want of foresight, that they would squander in a day what they had gathered, if the missionary did not take upon himself to distribute it to them as they stood in need of it. They manufacture some coarse stuffs, and the necessaries they are in want of are purchased with pearls, and with wine nearly resembling that of Madeira, which they sell to the Mexicans and to the galleons, and which experience hath shown the necessity of prohibiting in California. A few laws, which are very simple, are sufficient to regulate this rising state. In order to enforce them, the missionary chooses the most intelligent person of the village, who is empowered to whip and imprison, the only punishments of which they have any knowledge. In all California, there are only two garrisons, each consisting of thirty men, and a soldier with every missionary; these troops were chosen by the legislators, though they are paid by the government. Were the court of Madrid to push their interest with half the zeal of the Jesuits, California might become one of the most valuable of their acquisitions, on account of the pearls and other valuable articles of commerce which the country contains. At present, the little Spanish town near cape St. Lucar is made use of for no other purpose than as a place of refreshment for the Manilla ships, and the head residence of the missionaries.

GOVERNMENT, COMMERCE, &c.

The civil government of all this vast country, included in the general name of Mexico, is administered by tribunals, called audiences, three of which are held in Old, and two in New-Mexico. In these courts the viceroy of the King of Spain presides; his employment is the greatest trust and power his Catholic Majesty has at his disposal, and is perhaps the richest government intrusted to any subject in the world. The viceroy continues in office three years.

The

The clergy are exceedingly numerous in Mexico; the priests, monks, and nuns, of all orders, make a fifth part of the white inhabitants, both here and in other parts of Spanish America.

The city of Mexico is the oldest in America, of which we have any account. The Abbé Clavigero, who is our authority for the preceding account of this country, dates its foundation as far back as 1325. It is situated in the charming vale of Mexico, on several small islands, in lake Tetzcuco, in north latitude $19^{\circ} 26'$, and $276^{\circ} 34'$ west longitude from Perro. This vale is surrounded with lofty and verdant mountains, and formerly contained no less than forty eminent cities, besides villages and hamlets. The city is subject to frequent inundations, as is easily accounted for from its local situation, the lake in which it stands being the reservoir of the waters flowing from the neighbouring mountains.

Concerning the ancient population of this city there are various opinions. The historians most to be relied on say, that it was nearly nine miles in circumference, and contained upwards of sixty thousand houses, containing each from four to ten inhabitants. Some historians reckon one hundred and twenty thousand, and some one hundred and thirty thousand houses. By a late accurate enumeration, made by the magistrates and priests, it appears that the present number of inhabitants exceeds two hundred thousand. We may form some idea of its populousness from the quantity of pulque * and tobacco which are daily consumed in it, ascertained from the custom-house books, February 23, 1775. Every day upwards of one hundred and ninety thousand pounds of pulque are carried into the city, which are almost solely consumed by the Indians and Mulattoes, who drink this beverage. The tax upon it amounts annually to about two hundred and eighty thousand crowns. The daily consumption of tobacco is reckoned at one thousand two hundred and fifty crowns.

The greatest curiosity in the city of Mexico is their floating gardens. When the Mexicans, about the year 1325, were subdued by the Colhuan and Tepanecan nations, and confined to the small islands in the lake, having no land to cultivate, they were taught by necessity to form moveable gardens, which floated on the lake. Their

* Pulque is the usual wine or beer of the Mexicans, made of the fermented juice of the maguei. This liquor will not keep but one day, and therefore what is made is daily consumed.

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construction is very simple. They take willows and the roots of marsh plants, and other materials which are light, and twist them together, and so firmly unite them as to form a sort of platform, which is capable of supporting the earth of the garden. Upon this foundation they lay the light bushes which float on the lake, and overspread the mud and dirt which they draw up from the bottom of the lake. Their regular figure is quadrangular; their length and breadth various, but generally about eight rods long and three wide; and their elevation from the surface of the water is less than a foot. These were the first fields that the Mexicans owned after the foundation of Mexico; there they first cultivated the maize, great pepper, and other plants necessary for their support. From the industry of the people these fields soon became numerous. At present they cultivate flowers and every sort of garden herbs upon them. Every day of the year, at sun-rise, innumerable vessels or boats, loaded with various kinds of flowers and herbs which are cultivated in these gardens, are seen arriving by the canal at the great market place of Mexico. All plants thrive in them surprisingly; the mud of the lake makes a very rich soil, which requires no water from the clouds. In the largest gardens there is commonly a little tree, and a little hut to shelter the cultivator, and defend him from the rain or the sun. When the owner of a garden, or the Chinampa, as he is called, wishes to change his situation, to get out of a bad neighbourhood, or to come nearer to his family, he gets into his little boat, and by his own strength alone, if the garden is small, or with the assistance of others, if it is large, conducts it wherever he pleases, with the little tree and hut upon it. That part of the island where these floating gardens are, is a place of delightful recreation, where the senses receive the highest possible gratification.

The buildings, which are of stone, are convenient, and the public edifices, especially the churches, are magnificent, and the city has the appearance of immense wealth.

The trade of Mexico consists of three great branches, which extend over the whole world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by La Vera Cruz, situated on the gulph of Mexico, on the North sea; with the East-Indies, by Acapulco on the south seas, two hundred and ten miles south-west, of Mexico; and with South-America, by the same port. These two sea ports, Vera Cruz and Acapulco, are admirably well situated for the commercial purposes to which they were 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 her. 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 arrives about the beginning of November. Its cargo consists of almost every commodity and manufacture of Europe; and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who send out little except wine and oil. The profit of these, with the freight and commission to the merchants, and duty to the king, is all the advantage which Spain derives from the 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, which make the only communication between the Philippines and Mexico, annually arrive here. The cargoes of these ships (for the convoy, though in a clandestine 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 computed to bring not 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 galleons 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 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 indolence which ruined their Euro-

pean 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 center of commerce in this part of the world; for here the principal merchants reside, and the greatest part of the business is negociated. The East-India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, also 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 those utensils and ornaments in plate, which are every year sent into Europe.

The empire of Mexico was finally subdued by Cortes, in the year 1521. Montezuma was at that time emperor of Mexico. In the course of the war, he was treacherously taken by Cortes, and held as a prisoner. During the imprisonment of Montezuma, Cortes and his army had made repeated attacks on his subjects, but without success. Cortes was now determined, as his last resource, to try what effect the interposition of Montezuma might have to soothe or overawe his subjects. This unfortunate prince, at the mercy of the treacherous Spaniards, and reduced to the sad necessity of becoming the instrument of his own disgrace, and of the slavery of his subjects, advanced to the battlements in his royal robes, in all the pomp in which he used to appear on solemn occasions. At sight of their sovereign, whom they had long been accustomed to honour, and almost to revere as a god, the weapons dropped from their hands, every tongue was silent, all bowed their heads, and many prostrated themselves on the ground. Montezuma addressed them with every argument that could mitigate their rage, or persuade them from hostilities. When he ended his discourse, a fullen murmur of disapprobation ran through the crowd; to this succeeded reproaches and threats; and their fury rising in a moment, they violently poured in whole flights of arrows and volleys of stones upon their unhappy monarch, two of the arrows struck him in his body, which, with the blow of a stone on his temple, put an end to his life. Guatimozin succeeded Montezuma, and maintained a vigorous opposition against the assaults of Cortes; but he, like his predecessor, after a noble defence, was forced to submit, and his capital was wrested from him by Cortes and his followers.

The exultation of the Spaniards, on accomplishing this arduous enterprise, was at first excessive. But this was quickly damped by the

cruel disappointment of those sanguine hopes which had animated them amidst so many hardships and dangers. Instead of the inexhaustible wealth which they expected from becoming masters of Montezuma's treasures, and the ornaments of so many temples, their rapaciousness could collect only an inconsiderable booty amidst ruins and desolation.* Guatimozin, aware of his impending fate, had ordered what remained of the riches amassed by his ancestors to be thrown into the lake. The Indian auxiliaries, while the Spaniards were engaged in conflict with the enemy, had carried off the most valuable part of the spoil. The sum to be divided among the conquerors was so small, that many of them disdain'd to accept of the pittance which fell to their share, and all murmured and exclaimed; some against Cortes and his confidants, whom they suspected of having secretly appropriated to their own use a large portion of the riches which should have been brought into the common stock; others against Guatimozin, whom they accused of obstinacy, in refusing to discover the place where he had hidden his treasure.

Arguments, intreaties, and promises, were employed in order to soothe them, but with so little effect, that Cortes, from solicitude to check this growing spirit of discontent, gave way to a deed which stained the glory of all his great actions. Without regarding the former dignity of Guatimozin, or feeling any reverence for those virtues which he had displayed, he subjected the unhappy monarch, together with his chief favourite, to torture, in order to force from them a discovery of the royal treasures, which it was supposed they had concealed. Guatimozin bore whatever the refined cruelty of his tormentors could inflict, with the invincible fortitude of an American warrior. His fellow-sufferer, overcome by the violence of the anguish, turned a dejected eye towards his master, which seemed to implore his permission to reveal all he knew. But the high-spirited prince, darting on him a look of authority mingled with scorn, checked his weakness, by asking, "Am I now reposing on a bed of flowers?" Overawed by the reproach, he persevered in his dutiful silence, and expired. Cortes, ashamed of a scene so horrid, rescued the royal victim from the hands of his torturers, and prolonged a life reserved for new indignities and sufferings.

* The gold and silver, according to Cortes, amounted only to one hundred and twenty thousand pesos, a sum far inferior to that which the Spaniards had formerly divided in Mexico.

The fate of the capital, as both parties had foreseen, decided that of the empire. The provinces submitted one after another to the conquerors. Small detachments of Spaniards marching through them without interruption, penetrated, in different quarters, to the great Southern ocean, which, according to the ideas of Columbus, they imagined would open a short, as well as an easy passage to the East-Indies, and secure to the crown of Castile all the envied wealth of those fertile regions; and the active mind of Cortes began already to form schemes for attempting this important discovery. In his after schemes, however, he was disappointed, but Mexico hath ever since remained in the hands of the Spaniards.

VIEW OF
SOUTH-AMERICA.

WE now enter upon the description of that part of the globe, where the human mind will be successively surpris'd with the sublime and astonishing works of Nature; where rivers of amazing breadth flow through beautiful and widely-extended plains, and where lofty mountains, whose summits are covered with eternal snow, intercept the course of the clouds, and hide their heads from the view of mortals. In some parts of this extensive region, nature hath bountifully bestowed her treasures, and given every thing necessary for the convenience and happiness of man. We have only to regret, that a set of avaricious men have successively drenched with innocent blood these plains, which are so beautifully formed and enriched by the hand of Nature; and that the rod of SPANISH DESPOTISM has prevented the population of a country which might have supported millions of beings in affluence.

DIVISIONS.

South-America, like Africa, is an extensive peninsula, connected with North-America by the isthmus of Darien, and divided between SPAIN, PORTUGAL, FRANCE, HOLLAND, and the ABORIGINES, as follows:

SPANISH DOMINIONS,	}	Terrâ Firma,
		Peru,
		Chili,
		Paraguay.
PORTUGUESE,		Brazil,
FRENCH,		Cayenne,
DUTCH,		Surinam,
ABORIGINES,	}	Amazonia,
		Patagonia.

Of these countries we shall treat in their order.

SPANISH

SPANISH DOMINIONS

IN

SOUTH-AMERICA.

TERRA FIRMA, *or* CASTILE DEL ORO.

TERRA FIRMA is situated between 60° and 82° west longitude, and the equator and 12° degrees north latitude; its length is one thousand four hundred miles, and its breadth seven hundred: it is bounded on the north by the Atlantic ocean, (called there the North sea;) on the east by the Atlantic ocean and Surinam; on the south by Amazonia and Peru; and on the west by the Pacific ocean. It is divided into two grand divisions, NORTH and SOUTH; these are again subdivided into provinces.

The northern division containing, 1. DARIEN, *or* TERRA FIRMA PROPER: 2. CARTHAGENA: 3. St. MARTHA: 4. VENEZEULA: 5. COMANA: 6. PARRIA, *or* NEW-ANDALUSIA.

The southern division containing, 1. NEW-GRANADA: 2. PO-PAYAN.

DARIEN, *or* TERRA FIRMA PROPER.

Darien is the narrow isthmus, or neck of land, that, properly speaking, joins North and South-America together, but is generally reckoned as part of the latter. It is bounded on the north by the North sea, on the south by the South sea, on the east by the gulph or river of Darien, and on the west by another part of the South sea and the province of Veragua. It lies in the form of a bow, or crescent, about the great bay of Panama in the South sea, and is three hundred miles in length and sixty in breadth. This province is not the richest, but is of the greatest importance to Spain, and has been the scene of more actions than any other in America. The wealth of Peru is brought hither, and from hence exported to Europe. This has induced many enterprising people to make attempts on Panama, Porto-Bello, and other towns of this province, in hopes of obtaining a rich booty.

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The Scotch got possession of part of this province in 1699, and attempted to form an establishment, which would have proved one of the most useful and important that ever was projected. Of the rise, progress and catastrophe; of this well-imagined, but ill-fated, undertaking, Sir John Dalrymple, in the second volume of his Memoirs of Great-Britain and Ireland, has given a very interesting account, authenticated in every particular by unquestionable documents. The projector and leader of the Darien expedition was a clergyman of the name of Paterson; who having a violent propensity to see foreign countries, he made his profession the instrument of indulging it, by going to the new western world, under pretence of converting the Indians to the religion of the old. In his courses there, he became acquainted with Capt. Dampier and Mr. Wafer, who afterwards published, the one his Voyages and the other his Travels, in the region where the separation is narrowest between the Atlantic and the South seas; and both of whom, particularly the first, appear by their books to have been men of considerable observation. But he got much more knowledge from men who could neither write nor read, by cultivating the acquaintance of some of the old Buccaneers, who, after surviving their glories and their crimes, still, in the extremity of age and misfortune, recounted with transport the ease with which they had passed and repassed from the one sea to the other, sometimes in hundreds together, and driving strings of mules before them loaded with the plunder of friends and of foes. Paterson, having examined the places, satisfied himself, that on the isthmus of Darien there was a tract of country running across from the Atlantic to the South sea, which the Spaniards had never possessed, and inhabited by a people continually at war with them; that along the coast, on the Atlantic side, there lay a string of islands called the Sambaloes, uninhabited, and full of natural strength and forests, from which last circumstance one of them was called the *island of the Pines*; that the seas there were filled with turtle, and the manatee or sea-cow; that mid-way between Porto Bello and Carthageua, but near fifty leagues distant from either, at a place called Acta, in the mouth of the river of Darien, there was a natural harbour, capable of receiving the greatest fleets, and defended from storms by other islands which covered the mouth of it, and from enemies by a promontory which commanded the passage, and hidden rocks in the passage itself; that on the other side of the isthmus, and in the same tract of country, there were natural harbours, equally capacious
and

and well defended; that the two seas were connected by a ridge of hills, which, by their height, created a temperate climate in the midst of the most sultry latitudes, and were sheltered by forests, not yet rendered damp by them, because the trees grew at a distance from each other, having very little underwood; that, contrary to the barren nature of hilly countries, the soil was of a black mould two or three feet deep, and producing spontaneously the fine tropical fruits and plants, and roots and herbs; that roads could be made with ease along the ridge, by which mules, and even carriages, might pass from the one sea to the other in the space of a day; and consequently this passage seemed to be pointed out by the finger of Nature, as a common center, to connect together the trade and intercourse of the universe.

Paterfon knew that ships which stretch in a straight line from one point to another, and with one wind, run less risks, and require fewer hands, than ships which pass through many latitudes, turn with many coasts, and require many winds; in evidence of which, vessels of seven or eight hundred tons burthen are often to be found in the South seas, navigated by no more than eight or ten hands, because these hands have little else to do than set their sails when they begin their voyage, and to take them in when they end it; that as soon as ships from Britain got so far south as to reach the trade wind, which never varies, that wind would carry them to Darien, and the same wind would carry ships from the bay of Panama, on the opposite side of the isthmus, to the East-Indies; that as soon as ships coming from the East-Indies to the bay of Panama got so far north as the latitude of forty degrees, to reach the westerly winds, which, about that latitude, blow almost as regularly from the west as the trade winds do from the east, these winds would carry them, in the track of the Spanish Acapulco ships, to the coast of Mexico; from whence the land-wind, which blows for ever from the north to the south, would carry them along the coast of Mexico into the bay of Panama. So that in going from Britain, ships would encounter no uncertain winds, except during their passage south into the latitude of the trade wind: in coming from India to the bay of Panama, no uncertain winds, except in their passage north to the latitude of the westerly winds; and in going from the other side of the isthmus to the east, no uncertain wind whatsoever.—Gold was seen by Paterfon in some places of the isthmus, and hence an island on the Atlantic side was called the Golden island, and a river on the side

to the South sea was called the Golden river ; but these were objects which he regarded not at that time, because far greater were in his eye : the removing of distances, the drawing nations nearer to each other, the preservation of the valuable lives of seamen, and the saving in freight, so important to merchants, and in time so important to them, and to an animal whose life is of so short duration as that of man.

By this obscure Scotchman, a project was formed to settle, on this neglected spot, a great and powerful colony ; not as other colonies have for the most part been settled, by chance, and unprotected by the country from whence they went ; but by system, upon foresight, and to receive the ample protection of those governments to whom he was to offer his project : and certainly no greater idea has been formed since the time of Columbus.

Paterfon's original intention was to offer his project to England, as the country which had most interest in it, not only from the benefit common to all nations, of shortening the length of voyages to the East-Indies, but by the effect which it would have had to connect the interests of her European, West-Indian, American, African and East-Indian trade. But Paterfon having few acquaintance, and no protection in London, thought of drawing the public eye upon him, and ingratiating himself with moneyed men and with great men, by assisting them to model a project, which was at that time in embryo, for erecting the Bank of England. But that happened to him which has happened to many in his situation ; the persons to whom he applied made use of his ideas, took the honour of them to themselves, were civil to him for a while, and neglected him afterwards. He therefore communicated his project of a colony only to a few persons in London, and these few discouraged him.

He next made offer of his project to the Dutch, the Hamburgers, and the elector of Brandenburg ; because, by means of the passage of the Rhine and Elbe through their states, he thought, that the great additional quantities of East-Indian and American goods, which his colony would bring into Europe, would be distributed through Germany. The Dutch and Hamburg merchants, who had most interest in the subject of his visit, heard him with indifference : the elector, who had very little interest in it, received him with honour and kindness. But court arts and false reports lost him even that prince's favour.

Paterfon,

Paterfon, on his return to London, formed a friendship with Mr. Fletcher of Salton, whose mind was inflamed with the love of public good, and all of whose ideas to procure it had a sublimity in them. Fletcher brought Paterfon down to Scotland with him, presented him to the Marquis of Tweedale, then minister for Scotland; and then, with that power which a vehement spirit always possesses over a diffident one, persuaded the Marquis by arguments of public good, and the honour which would redound to his administration, to adopt the project. Lord Stair and Mr. Johnston, the two secretaries of state, patronised those abilities in Paterfon which they possessed in themselves; and the lord advocate, Sir James Stuart, the same man who had adjusted the Prince of Orange's declaration at the revolution, whose son was married to a niece of Lord Stair, went naturally along with his connections. These persons, in June 1695, procured a statute from parliament, and afterwards a charter from the crown in terms of it, for creating a trading company to Africa and the new world, with power to plant colonies and build forts, with consent of the inhabitants, in places not possessed by other European nations.

Paterfon, now finding the ground firm under him, and that he was supported by almost all the power and talents of his country, the character of Fletcher, and the sanction of an act of parliament and royal charter, threw his project boldly upon the public, and opened a subscription for a company. The frenzy of the Scotch nation to sign the solemn league and covenant, never exceeded the rapidity with which they ran to subscribe to the Darien company. The nobility, the gentry, the merchants, the people, the royal burghs without the exception of one, and most of the other public bodies, subscribed. Young women threw their little fortunes into the stock; widows sold their jointures to get the command of money for the same purpose. Almost in an instant four hundred thousand pounds were subscribed in Scotland, although it be now known, that there was not at that time above eight hundred thousand pounds of cash in the kingdom. The famous Mr. Law, then a youth, afterwards confessed, that the facility with which he saw the passion of speculation communicate itself from all to all, satisfied him of the possibility of producing the same effect from the same cause, but upon a larger scale, when the Duke of Orleans, in the year of the Mississippi, engaged him against his will to turn his bank into a bubble. Paterfon's project, which had been received by strangers with fears when opened

to them in private, filled them with hopes when it came to them upon the wings of public fame: for Col. Erskine, son to Lord Cardross, and Mr. Haldane, of Gleneagles, the one a generous branch of a generous stem, and the other a country gentleman of fortune and character, having been deputed to receive subscriptions in England and on the continent, the English subscribed three hundred thousand pounds, and the Dutch and Hamburgers two hundred thousand pounds more.

In the mean time the jealousy of trade, which has done more mischief to the trade of England than all other causes put together, created an alarm in England; and the Houses of Lords and Commons, without previous inquiry and reflection, on the 13th of December, 1695, concurred in a joint address to the king against the establishment of the Darien company, as detrimental to the interest of the East-India company. Soon after, the Commons impeached some of their own countrymen for being instrumental in erecting the company; and also some of the Scotch nation, one of whom was a peer, Lord Belhaven; that is to say, they arraigned the subjects of another country, for making use of the laws of their own. Among six hundred legislators, not one had the happy ray of genius to propose a committee of both parliaments, to inquire into the principles and consequences of the establishment; and if these should, upon inquiry, be found, that the benefit of it should be communicated, by a participation of rights to both nations. The king's answer was, "That he had been ill-advised in Scotland." He soon after changed his Scottish ministers, and sent orders to his resident at Hamburgh to present a memorial to the senate, in which he disowned the company, and warned them against all connections with it. The senate sent the memorial to the assembly of merchants, who returned it with the following spirited answer: "We look upon it as a very strange thing, that the King of Britain should offer to hinder us, who are a free people, to trade with whom we please; but are amazed to think, that he would hinder us from joining with his own subjects in Scotland, to whom he had lately given such large privileges, by so solemn an act of parliament." But merchants, though mighty prone to passion, are easily intimidated. The Dutch, Hamburgh, and London merchants, withdrew their subscriptions.

The Scotch, not discouraged, were rather animated by this oppression; for they converted it into a proof of the envy of the English, and of their consciousness of the great advantages which were

to flow to Scotland from the colony. The company proceeded to build six ships in Holland, from thirty-six to sixty guns, and they engaged twelve hundred men for the colony; among whom were younger sons of many of the noble and most ancient families of Scotland, and sixty officers who had been disbanded at the peace, who carried with them such of their private men generally raised on their own, or the estates of their relations, as they knew to be faithful and brave; and most of those were Highlanders. The Scotch parliament, on the 5th of August, 1698, unanimously addressed the king to support the company. The lord president, Sir Hugh Dalrymple, brother to Lord Stair, and head of the bench, and the lord advocate, Sir James Stuart, head of the bar, jointly drew memorials to the king, able in point of argument, information and arrangement: in which they defended the rights of the company upon the principles of constitutional and of public law. And neighbouring nations, with a mixture of surprise and respect, saw the poorest kingdom of Europe sending forth the most gallant and the most numerous colony that had ever gone from the old to the new world.

On the 26th of July, of the year 1698, the whole city of Edinburgh poured down upon Leith to see the colony depart, amidst the tears, and prayers and praises of relations and friends, and of their countrymen. Many seamen and soldiers, whose services had been refused, because more had offered themselves than were needed, were found hid in the ships, and, when ordered ashore, clung to the ropes and timbers, imploring to go without reward with their companions. Twelve hundred men sailed in five stout ships, and arrived at Darien in two months, with the loss of only fifteen of their people. At that time it was in their power, most of whom were well born, and all of them hardily bred, and inured to the fatigues and dangers of the late war, to have gone from the northmost part of Mexico to the southmost of Chili, and to have overturned the whole empire of Spain in the South seas: but modest, respecting their own and their country's character, and afraid of being accused that they had plunder, and not a settlement, in view, they began with purchasing lands from the natives, and sending messages of amity to the Spanish governors within their reach: and then fixed their station at Acta, calling it New St. Andrew, from the name of the tutelary saint of Scotland, and the country itself New-Caledonia. One of the sides of the harbour being formed by a long narrow neck of land which ran into the sea, they cut it across so as to join the ocean

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and the harbour. Within this defence they erected their fort, planting upon it fifty pieces of cannon. On the other side of the harbour there was a mountain a mile high, on which they placed a watch-house, which, in the rarefied air within the tropics, so favourable for vision, gave them an immense range of prospect to prevent all surprise. To this place, it was observed that the Highlanders often repaired, to enjoy a cool air, and to talk of their friends they had left behind in their hills; friends whose minds were as high as their mountains. The first public act of the colony was to publish a declaration of freedom of trade and religion to all nations. This luminous idea originated with Paterfon.

But the Dutch East-India company having pressed the king, in concurrence with his English subjects, to prevent the settlement at Darien, orders had been sent from England to the governors of the West-Indian and American colonies, to issue proclamations against giving assistance, or even to hold correspondence with the colony, and these were more or less harshly expressed, according to the tempers of the different governors. The Scotch, trusting to far different treatment, and to the supplies which they expected from those colonies, had not brought provisions enough with them, they fell into diseases from bad food and from want of food. But the more generous savages, by hunting and fishing for them, gave them that relief which fellow Britons refused. They lingered eight months, awaiting, but in vain, for assistance from Scotland, and almost all of them either died or quitted the settlement. Paterfon, who had been the first that entered the ship at Leith, was the last who went on board at Darien.

During the space of two years, while the establishment of this colony had been in agitation, Spain had made no complaint to England or Scotland against it: the Darien council even averred in their papers, which are in the Advocates Library, that the right of the company was debated before the king, in presence of the Spanish ambassador, before the colony left Scotland. But now, on the 3d of May, 1698, the Spanish ambassador at London presented a memorial to the king, which complained of the settlement at Darien as an encroachment on the rights of his master.

The Scotch, ignorant of the misfortunes of their colony, but provoked at this memorial, sent out another colony soon after of thirteen hundred men, to support an establishment which was now no more. But this last expedition, having been more hastily prepared than the first,

first, was unlucky in its passage: one of the ships was lost at sea, many men died on ship-board, and the rest arrived at different times, broken in their health and dispirited, when they heard the fate of those who had gone before them.—Added to the misfortunes of the first colony, the second had a misfortune peculiar to itself: the general assembly of the church of Scotland sent out four ministers, with orders “to take charge of the souls of the colony, and to erect a presbytery, with a moderator, clerk, and record of proceedings; to appoint ruling elders, deacons, overseers of the manners of the people, and assistants in the exercise of church discipline and government, and to hold regular kirk sessions.” When they arrived, the officers and gentlemen were occupied in building houses for themselves with their own hands, because there was no help to be got from others; yet the four ministers complained grievously, that the council did not order houses to be immediately built for their accommodation. They had not the precaution to bring with them letters of recommendation from the directors at home to the council abroad. On these accounts, not meeting with all the attention they expected from the higher, they paid court to the inferior ranks of the colonists, and by that means threw divisions into the colony.

The last party that joined the second colony at Darien, after it had been three months settled, was Captain Campbell of Finab, with a company of the people of his estate, whom he had commanded in Flanders, and whom he carried to Darien in his own ship. On their arrival at New St. Andrew, they found intelligence had been lately received, that a Spanish force of sixteen hundred men, which had been brought from the coast of the South sea, lay encamped at Tubucantee, waiting there till a Spanish squadron of eleven ships which was expected should arrive, when they were jointly to attack the fort. The military command was offered to Captain Campbell, in compliment to his reputation and to his birth, who was descended from the families of Breadalbane and Athol. In order to prevent a joint attack, he resolved to attack first; and therefore, on the second day after his arrival, he marched with two hundred men to Tubucantee, before his arrival was known to the enemy, stormed the camp in the night-time, dispersed the Spanish force with much slaughter, and returned to the fort the fifth day: but he found the Spanish ships before the harbour, their troops landed, and almost all hope of help or provision cut off; yet he stood a siege near six weeks, till almost all the officers were dead, the enemy

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by their approaches had cut off his wells, and his balls were so far expended, that he was obliged to melt the pewter dishes of the garrison into balls. The garrison then capitulated, and obtained not only the common honours of war and security for the property of the company, but, as if they had been conquerors, exacted hostages for performance of the conditions. Captain Campbell alone desired to be excepted from the capitulation, saying, he was sure the Spaniards could not forgive him the mischief which he so lately had done them. The brave, by their courage, often escape that death which they seem to provoke: Captain Campbell made his escape in his vessel, and, stopping no where, arrived safely at New-York, and from thence to Scotland, where the company presented him with a gold medal, in which his virtue was commemorated, to inflame his family with the love of heroic actions.

A harder fate attended those whom Captain Campbell left at Darien. They were so weak in their health as not to be able to weigh up the anchors of the Rising Sun, one of their ships, which carried sixty guns; but the generous Spaniards assisted them. In going out of the harbour she ran aground: the prey was tempting, and to obtain it, the Spaniards had only to stand by and look on; but shewed that mercy to the Scotch in distress, which one of the countrymen of those Scotch, General Elliot, returned to the posterity of the Spaniards at the end of the late conflagration at the siege of Gibraltar. The Darien ships being leaky and weakly manned, were obliged in their voyage to take shelter in different ports belonging to Spain and England. The Spaniards in the new world shewed them kindness; the English governments shewed them none; and in one place one of their ships was seized and detained. Of these only Captain Campbell's ship and another small one were saved: the Royal Sun was lost on the bar of Charleston, and of the colony, not more than thirty, saved from war, shipwreck or disease, ever saw their country again.

Paterfon, who had stood the blow, could not stand the reflection of misfortune: he was seized with a lunacy in his passage home after the ruin of the first colony, but he recovered in his own country, where his spirit, still ardent and unbroke, presented a new plan to the company, founded on the idea of King William, that England should have the joint dominion of the settlement with Scotland.

He survived many years in Scotland, pitied, respected, but neglected. After the union of the two kingdoms, he claimed reparation:

of his losses from the equivalent-money given by England to the Darien company, but got nothing, because a grant to him from a public fund would have been only an act of humanity, not a political job.

Thus ended the colony of Darien. Men look into the works of poets for subjects of satire, but they are more often to be found in the records of history. The application of the Dutch to King William against the Darien company, affords the surest of all proofs, that it was the interest of the British islands to support it. England, by the imprudence of ruining that settlement, lost the opportunity of gaining and continuing to herself the greatest commercial empire that probably ever will be upon earth. Had she treated with Scotland, in the hour of the distress of the company, for a joint possession of the settlement, or adopted the union of the kingdoms, which the sovereign of both proposed to them, that possession could certainly have been obtained. Had she treated with Spain to relinquish an imaginary right, or at least to give a passage across the isthmus, upon receiving duties so high as to overbalance all the chance of loss by a contraband trade, she had probably obtained either the one or the other. Had she broke with Spain for the sake of gaining by force one of those favours, she would have lost far less than she afterwards did by carrying a war into that country for many years, to force a king upon the Spaniards against their will. Even a rupture with Spain for Darien, if it had proved successful, would have knit the two nations together by the most solid of ties, their mutual interest; for the English must then have depended upon Spain for the safety of their caravans by land, and the Spaniards upon England for the safety of their fleets by sea. Spain and England would have been bound together as Portugal and England have long been; and the Spanish treasures have failed, under the wings of English navies, from the Spanish main to Cadiz, in the same manner as the treasures of Portugal have failed under the same protection, sacred and untouched, from the Brazils to Lisbon.

Panama is the capital city of this province, where the treasures of gold and silver, and the other rich merchandises of Peru, are lodged in magazines till they are sent to Europe. It is situated west longitude $82^{\circ} 15'$, north latitude $8^{\circ} 57'$.

When Guzman first touched at this place in 1514, it consisted entirely of fishermen's huts. Ortus d'Avila settled a colony here in a few years after, and in 1521 it was constituted a city by the emperor

Charles V. with the proper privileges. In 1670, it was sacked and burnt by John Morgan, an English adventurer, who had the preceding year taken Porto Bello. This misfortune induced the inhabitants to remove the city to its present situation, distant about a league from the place where it stood before. For the greater security, the new city was inclosed by a free-stone wall, and the houses were built of stone and brick. Since that time several bastions have been added, and now there is always a complete garrison maintained, and the walls are mounted with large cannon. But all these precautions could not save this city from another misfortune; it was entirely consumed by fire in the year 1737. After this accident it was again rebuilt, in the manner as it now stands, with neat elegant houses, but not magnificent. The inhabitants are rather independent in their fortunes than rich; there are few of them opulent, and scarce any in a state of poverty. As to the harbour, it is convenient, and well secured against storms by a number of surrounding islands, and is capable of containing the largest fleets. Here the royal audience is seated, at which the governor of Panama resides; for which reason the city is commonly deemed the capital of the province.

This place, a little while after it was founded, became the capital of the kingdom of Terra Firma. Some hopes were at first entertained from the three provinces of Panama, Darien, and Veragua, which composed it, but this prosperity vanished instantaneously. The savages of Darien recovered their independence, and the mines of the two other provinces were found to be neither sufficiently abundant, nor of an alloy good enough to make it worth while to work them. Five or six small boroughs, in which are seen some Europeans quite naked, and a very small number of Indians who have come to reside there, form the whole of this state, which the Spaniards are not ashamed of honouring with the great name of kingdom. It is in general barren and unwholesome, and contributes nothing to trade but pearls.

The pearl fishery is carried on in the islands of the gulph. The greatest part of the inhabitants employ such of the negroes in it as are good swimmers. These slaves plunge and re-plunge in the sea in search of pearls, till this exercise has exhausted their strength or their spirits.

Every negro is obliged to deliver a certain number of oysters. Those in which there are no pearls, or in which the pearl is not entirely formed, are not reckoned. What he is able to find beyond
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the stipulated obligation, is considered as his indisputable property; he may sell it to whom he pleases, but commonly he cedes it to his master at a moderate price.

Sea monsters, which abound more about the islands where pearls are found than on the neighbouring coasts, render this fishing dangerous. Some of these devour the divers in an instant. The manta fish, which derives its name from its figure, surrounds them, rolls them under its body, and suffocates them. In order to defend themselves against such enemies, every diver is armed with a poignard; the moment he perceives any of these voracious fish, he attacks them with precaution, wounds them, and drives them away. Notwithstanding this, there are always some fishermen destroyed, and a great number crippled.

The pearls of Panama are commonly of a very fine water. Some of them are even remarkable for their size and figure; these were formerly sold in Europe. Since art has imitated them, and the passion for diamonds has entirely superseded, or prodigiously diminished the use of them, they have found a new mart more advantageous than the first. They are carried to Peru, where they are in great estimation.

This branch of trade has, however, infinitely less contributed to give reputation to Panama, than the advantage which it hath long enjoyed of being the mart of all the productions of the country of the Incas that are destined for the old world. These riches, which are brought hither by a small fleet, were carried, some on mules, others by the river Chagre, to Porto Bello, that is situated on the northern coast of the isthmus, which separates the two seas.

CARTHAGENA.

Carthagena is one of the most considerable provinces in this territory, on account of the great trade carried on by the capital, for the country itself is neither fertile, rich, nor populous. The capital city, called likewise Carthagena, is situated in west longitude 77°, and north latitude 11°, on a sandy island, by most writers called a peninsula; which forming a narrow passage on the south-west, opens a communication with that called Tierra Bembá, as far as Bocca Chica. The little island which now joins them was formerly the entrance of the bay, but it having been filled up by orders of the court, Bocca Chica became the only entrance; this, however, has been filled up since the attempt of Vernon and Wentworth, and the old passage

again opened. On the north side the land is so narrow, that before the wall was begun, the distance from sea to sea was only thirty-five toises; but afterwards enlarging, it forms another island on this side, so that excepting these two places, the whole city is entirely surrounded by salt water. To the eastward it has a communication, by means of a wooden bridge, with a large suburb, called Xemani, built on another island, which is also joined to the continent by a bridge of the same materials. The fortifications both of the city and suburbs are built after the modern manner, and lined with free-stone; and in time of peace, the garrison consists of ten companies, of seventy-seven men each, besides militia. The city and suburbs are well laid out, the streets strait, broad, uniform, and well paved. All the houses are built of stone or brick, only one story high, well contrived, neat, and furnished with balconies and lattices of wood, which is more durable in that climate than iron, the latter being soon corroded by the acrimonious quality of the atmosphere. The climate is exceedingly unhealthy. The Europeans are particularly subject to the terrible disease called the black vomit, which sweeps off multitudes annually on the arrival of the galleons. It seldom continues above three or four days, in which time the patient is either dead or out of danger, and if he recovers, is never subject to a return of the same distemper. This disease has hitherto foiled all the arts of the Spanish physicians, as has also the leprosy, which is very common here. At Carthagena, likewise, that painful tumour in the legs, occasioned by the entrance of the dracunculus, or guinea-worm, is very common and troublesome. Another disorder, peculiar to this country and to Peru, is occasioned by a little insect called nigua, so extremely minute, as scarce to be visible to the naked eye. This insect breeds in the dust, insinuates itself into the soles of the feet and the legs, piercing the skin with such subtlety, that there is no being aware of it, before it has made its way to the flesh. If it is perceived in the beginning, it is extracted with little pain; but having once lodged its head, and pierced the skin, the patient must undergo the pain of an incision, without which a nodus would be formed, and a multitude of insects ingenerated, which would soon overspread the foot and leg. One species of the nigua is venomous, and when it enters the toe, an inflammatory swelling takes place in the groin.

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ST. MARTHA.

St. Martha is bounded on the north, by the North sea; on the east, by Rio de la Hache; on the south, by New-Granada: and on the west, by Carthagena. It is three hundred miles in length, and two hundred in breadth, is a mountainous country, and the land very high. Here begins the famous ridge of mountains called the Cordilleras des los Andes, which run from north to south the whole length of the continent of South-America; it is extremely hot on the sea coast, but cold in the internal parts, on account of the mountains; it abounds with the fruits proper to the climate, and there are mines of gold and precious stones, as also salt-works. The Spaniards possess but one part of this province, in which they have built Martha the capital. The air about the town is wholesome, and is seated near the sea, having a harbour surrounded with high mountains. It was formerly very considerable when the galleons were sent thither, but is now come almost to nothing. West longitude $74^{\circ} 11'$, north latitude $11^{\circ} 20'$.

VENEZUELA.

The province contiguous to St. Martha on the east was first visited by Alonso de Ojeda, in the year 1499; and the Spaniards, on their landing there, having observed some huts in an Indian village built upon piles, in order to raise them above the stagnated water which covered the plain, were led to bestow upon it the name of Venezuela, or Little-Venice, by their usual propensity to find a resemblance between what they discovered in America, and the objects which were familiar to them in Europe. They made some attempts to settle there, but with little success. The final reduction of the province was accomplished by means very different from those to which Spain was indebted for its other acquisitions in the New World. The ambition of Charles V. often engaged him in operations of such variety and extent, that his revenues were not sufficient to defray the expense of carrying them into execution. Among other expedients for supplying the deficiency of his funds, he had borrowed large sums from the Velfers of Augsburgh, the most opulent merchants at that time in Europe. By way of retribution for these, or in hopes perhaps, of obtaining a new loan, he bestowed upon them the province of Venezuela, to be held as an hereditary fief from the crown

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of Castile, on condition that within a limited time they should render themselves masters of the country, and establish a colony there. Under the direction of such persons, it might have been expected, that a settlement would have been established on maxims very different from those of the Spaniards, and better calculated to encourage such useful industry, as mercantile proprietors might have known to be the most certain source of prosperity and opulence: but unfortunately they committed the execution of their plan to some of those foldiers of fortune with which Germany abounded in the sixteenth century. These adventurers, impatient to amass riches, that they might speedily abandon a station which they soon discovered to be very uncomfortable, instead of planting a colony in order to cultivate and improve the country, wandered from district to district in search of mines, plundering the natives with unfeeling rapacity, or oppressing them by the imposition of intolerable tasks. In the course of a few years, their avarice and exactions, in comparison with which those of the Spaniards were moderate, desolated the province so completely, that it could hardly afford them subsistence; and the Vassals relinquished a property from which the inconsiderate conduct of their agents left them no hope of ever deriving any advantage.* When the wretched remainder of the Germans deserted Venezuela, the Spaniards again took possession of it; but, notwithstanding many natural advantages, it is one of their most languishing and unproductive settlements.

PARIA AND COMANA.

These provinces are bounded on the north by the North sea, on the east by Surinam, on the west by New-Granada, and on the south by Guiana; its produce is various, but in relating the origin and operations of the mercantile company, in which an exclusive right of trade with them has been vested, we shall hereafter have occasion to consider their state and productions in a more ample manner.

NEW-GRANADA AND POPAYAN.

The provinces sometimes known as the new kingdom of Granada, is entirely an inland country of great extent. This important addition was made to the dominions of Spain about the year 1536, by Sebastian de Benalcazar and Gonzalo Ximenes de Quefada, two of the bravest and

* Civedo y Bagnos Hist. de Venezuela, p. 11, &c.

most accomplished officers employed in the conquest of America. The former, who commanded at that time in Quito, attacked it from the south; the latter made his invasion from Santa Martha on the north. As the original inhabitants of this region were farther advanced in improvement than any people in America but the Mexicans and Peruvians, they defended themselves with great resolution and good conduct. The abilities and perseverance of Benalcazar and Quesada surmounted all opposition, though not without encountering many dangers, and reduced the country into the form of a Spanish province.

The provinces are so far elevated above the level of the sea, that though they approach almost to the equator, the climate is remarkably temperate. The fertility of the vallies is not inferior to those of the richest districts in America, and the higher grounds yield gold and precious stones of various kinds. It is not by digging into the bowels of the earth that this gold is found, it is mingled with the soil near the surface, and separated from it by repeated washing with water: this operation is carried on wholly by negro slaves; for though the still subterranean air has been discovered, by experience, to be so fatal to them, that they cannot be employed with advantage in the deep silver mines, they are more capable of performing the other species of labour than Indians. As the natives are exempt from that service, which has wasted their race so rapidly in other parts of America, the country is still remarkably populous. Some districts yield gold with a profusion no less wonderful than in the vale of Cineguilla, and it is often found in large pepitas, or grains, which manifest the abundance in which it is produced. On a rising ground near Pamplona, single labourers have collected in a day what was equal in value to a thousand pesos. A late governor of Santa Fé brought with him to Spain a lump of pure gold, estimated to be worth seven hundred and forty pounds sterling. This, which is perhaps the largest and finest specimen ever found in the new world, is now deposited in the royal cabinet of Madrid. But without founding any calculation on what is rare and extraordinary, the value of the gold usually collected in this country, particularly in Popayan and Choco, is of considerable amount. Its towns are populous and flourishing. The number of inhabitants in almost every part of the country daily increases; cultivation and industry of various kinds begin to be encouraged, and to prosper; a considerable trade is carried on with Carthagena, the produce of the mines and other

commodities being conveyed down the great river of St. Magdalen to that city. On another quarter there is a communication with the Atlantic by the river Orinoco; but the country which stretches along its banks towards the east is little known, and imperfectly occupied by the Spaniards.

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PERU is situated between the equator and 25° south latitude, and 60° and $81'$ west longitude; * its length is eighteen hundred miles, and its breadth, according to some authors, three hundred and ninety, and others six hundred $\frac{1}{2}$ miles; but the latest and most authentic accounts state it at about five hundred. It is bounded on the north by Terra Firma, on the west by the Pacific ocean, on the south by Chili, and on the east by the mountains called the Andes. The bounds of our work will not permit us to enter into the ancient history of this country before its conquest by the Spaniards; we can, therefore, only in brief observe, that the empire of Peru, at the time it was subdued, extended along the South sea, from the river of Emeralds to Chili, and on the land side to Popayan, according to some geographers. It contained within its extent that famous chain of mountains which rises in the Terra Magellanica, and is gradually lost in Mexico, in order to unite, as it should seem, the southern parts of America with the northern.

It is now divided into three grand divisions or audiences: 1. QUITO; 2. LIMA, or LOS REYES; and, 3. LOS CHARCOS. As to its climate, mines, soil and produce, they differ greatly in different parts of the country.

Q U I T O.

The extensive province of Quito is bounded on the north by Popayaa, and includes a part of that government; also by Santa Fé de

* The compilers of the Encyclopedia Britannica state the situation of Peru between 1° deg. 40 min. north, and 26° deg. 10 min. south latitude, and 56° and 81° deg. west longitude, and make its length eighteen hundred and its breadth, as above, three hundred and ninety miles.

† Guthrie.

Bogota; on the south by the governments of Piura and Chachapoyas; on the east it extends over the whole government of Maynas and the river of the Amazons to the meridian, which divides the Spanish from the Portuguese dominions; and on the west it is bounded by the South sea; extending, according to Antonio de Ulloa, six hundred leagues in length, and about two hundred in its greatest breadth; but this greatly exceeds the computation of all other geographers. He however observes, that it must be owned a great part of those vast dominions are either inhabited by nations of Indians, or have not hitherto been sufficiently peopled by the Spaniards, if indeed they had been thoroughly known; and that all the parts that can properly be said to be peopled, and actually subject to the Spanish government, are those intercepted by the two Cordilleras of the Andes, which, in comparison to the extent of the country, may be termed a street or lane, fifteen leagues, or sometimes more, from east to west; to this must be added several detached governments, separated by the very extensive tracts inhabited by free Indians.

The climate of Quito differs from all others in the same parallel, since even in the center of the torrid zone, or although under the equinoctial, the heat is not only very tolerable, but even in some places the cold is painful; while others enjoy all the advantages of a perpetual spring, the fields being constantly covered with verdure, and enamelled with flowers of the most lively colours. The mildness of the climate, free from the extremes of heat and cold, and the constant equality of the day and night, render this country, which, from its situation, might be thought to be parched by the constant heat of the sun, and scarcely inhabitable, both pleasant and fertile; for Nature has here dispensed her blessings with so liberal a hand, that this country in several respects surpasses those of the temperate zones, where the vicissitudes of winter and summer, and the change from heat to cold, cause the extremes of both to be more sensibly felt. However, in different parts of the country, the air is very different; in one part are mountains of a stupendous height and magnitude, with their summits covered with snow. The plains are temperate, the valleys hot, and, according to the high or low situation of the country, are found all the variety of gradations in temperature possible to be conceived between the extremes of heat and cold.

Quito, the capital, in $0^{\circ} 13'$ south latitude, and $77^{\circ} 50'$ west longitude from Greenwich, is so happily situated, that neither heat nor
cold

cold are troublesome, though both may be felt in its neighbourhood; and what renders this equality more delightful is, that it is constant throughout the whole year, the difference between the seasons being scarce perceptible. Indeed the mornings are cool, the remainder of the day warm, and the nights of an agreeable temperature.

The winds, which are pure and salubrious, blow for the most part from north to south, but never with any violence, though they sometimes shift their quarters, but without any regard to the season of the year. Such signal advantages resulting from the climate, soil, and aspect of this country, would be sufficient to render it the most enviable spot upon earth, as it is supposed to be the most elevated, if, whilst enjoying these delights, the inhabitants were not harassed by terror, and exposed to continual danger; for here tremendous tempests of thunder and lightning prevail, which are sufficient to appal the stoutest heart; whilst earthquakes frequently spread universal apprehensions, and sometimes bury cities in ruins.

The distinction of winter and summer consists in a very minute difference; the interval between the month of September and those of April, May or June, is here called the winter season, and the other months compose the summer. In the former season the rain chiefly prevails, and in the latter the inhabitants frequently enjoy whole days of fine weather; but whenever the rains are discontinued for above a fortnight, the inhabitants are in the utmost consternation, and public prayers are offered up for their return. On the other hand, when they continue a short time without intermission, the like fears prevail, and the churches are again crowded with supplicants to obtain fine weather; for a long drought produces dangerous diseases, and a continual rain, without intervals of sunshine, destroys the fruits of the earth. The city of Quito, however, enjoys one peculiar advantage in being free from musketoos and other troublesome insects, such as fleas and venomous reptiles, except the nigua or pique, which is a very small insect shaped like a flea, but hardly visible to the sight.

The fertility of the soil here is incredible, for the fruits and beauties of the several seasons are visible at the same time; and the curious European observes with a pleasing admiration, that while some herbs of the field are fading, others of the same kind are springing up; while some flowers lose their beauty, others blow to continue the enamelled prospect: thus, when the fruits of the trees

have attained their maturity, and the leaves begin to change their colour, fresh leaves blossom, and fruits are seen in their proper gradation, in size and ripeness on the same tree. The same incessant fertility is conspicuous in the corn, both reaping and sowing being carried on at the same time; so that the declivities of the neighbouring hills exhibit all the beauties of the four seasons in one assemblage. Though all this is generally seen, yet there is a settled time for the grand harvest: yet sometimes the most favourable season for sowing in one place is a month or two after that of another, though their distance does not exceed three or four leagues. Thus in different spots, and sometimes in one and the same, sowing and reaping are performed throughout the whole year, the forwardness or retardment naturally arising from the different situations, such as mountains, rising grounds, plains and valleys; and the temperature being different in each, the best times for performing the several operations of husbandry must also differ.

The chirimoya is considered as one of the most delicious fruits in the world; its dimensions are various, being from one to five inches in diameter; its figure is imperfectly round, flattened towards the stalk, where it forms a kind of navel, but all the other parts are nearly circular: it is covered with a thin soft shell, which adheres so closely to the pulp as not to be separated from it without a knife; the outward coat is green, variegated with prominent veins, forming all over it a kind of net-work: the pulp is white, and contains a large quantity of juice resembling honey, of a sweet taste, mixed with a gentle acid of a most exquisite flavour. The seeds are formed in several parts of the pulp, and are somewhat flat. The tree is high and tufted, the stem large and round, but with some inequalities, full of elliptic leaves, terminating in a point. The blossom differs little from the colour of the leaves, which is a darkish green; and though far from being beautiful, is remarkable for its incomparable fragrance.

The granadilla in its shape resembles an hen's egg, but is larger; the outside of the shell is smooth, glossy, and of a faint carnation colour, and the inside white and soft; the shell contains a viscous liquid substance full of very small and delicate grains, less hard than those of the pomegranate. This medullary substance is separated from the shell by a fine and transparent membrane. Its fruit has a delightful sweetness blended with acidity, very cordial and refreshing, and so wholesome, that there is no danger of eating to excess.

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The frutilla, or Peruvian strawberry, is very different from that of Europe in size; for though they are here generally not above an inch in length, they are much larger in other parts of Peru; but their taste, though juicy, and not unpalatable, is not equal to those in Europe.

The country is observed to abound more in women than men, which is the more remarkable, as those causes which induce men to leave their country, as travelling, commerce, and war, naturally bring over more men from Europe than women. But there are many families in which there are a number of daughters, without one son among them. The women enjoy a better state of health than the men, which may be owing in some measure to the climate, but more particularly to the early intemperance and voluptuousness of the other sex.

The Creoles are well made, of a proper stature, and of a lively and agreeable countenance. The Mestizos are also in general well made, often taller than the ordinary size, very robust, and have an agreeable air. The Indians, both men and women, are commonly low of stature, though strong and well proportioned; but more natural defects are to be found among them than in any of the rest. Some are remarkably short, some idiots, dumb, or blind. Their hair is generally thick and long, which they wear loose on their shoulders; but the Indian women plait theirs behind with a riband, and cut that before a little above the eyebrows, from one ear to the other. The greatest disgrace that can be offered to an Indian of either sex is to cut off their hair; for whatever corporal punishment their masters think proper to inflict on them, they bear with patience; but this affront they never forgive, and accordingly the government has interposed, and limited this punishment to the most enormous crimes. The colour of the hair is generally a deep black; it is lank, harsh, and as coarse as that of a horse. On the contrary, the male Mestizos, in order to distinguish themselves from the Indians, cut off their hair, but the females do not adopt that custom.

The Mestizos in general wear a blue cloth, manufactured in this country; but though they are the lowest class of the Spaniards, they are very ambitious of distinguishing themselves as such, either by the colour or fashion of the clothes they wear.

The Mestizo women affect to dress in the same manner as the Spanish, though they cannot equal the ladies in the richness of their stuffs. The meaner sort wear no shoes, but, like the men of the same rank, go barefooted.

The dress of the Indians consists of white cotton drawers, which hang down to the calf of their leg, where they are loose, and edged with a lace suitable to the stuff. The use of a shirt is supplied by a black cotton frock, made in the form of a sack, with three openings at the bottom, one in the middle for the head, and others at the corners for the arms; thus covering their naked bodies down to their knees: over this is a serge cloak, with a hole in the middle for putting the head through, and a hat made by the natives. This is the general dress, which they never lay aside, even while they sleep; and they have no additional cloathing for their legs or feet. The Indians, who have acquired some fortune, particularly the barbers and phlebotomists, distinguish themselves from their countrymen by the fineness of their drawers, and by wearing a shirt, which, though without sleeves, has a lace four or five fingers in breadth, fastened round like a kind of ruff or band. They are fond of silver or gold buckles to their shoes, though they wear no stockings, and instead of a mean serge cloak, wear one of fine cloth, which is often adorned with gold or silver lace.

There are two kinds of dresses worn by the Indian women, made in the same plain manner with those worn by the men in general, the whole consisting of a short petticoat and a veil of American baize. But the dress of the lowest class of Indian women is only a bag of the same make and stuff as that of the men, which they fasten on their shoulders with two large pins; it reaches down to the calf of the leg, and is fastened round the waist with a kind of girdle. Instead of a veil, they wear about the neck a piece of the same coarse stuff, dyed black, but their arms and legs are naked.

The people have dishes unknown in Europe, but are particularly fond of cheese, and have excellent butter in the neighbourhood of Quito. Sweetmeats are very much admired.

Rum is commonly drank here by persons of all ranks, but their favourite liquor is brandy. The disorders arising from the excessive use of spirituous liquors are chiefly seen among the Mestizos; and the lower class of women, both among the Creoles and the Mestizos, are also extremely addicted to the same species of debauchery.

Another liquor much used in this country is mate, which is made of an herb known in all these parts of America by the name paraguay, as being the produce of that country. Some of it is put into a calabash tipped with silver, called here mate, with sugar and some cold

old water. After it has continued there some time, the calabash is filled with boiling water, and they drink the liquor through a pipe fixed in the calabash. It is also usual to squeeze into the liquor a small quantity of the juice of lemons or Seville oranges, mixed with some perfumes from odoriferous flowers. This is their usual drink in the morning fasting, and many also use it at their evening regale. The manner of drinking it appears very indelicate, the whole company taking it successively through the same pipe, it being carried several times round the company till all are satisfied. This, among the Creoles, is the highest enjoyment; so that when they travel, they never fail to carry with them a sufficient quantity of it, and till they have taken their dose of mate they never eat.

The vice of gaming is here carried to an extravagant height, to the ruin of many families, some losing their stock in trade, others the very clothes from their backs, and afterward those belonging to their wives, which they hazard, stimulated by the hope of recovering their own.

The common people, the Indians, and even the domestics, are greatly addicted to stealing. The Mestizos, though arrant cowards, do not want audacity in this way; for though they will not venture to attack any one in the street, it is a common practice to snatch off a person's hat, and immediately seek their safety in flight. This acquisition is sometimes of considerable value; the hats worn by persons of rank, and even by the wealthy citizens, when dressed, being of white beaver, worth fifteen dollars, beside the hatband of gold or silver lace, fastened with a gold buckle set with diamonds or emeralds.

In Quito, and all the towns and villages of its province, different dialects are spoken, Spanish being no less common than the Inga, the language of the country. The Creoles use the latter as much as the former, but both are considerably adulterated by borrowed words or expressions. The first language generally spoken by children is the Inga, for the nurses being Indians, many of them do not understand a word of Spanish, and thus they afterward learn a jargon composed of both languages.

The sumptuous manner of performing the last offices for the dead, demonstrates how far the power of habit is capable of prevailing over reason and prudence, for their ostentation is so great in this particular, that many families of credit are ruined by preposterously endeavouring to excel others; and the people here may be said to toil
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and scheme to lay up wealth, to enable their successors to lavish honours upon a body insensible of all pageantry.

The commerce of the province of Quito is chiefly carried on by Europeans settled here, and others who occasionally arrive. The manufactures of this province are only cottons, some white and striped baize, and cloths, which meet with a good market at Lima, for supplying the inward provinces of Peru. The returns are made partly in silver, and partly in fringes made of gold and silver thread, and wine, brandy, oil, copper, tin, lead, and quicksilver. On the arrival of the galleons at Carthagena, these traders resort thither to purchase European goods, which, at their return, they consign to their correspondents all over the province. The coasts of New-Spain supply this province with indigo, of which there is a very large consumption at the manufactures, blue being universally the colour which this people adopt for their apparel. They also import, by way of Guayaquila, iron and steel, both from Europe and the coast of Guatemala.

The disposition of the Indians in the province of Quito is extremely remarkable, and they appear to have no resemblance to the people found there by those who first discovered the country. They at present possess a tranquillity not to be disturbed either by fortunate or unfortunate events. In their mean apparel they are as contented as a prince clothed in the most splendid robes. They shew the same disregard to riches; and even the authority and grandeur within their reach is so little the object of their ambition, that to all appearance it seems to be the same to an Indian whether he be created an alcaide, or obliged to perform the office of a common executioner.

Their sloth is so great, that scarcely any thing can induce them to work. Whatever, therefore, is necessary to be done, is left to the Indian women, who are much more active; they spin and make the half shirts and drawers which form the only apparel of their husbands; they cook the provisions, grind barley, and brew the beer called chicha, while the husband sits squatting on his hams, the usual posture of the Indians, looking at his busy wife. The only domestic service they do is to plough their little spot of land, which is sowed by the wife. When they are once seated on their hams, no reward can induce them to stir; so that if a traveller has lost his way, and happens to come to one of their cottages, they charge their wives to say that they are not at home. Should the passenger alight and enter

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the cottage, the Indian would still be safe, for having no light but what comes through a hole in the door, he could not be discovered; and should the stranger even see the Indian, neither entreaties nor rewards would prevail on him to stir a step with him.

They are lively only in parties of pleasure, rejoicings, entertainments, and especially dancing; but in all these the liquor must circulate briskly, and they continue drinking till they are entirely deprived both of sense and motion.

It is remarkable that the Indian women, whether maids or married, and Indian young men before they are of an age to contract matrimony, are never guilty of this vice; it being a maxim among them, that drunkenness is the privilege of none but masters of families who, when they are unable to take care of themselves, have others to take care of them.

The women present the chicha * to their husbands, in calabashes, till their spirits are raised, then one plays on a pipe and tabor, while others dance. Some of the best voices among the Indian women sing songs in their own language, and those who do not dance, squat down in the usual posture till it comes to their turn. When tired with intemperance, they all lie down together, without regarding whether they be near the wife of another or their own sister or daughter. These festivities sometimes continue three or four days, till the priest coming among them, throws away all the chicha, and disperses the Indians, lest they should procure more.

Their funerals are likewise solemnised with excessive drinking. The house is filled with jugs of chicha, for the solace of the mourners and other visitors; the latter even go out into the streets, and invite all of their nation who happen to pass by, to come in and drink to the honour of the deceased. This ceremony lasts four or five days, and sometimes more, strong liquor being their supreme enjoyment.

The Indians in the audience of Quito are said to act contrary to all other nations in their marriages, for they never make choice of a woman who has not been first enjoyed by others, which they confi-

* This is a liquor made from maize by the following process: The maize, after being soaked in water till it begin to grow, is dried in the sun, then parched a little, and at last ground. The flour, after it has been well kneaded, is put with water into a large vessel, and left for two or three days to ferment. Its taste is nearly that of the most indifferent kind of cyder. It is a refreshing, nourishing, and aperitive liquor, but it will not keep above eight days without turning sour.

der as a certain indication of her personal attractions. After a young man has made choice of a woman, he asks her of her father, and having obtained his consent, they begin to cohabit together as man and wife, and assist the father-in-law in cultivating the land. At the end of three or four months, and frequently of a year, the husband leaves his bride or wife, without any ceremony, and perhaps expostulates with his father-in-law for endeavouring to deceive him, by imposing upon him his daughter, whom nobody else had thought worthy of making a bedfellow. But if no disgust arises in the man on this account, or any other, after passing three or four months in this commerce, which they call *amanarse*, or to habituate one's self, they then marry. This custom is still very common, though the whole body of the clergy have used all their endeavours to put a stop to it. Accordingly they always absolve them of that sin before they give them the nuptial benediction.

It has been observed, that the dependencies of the jurisdictions of Quito are seated between the two Cordilleras of the Andes, and that the air is more or less cold, and the ground more or less sterile, according to the height of the mountains. These barren tracks are called *deserts*; for though all the Cordilleras are dry, some are much more so than others, and the continual snow and frosts render some parts of them incapable of producing a single plant, and consequently they are uninhabitable by man or beast.

Some of these mountains, which appear to have their bases resting on other mountains, rise to a most astonishing height, and reaching far above the clouds, are here, although in the midst of the torrid zone, covered with perpetual snow. From experiments made with a barometer on the mountain of Cotopaxi, it appeared that its summit was elevated six thousand two hundred and fifty-two yards above the surface of the sea, something above three geographical miles, which greatly exceeds the height of any other mountains in the known world.

Cotopaxi became a volcano about the time when the Spaniards first arrived in this country. A new eruption happened in 1743, which had been for some days preceded by a continual interior rumbling noise; after which an aperture was made in its summit, as also three others near the middle of its declivity; these parts, when the eruption commenced, were buried under prodigious masses of snow. The ignited substances which were ejected, being mingled with a considerable quantity of snow and ice, melting amidst the flames,

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were carried down with such amazing rapidity, that the plain from Callo to Latacunga was overflowed, and all the houses, with their wretched inhabitants, were swept away in one general and instantaneous destruction. The river of Latacunga was the receptacle of this dreadful flood, till becoming swollen above its banks, the torrent rolled over the adjacent country, continuing to sweep away houses and cattle, and rendered the land near the town of the same name as the river, one vast lake. Here, however, the inhabitants had sufficient warning to save their lives by flight, and retreated to a more elevated spot at some distance. During three days the volcano ejected cinders; while torrents of lava with melted ice and snow poured down the sides of the mountain. The eruption continued for several days longer, accompanied with terrible roarings of the wind, rushing through the craters which had been opened. At length all was quiet, and neither smoke nor fire were to be seen; until in May, 1744, the flames forced a passage through several other parts on the sides of the mountain; so that in clear nights the flame, being reflected by the transparent ice, exhibited a very grand and beautiful illumination. On the 13th of November following, it ejected such prodigious quantities of fire and lava, that an inundation, equal to the former, soon ensued, and the inhabitants of the town of Latacunga for some time gave themselves over for lost.

The most southern mountains of the Cordilleras is that of Mecas or Sangay, which is of a prodigious height, and the far greatest part of it covered with snow; yet from its summit issues a continual fire, attended with explosions which are plainly heard at forty leagues distance. The country adjacent to this volcano is entirely barren, being covered with cinders ejected from its mouth. In this mountain rises the river Sangay, which being joined by the Upano, forms the Payra, a large river which discharges itself into the Marañon.

Pichincha, though famous for its great height, is one thousand two hundred and seventy-eight yards lower than the perpendicular height of Cotopaxi, and was formerly a volcano, but the mouth or crater on one of its sides is now covered with sand and calcined matter, so that at present neither smoke nor fire issues from it. When Don George Juan and Don Antonio de Ulloa were stationed on it for the purpose of making astronomical observations, they found the cold on the top of this mountain extremely intense, the wind violent, and they were frequently involved in so thick a fog, or, in other words, a cloud, that

an object at six or eight paces distance was scarcely discernible. The air grew clear by the clouds moving nearer to the earth, and on all sides furrounding the mountain to a vast distance, representing the sea with the mountain standing like an island in the center. When this happened, they heard the dreadful noise of the tempests that discharged themselves on Quito and the neighbouring country. They saw the lightning issue from the clouds, and heard the thunder roll far beneath them. While the lower parts were involved in tempests of thunder and rain, they enjoyed a delightful serenity; the wind was abated, the sky clear, and the enlivening rays of the sun moderated the severity of the cold. But when the clouds rose, their thickness rendered respiration difficult; snow and hail fell continually, and the wind returned with all its violence, so that it was impossible entirely to overcome the fear of being, together with their hut, blown down the precipice on whose edge it was built, or of being buried in it by the constant accumulations of ice and snow. Their fears were likewise increased by the fall of enormous fragments of rocks. Though the smallest crevice visible in their hut was stopped, the wind was so piercing that it penetrated through; and though the hut was small, crowded with inhabitants, and had several lamps constantly burning, the cold was so great, that each individual was obliged to have a chafing-dish of coals, and several men were constantly employed every morning to remove the snow which fell in the night. By the severities of such a climate their feet were swelled, and so tender, that walking was attended with extreme pain, their hands covered with chilblains, and their lips so swelled and chopt, that every motion in speaking drew blood.

LIMA, OR LOS REYES.

The next division of Peru is the audience of Lima, which is bounded on the north by Quito; on the east, by the Cordilleras of the Andes; on the south, by the audience of Los Charcos; and on the west, by the Pacific ocean; it being about seven hundred and seventy miles in length from north to south, but of an unequal breadth.

The climate and soil of this country is uncommonly various; in some places it is exceedingly hot, in others insupportably cold, and in the city of Lima, where rain never falls, it is always temperate. The seasons vary within the compass of a few miles, and in certain

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parts of the audience, all the vicissitudes of weather are experienced in twenty-four hours. It is extremely remarkable that no rains fall, or rivers flow on the sea coasts, though the country is refreshed by thick fogs, and the heat abated by dense clouds that never condense into showers. This phenomenon has drawn the attention of many naturalists, without their being able satisfactorily to account for it.

Spring begins towards the close of the year, that is, about the end of November or the beginning of December, when the vapours which fill the atmosphere during the winter subside, and the sun, to the great joy of the inhabitants, again appears, and the country then begins to revive, which, during the absence of his rays, had continued in a state of languor. This is succeeded by summer, which, though hot from the perpendicular direction of the sun's rays, is far from being insupportable; the heat, which, indeed, would otherwise be excessive, being moderated by the south winds, which always blow at this season, though with no great force. Winter begins at the latter end of June or the beginning of July, and continues till November or December, when the south wind begins to blow stronger, and to produce a certain degree of cold, not, indeed, equal to that in the countries where the ice and snow are known, but so keen that the light dresses are laid by, and cloth or other warm stuffs worn. During the winter the earth is covered with so thick a fog, as totally to intercept the rays of the sun; and the winds, by blowing under the shelter of the fog, retain the particles they contracted in the frozen zone. In this season only the vapours dissolve into a very small dew, which every where equally moistens the earth; by which means all the hills, which during the other parts of the year offer nothing to the sight but rocks and wastes, are clothed with verdure and enamelled with flowers of the most beautiful colours. These dews never fall in such quantities as to impair the roads or incommode the traveller; a very thin stuff will not soon be wet through, but the continuance of the mists during the whole winter, without being exhaled by the sun, fertilizes every part of the country.

Lima is as free from tempests as from rain, so that those of the inhabitants who have neither visited the mountains nor travelled into other parts, are absolute strangers to thunder and lightning, and are therefore extremely terrified when they first hear the former, or see the latter. But it is very remarkable, that what is here entirely unknown, should be so common thirty leagues to the east of Lima; it being no

farther to the mountains, where violent rains and tempests of thunder and lightning are as frequent as at Quito.

But though the capital is freed from the terror of these tempests, it is subject to what is much more dreadful. Earthquakes happen here so frequently, that the inhabitants are under continual apprehensions of being, from their suddenness and violence, buried in the ruins of their own houses; yet these earthquakes, though so sudden, have their presages, one of the principal of which is a rumbling noise in the bowels of the earth, about a minute before the shocks are felt, that seems to pervade all the adjacent subterraneous part; this is followed by dismal howlings of the dogs, who seem to presage the approaching danger. The beasts of burden passing the streets stop, and by a natural instinct spread open their legs, the better to secure themselves from falling. On these portents the terrified inhabitants fly from their houses into the streets with such precipitation, that if it happens in the night, they appear quite naked; the urgency of the danger at once banishing all sense of delicacy or shame. Thus the streets exhibit such odd and singular figures as might afford matter of diversion, were it possible to be diverted in so terrible a moment. This sudden concourse is accompanied with the cries of children waked out of their sleep, blended with the lamentations of the women, whose agonising prayers to the saints increase the common fear and confusion. The men are also too much affected to refrain from giving vent to their terror, so that the whole city exhibits a dreadful scene of consternation and horror.

The earthquakes that have happened at the capital are very numerous. The first since the establishment of the Spaniards was in 1582, but the damage was much less considerable than in some of the succeeding. Six years after, Lima was again visited by another earthquake, so dreadful, that it is still solemnly commemorated every year. In 1609 another happened, which overturned many houses. On the 27th of November, 1630, such prodigious damage was done in the city by an earthquake, that in acknowledgment of its not having been entirely demolished, a festival on that day is annually celebrated. Twenty-four years after, on the 3d of November, the most stately edifices in the city, and a great number of houses, were destroyed by an earthquake, but the inhabitants retiring, few of them perished. Another dreadful one happened in 1678; but one of the most terrible was on the 28th of October, 1687. It began at four in the morning, and destroyed many of the finest public buildings and
houses,

houses, in which a great number of the inhabitants perished; but this was little more than a prelude to what followed, for two hours after the shock returned with such impetuous concussions, that all was laid in ruins, and the inhabitants felt themselves happy in being only spectators of the general devastation, by having saved their lives, though with the loss of all their property. During this second shock, the sea retiring considerably, and then returning in mountainous waves, entirely overwhelmed Callao, which is at five miles distance from Lima, and all the adjacent country, together with the miserable inhabitants. From that time, six earthquakes have happened at Lima previous to that of 1746. This last was on the 28th of October, at half an hour after ten at night, when the concussions began with such violence, that in little more than three minutes, the greatest part, if not all the buildings in the city, were destroyed, burying under their ruins those inhabitants who had not made sufficient haste into the streets and squares, the only places of safety. At length the horrible effects of the first shock ceased, but the tranquillity was of short duration, the concussions swiftly succeeding each other. The fort of Callao also sunk into ruins; but what it suffered from the earthquake in its building was inconsiderable, when compared to the dreadful catastrophe which followed; for the sea, as is usual on such occasions, receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, and suddenly buried Callao and the neighbouring country in its flood. This, however, was not entirely effected by the first swell of the waves, for the sea retiring farther, returned with still greater impetuosity, and covered both the walls and other buildings of the place; so that what even had escaped the first inundation, was totally overwhelmed by those succeeding mountainous waves. Twenty-three ships and vessels, great and small, were then in the harbour, nineteen of which were sunk, and the other four, among which was a frigate named St. Fermin, were carried by the force of the waves to a considerable distance up the country. This terrible inundation and earthquake extended to other parts on the coast, and several towns underwent the same fate as the city of Lima, where the number of persons who perished within two days after it began, amounted, according to the bodies found, to one thousand three hundred, besides the maimed and wounded, many of whom lived only a short time in great torture.

The

The country of Lima enjoys great fertility, producing all kinds of grain, and a prodigious variety of fruit. Here industry and art supply that moisture which the clouds withhold. The ancient Incas of Peru caused small canals to be formed, in order to conduct the waters of the rivers to every part of the country. The Spaniards, finding these useful works executed to their hands, had only to keep them in order, and by these are watered spacious fields of barley, large meadows, plantations, vineyards and gardens, all yielding uncommon plenty. Lima differs from Quito, where the fruits of the earth have no determined season, for here the harvest is gathered in, and the trees drop their leaves in the proper season.

Although the summer here is hot, yet venomous creatures are unknown; and the same may be said of the territory called Valles, though here are some ports, as Tumbes and Piura, where the heat is almost as great as that of Guayaquil. This singularity can therefore proceed from no other cause than the natural drought of the climate.

The audience of Lima is divided into four bishoprics, Truxillo, Guamanga, Cusco and Arequipa. The diocese of Truxillo lies to the north of the archiepiscopal diocese of Lima, and like all the others is divided into several jurisdictions. The city of Truxillo is seated in 8° 6' south latitude, in a pleasant situation, though in a sandy soil.

In the diocese of Guamanga is a rich quicksilver mine, from which the inhabitants of a neighbouring town procure their whole subsistence; the coldness of the air in that place checking the growth of all kinds of grain and fruit, so that they are obliged to purchase them from their neighbours. The quicksilver mines wrought here supply all the silver mines in Peru with that necessary mineral, and notwithstanding the prodigious quantities already extracted, no diminution is perceived.

Cusco, which gives name to another diocese, is the most ancient city in Peru, being of the same date with the empire of the Incas, and was founded by them as the capital of the empire. On the mountain contiguous to the north part of the city are the ruins of a famous fort built by the Incas, whence it appears, that their design was to inclose the whole mountain with a prodigious wall, of such construction as to render its ascent absolutely impracticable to an enemy, in order to prevent all approach to the city. This wall was entirely of freestone, and strongly built, some of the stones being of a prodigious

digious magnitude. The city of Cusco is nearly equal to that of Lima.

In this bishopric are several mines of gold and silver that are extremely rich.

The fourth diocese of the audience of Lima is Arequipa, which contains the city of the same name, one of the largest in all Peru: it is delightfully seated in a plain, the houses are well-built of stone, and are generally lofty, commodious, finely decorated on the outside, and neatly furnished within. The temperature of the air is extremely agreeable, the cold being never excessive, nor the heat troublesome, so that the fields are always clothed with verdure, and enamelled with flowers, as in a perpetual spring. But these advantages are allayed by its being frequently exposed to dreadful earthquakes, for by these convulsions of Nature it has been four times laid in ruins. The city is, however, very populous, and among its inhabitants are many noble families.

In this bishopric are several gold and silver mines, and in some parts are large vineyards, from which considerable quantities of wine and brandy are made. Among the other productions is Guinea pepper, in which the jurisdiction of Africa in this diocese carries on a very advantageous trade, the annual produce of these plantations bringing in no less than sixty thousand dollars per annum. The pods of this pepper are about a quarter of a yard in length, and when gathered are dried in the sun and packed up in bags of rushes, each bag containing an aroba or a quarter of a hundred weight; and thus they are exported to all parts. Other places of this jurisdiction are famous for vast quantities of large and excellent olives, far exceeding the finest produced in Europe, they being nearly the size of a hen's egg.

LOS CHARCOS.

The audience of Charcos, the last division of Peru, is equal in extent to that of Lima, but many of its parts are not so well inhabited, some being full of vast deserts and impenetrable forests; while others have extensive plains intercepted by the stupendous height of the Cordilleras: the country is inhabited only in such parts as are free from those inconveniences. It is bounded on the north by the diocese of Cusco, and reaches southward to Buenos Ayres; on the east it extends to Brasil; and on the west it reaches to the Pacific ocean, particularly at Atacama. The remainder of the province borders on the kingdom of Chili.

This audience is divided into the archbishopric of Plata and five bishoprics. We shall begin with the former.

The famous mountain of Potosi is known all over the commercial world for the immense quantity of silver it has produced. The discovery of this amazing treasure happened at the commencement of the year 1545, by a mere accident, which we shall mention afterwards. At a small distance from it are the hot medicinal baths, called Don Diego, whither some resort for health and others for diversion.

At the time when the first conquests were made, when emigrations were most frequent, the country of the Incas had a much greater reputation for riches than New-Spain, and, in reality, for a long time much more considerable treasures were brought away from it. The desire of partaking of them must necessarily draw thither, as was really the case, a greater number of Castilians. Though almost all of them went over thither with the hope of returning to their country to enjoy the fortune they might acquire, yet the majority settled in the colony. They were induced to this by the softness of the climate, the salubrity of the air, and the goodness of the provisions. Mexico presented not the same advantages, and did not give them reason to expect so much independence as a land infinitely more remote from the mother country.

Cusco attracted the conquerors in multitudes: they found this capital built on a ground that was very irregular, and divided into as many quarters as there were provinces in the empire. Each of the inhabitants might follow the usages of his native country, but every body was obliged to conform to the worship established by the founder of the monarchy. There was no edifice that had any grandeur, elegance or convenience, because the people were ignorant of the first elements of architecture. The magnificence of what they called the "palace of the sovereign, of the princes of the blood, and of the great men of his empire," consisted in the profusion of the metals that were lavished in decorating them. The temple of the Sun was distinguished above all other edifices; its walls were incrustated or sheathed with gold and silver, ornamented with divers figures, and loaded with the idols of all the nations whom the Incas had enlightened and subdued.

As it was not a solicitude for their own preservation which occupied the Spaniards at first, they had no sooner pillaged the immense riches which had been amassed at Cusco for four centuries, than they went

in great numbers in 1534, under the order of Sebastian de Benalcazar, to undertake the destruction of Quito. The other towns and boroughs of the empire were over-run with the same spirit of rapine; and the citizens and the temples were plundered in all parts.

Those of the conquerors, who did not take up their residence in the settlements which they found already formed, built towns on the sea-coasts, where before there were none; for the sterility of the soil had not permitted the Peruvians to multiply much there, and they had not been induced to remove thither from the extremity of their country, because they sailed very little. Païta, Truxillo, Callao, Pisca and Arica, were the roads which the Spaniards deemed most convenient for the communication they intended to establish among themselves and with the mother country. The different positions of these new cities determined the degree of their prosperity.

Those which were afterwards built in the inland parts of the country were erected in regions which presented a fertile soil, copious harvests, excellent pastures, a mild and salubrious climate, and all the conveniences of life. These places, which had hitherto been so well cultivated by a numerous and flourishing people, were now totally disregarded. Very soon they exhibited only a deplorable picture of a horrid desert; and this wildness must have been more melancholy and hideous than the dreary aspect of the earth before the origin of societies. The traveller, who was led by accident or curiosity into these desolate plains, could not forbear abhorring the barbarous and bloody authors of such devastations, while he reflected that it was not owing even to the cruel illusions of glory, and to the fanaticism of conquest, but to the stupid and abject desire of gold, that they had sacrificed so much more real treasure, and so numerous a population.

This insatiable thirst of gold, which neither tended to subsistence, safety nor policy, was the only motive for establishing new settlements, some of which have been kept up, while several have decayed, and others have been formed in their stead. The fate of them all has corresponded with the discovery, progress or declension of the mines to which they were subordinate.

Fewer errors have been committed in the means of procuring provisions. The natives had hitherto lived hardly on any thing but maize, fruits and pulse, for which they had used no other seasoning except salt and pimento. Their liquors, which were made from different roots, were more diversified; of these the chief

was the most usual; but the conquerors were not satisfied either with the liquors or with the food of the people they had subdued. They imported vines from the old world, which soon multiplied sufficiently in the sands of the coasts at Ica, Pisca, Nasca, Moquequa, and Truxillo, to furnish the colony with the wine and brandy it wanted. Olives succeeded still better, and yielded a great abundance of oil, which was much superior to that of the mother country. Other fruits were transplanted with the same success. Sugar succeeds so well, that none of any other growth can be compared to that which is cultivated in those parts, where it never rains. In the inland country wheat and barley were sown; and at length all the European quadrupeds were soon found grazing at the foot of the mountains.

This was a considerable step, but there still remained much more to be done. After they had provided for a better and a greater choice of subsistence, the next care of the Spaniards was to have a dress more commodious and more agreeable than that of the Peruvians. These were, however, better clothed than any other American nation. They owed this superiority to the advantage which they alone possessed, of having the lama and pacos, domestic animals, which served them for this use.

After the conquest, all the Indians were obliged to wear clothes. As the oppression under which they groaned did not allow them to exercise their former industry, they contented themselves with the coarser cloths of Europe, for which they were made to pay an exorbitant price. When the gold and silver which had escaped the rapacity of the conquerors were exhausted, they thought of re-establishing their national manufactures. These were some time after prohibited, on account of the deficiency which they occasioned in the exports of the mother country. The impossibility which the Peruvians found of purchasing foreign stuffs, and paying their taxes, occasioned permission to be given at the end of ten years for their re-establishment. They have not been discontinued since that time, and have been brought to as great a degree of perfection as it was possible they could be under a continual tyranny.

With the wool of the vicuna, a species of wild pacos, they make, at Cusco and its territory, stockings, handkerchiefs and scarfs. These manufactures would have been multiplied, if the spirit of destruction had not fallen on animals as well as on men. The same wool, mixed with that of the sheep imported thither from Europe, which have

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exceedingly degenerated, serves for carpets, and makes also tolerably fine cloth. Fleeces of inferior quality are employed in serges, druggets, and in all kinds of coarse stuffs.

The manufactures subservient to luxury are established at Arequipa, Cusco and Lima. In these three towns is made a prodigious number of gold toys and plate, for the use of private persons, and also for the churches. All these manufactures are but coarsely wrought, and mixed with a great deal of copper. We seldom discover more taste in their gold and silver laces and embroideries, which their manufactures also produce. This is not altogether the case in regard to their lace, which, when mixed with that of Europe, looks very beautiful. This last manufacture is commonly in the hands of the nuns, who employ in it the Peruvian girls, and the young mestees of the towns, who for the most part, before marriage, pass some years in the convent.

Other hands are employed in painting and gilding leather for rooms, in making with wood and ivory pieces of inlaid work and sculpture, and in drawing figures on the marble that is found at Cuzco, or on linen imported from Europe. These different works, which are almost all manufactured at Cusco, serve for ornaments for houses, palaces and temples; the drawing of them is not bad, but the colours are neither exact nor permanent. If the Indians, who invent nothing, but are excellent imitators, had able masters and excellent models, they would at least make good copyists. At the close of the last century, some works of a Peruvian painter, named Michael de St. Jacques, were brought to Rome, and the connoisseurs discovered marks of genius in them.

Though the Peruvians were unacquainted with coin, they knew the use of gold and silver, for they employed them in different kinds of ornaments. Independent of what the torrents and accident procured them of these metals, some mines had been opened of little depth. The Spaniards have not transmitted to us the manner in which these rich productions were drawn from the bosom of the earth. Their pride, which has deprived us of so much useful knowledge, undoubtedly made them think, that, in the inventions of a people whom they called barbarous, there was nothing that was worthy to be recorded.

The difference as to the manner in which the Peruvians worked their mines, did not extend to the mines themselves. The conquerors opened them on all sides. At first the gold mines tempted

the avarice of the greater number. Fatal experience discouraged those whom passion had not blinded: they clearly saw, that, for some enormous fortunes raised in this manner, great numbers, who had only moderate fortunes, were totally ruined. These mines sunk into such discredit, that, in order to prevent them from being abandoned, the government was obliged to take the twentieth part of their produce, instead of the fifth, which it at first received.

The mines of silver were more common, more equal, and richer. They even produced silver of a singular species, rarely found elsewhere. Towards the sea-coast great lumps of this metal are found in the sands.

There are a great number of other mines which are infinitely more important, and are found in the rocks and on the mountains. Several of them gave false hopes; such, in particular, was that of Ucuntaya, discovered in 1713: this was only an incrustation of almost massy silver, which at first yielded several millions, but was soon exhausted.

Others which were deeper have been alike deserted: their produce, though equal to what it was originally, was not sufficient to support the expense of working them, which augmented every day. The mines of Quito, Cusco and Arequipa, have experienced that revolution which awaits many of the rest.

There are greater numbers of very rich mines which the waters have invaded. The disposition of the ground, which from the summit of the Cordilleras goes continually shelving to the South sea, must necessarily render these events more common at Peru than in other places. This inconvenience, which with greater care and skill might often have been prevented or diminished, has been in some instances remedied.

Joseph Salcedo, about the year 1660, had discovered, not far from the town of Puna, the mine of Laycacota: it was so rich, that they often cut the silver with a chisel. Prosperity had so elevated the mind of the proprietor, that he permitted all the Spaniards, who came to seek their fortune in this part of the new world, to work some days on their own account, without weighing or taking any account of the presents he made them. This generosity drew around him an infinite number of people, whose avidity made them quarrel with each other, and the love of money made them take up arms and fall upon one another; and their benefactor, who had neglected no expedient to prevent and extinguish their sanguinary contentions;

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was hanged as being the author of them. Whilst he was in prison, the water got possession of his mine. Superstition soon made it imagined, that this was a punishment for the horrid act they had perpetrated against him. This idea of Divine vengeance was revered for a long time; but at last, in 1740, Diego de Bachna associated with other opulent people to avert the springs which had deluged so much treasure. The labours which this difficult undertaking required were not finished till 1754. The mine yields as much now as it did at first. But mines still richer than this have been discovered: such, for example, is that of Potosi, which was found in the same country where the Incas worked that of Porco.

An Indian, named Hualpa, in 1555, pursuing some deer, in order to climb certain steep rocks laid hold of a bush, the roots of which loosened from the earth, and brought to view an ingot of silver. The Indian had recourse to it for his own use, and never failed to return to his treasure every time that his wants or his desires solicited him to it. The change that happened in his fortune was remarked by one of his countrymen, and he discovered to him the secret. The two friends could not keep their counsel and enjoy their good fortune: they quarrelled; on which the indiscreet confident discovered the whole to his master, Villaroell, a Spaniard who was settled in the neighbourhood. Upon this the mine became known, and was worked, and a great number of them were found in its vicinity; the principal of which are in the northern part of the mountain, and their direction is from north to south. The most intelligent people of Peru have observed, that this is in general the direction of the richest mines.

The fame of what was passing at Potosi soon spread abroad, and there was quickly built at the foot of the mountain a town, consisting of sixty thousand Indians and ten thousand Spaniards. The sterility of the soil did not prevent its being immediately peopled. Corn, fruit, flocks, American stuffs, European luxuries, arrived there from every quarter. Industry, which every where follows the current of money, could not search for it with so much success as at its source. It evidently appeared, that in 1738 these mines produced annually near nine hundred and seventy-eight thousand pounds, without reckoning the silver which was not registered, and what had been carried off by fraud. From that time the produce has been so much diminished, that no more than one eighth part of the coin which was formerly struck is now made.

At the mines of Potosi, and all the mines of South-America, the Spaniards, in purifying their gold and silver, use mercury, with which they are supplied from Guança Velica. The common opinion is, that this mine was discovered in 1564: the trade of mercury was then still free; it became an exclusive trade in 1571: at this period all the mines of mercury were shut, and that of Guança Velica alone was worked, the property of which the king reserved to himself. It is not found to diminish. This mine is dug in a prodigiously large mountain, sixty leagues from Lima. In its profound abyss are seen streets, squares, and a chapel, where the mysteries of religion on all festivals are celebrated: millions of flambeaux are continually kept to enlighten it.

Private people, at their own expense, work the mine of Guança Velica. They are obliged to deliver to government, at a stipulated price, all the mercury they extract from it. As soon as they have procured the quantity which the demands of one year require, the work is suspended. Part of the mercury is sold on the spot, and the rest is sent to the royal magazines throughout all Peru, from whence it is delivered out at the same price it is sold in Mexico. This arrangement, which has occasioned many of the mines to drop, and prevented others from being opened, is inexcusable in the Spanish system: the court of Madrid, in this respect, merits the same reproaches as a ministry in other countries would incur, that would be blind enough to lay a duty on the implements of agriculture.

The mine of Guança Velica generally affects those who work in it with convulsions: this and the other mines, which are not less unhealthy, are all worked by the Peruvians. These unfortunate victims of an insatiable avarice are crowded all together and plunged naked into these abysses, the greatest part of which are deep, and all excessively cold. Tyranny has invented this refinement in cruelty, to render it impossible for any thing to escape its restless vigilance. If there are any wretches who long survive such barbarity, it is the use of cocoa that preserves them.

In the Cordilleras, near the city of Paz, is a mountain of remarkable height, called Illimani, which doubtless contains immense riches; for a crack of it being some years ago severed by a flash of lightning, and falling on a neighbouring mountain, such a quantity of gold was found in the fragments, that for some time that metal was sold at Paz for eight pieces of eight per ounce; but its summit
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being perpetually covered with ice and snow, no mine has been opened in the mountain.

The city of La Paz is of a middling size, and from its situation among the breaches of the Cordilleras, the ground on which it stands is unequal, and it is also furrounded by mountains. When the river Titicaca is increased, either by the rains, or the melting of the snow on the mountains, its current forces along large masses of rocks with some grains of gold, which are found after the flood has subsided. Hence some idea may be formed of the riches inclosed in the bowels of these mountains, a remarkable proof of which appeared in the year 1730, when an Indian, washing his feet in the river, discovered so large a lump of gold, that the Marquis de Castle Fuerte gave twelve thousand pieces of eight for it, and sent it as a present to the King of Spain.

HISTORY OF
C H I L I.

CHILI is situated between 25° and 45° south latitude, and 65° and 85° west longitude; its length is one thousand two hundred and sixty miles, and its greatest breadth five hundred and eighty: it is bounded on the north, by Peru; on the east, by Paragua or La Plata; on the south, by Patagonia; and on the west, by the Pacific ocean. It lies on both sides of the Andes; Chili Proper lies on the west, and Cuyo or Cutio, on the east. The principal towns in the former are St. Jago and Baldivia; in the latter, St. John de Frontiera.

The first attempt of the Spaniards upon this country was made by Almagro in the year 1535, after he and Pizaro had completed the conquest of Peru. He set out on his expedition to Chili with a considerable body of Spaniards and auxiliary Indians. For two hundred leagues he was well accommodated with every necessary by the Indians, who had been subjects of the Emperors of Peru; but reaching the barren country of Charcos, his troops became discontented through the hardships they suffered, which determined Almagro to climb the mountains called Cordilleras, in order to get the sooner into Chili; being ignorant of the invaluable mines of Potosi, contained in the province of Charcos, where he then was. At that time the Cordilleras were covered with snow, the depth of which obliged him to dig his way through it. The cold made such an impression on his naked Indians, that it is computed no less than ten thousand of them perished on these dreadful mountains, one hundred and fifty of the Spaniards sharing the same fate, while many of the survivors lost their fingers and toes through the excess of cold. At last, after encountering incredible difficulties, Almagro reached a fine, temperate, and fertile plain on the opposite side of the Cordilleras, where he was received with the greatest kindness by the natives. These poor savages, taking the Spaniards for deputies of their god

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Virachoca, immediately collected for them an offering of gold and silver, worth two hundred and ninety thousand ducats; and soon after brought a present to Almagro worth three hundred thousand more. These offerings only determined him to conquer the whole country as soon as possible. The Indians, among whom he now was, had acknowledged the authority of the Peruvian Incas, or Emperors, and consequently gave Almagro no trouble. He therefore marched immediately against those who had never been conquered by the Peruvians, and inhabited the southern parts of Chili. These savages fought with great resolution, and disputed every inch of ground; but in five months time the Spaniards had made such progress, that they must infallibly have reduced the whole province in a very little time, had not Almagro returned to Peru, in consequence of a commission sent him from Spain.

In 1540, Pizaro having overcome and put Almagro to death, sent into Chili, Baldivia or Valdivia, who had learned the rudiments of war in Italy, and was reckoned one of the best officers in the Spanish service. As he penetrated southward, however, he met with much opposition; the confederated caziques frequently gave him battle, and displayed great courage and resolution, but could not prevent him from penetrating to the valley of Mafiocho, which he found incredibly fertile and populous. Here he founded the city of St. Jago, and finding gold mines in the neighbourhood, forced the Indians to work in them, at the same time building a castle for the safety and protection of his new colony. The natives, exasperated at this slavery, immediately took up arms, attacked the fort, and though defeated and repulsed, set fire to the out works, which contained all the provisions of the Spaniards. Nor were they discouraged by this and many other defeats, but still continued to carry on the war with vigour. At last, Valdivia having overcome them in many battles, forced the inhabitants of the vale to submit; upon which he immediately set them to work in the mines of Quilotta. This indignity offered to their countrymen redoubled the fury of those who remained at liberty. Their utmost efforts, however, were as yet unable to stop Valdivia's progress. Having crossed the large rivers Maulle and Hata, he traversed a vast tract of country and founded the city of La Concepcion on the South sea coast; he erected fortresses in several parts of the country, in order to keep the natives in awe, and built the city called Imperial, about forty leagues to the southward of Concepcion. The Spanish writers say, that the neighbouring valley contained eighty thousand inhabitants of a

peaceable disposition, and who were even so tame as to suffer Valdivia to parcel out their lands among his followers, while they themselves remained in a state of inactivity. About sixteen leagues to the eastward of Imperial, the Spanish general laid the foundations of the city of Villa Rica, so called on account of the rich gold mines he found there. But his ambition and avarice had now involved him in difficulties from which he could never be extricated: he had extended his conquests beyond what his strength was capable of maintaining. The Chilefians were still as desirous as ever of recovering their liberties. The horses, fire arms, and armour of the Spaniards, indeed, appeared dreadful to them; but thoughts of endless slavery were still more so. In the course of the war they had discovered that the Spaniards were vulnerable and mortal men like themselves; they hoped, therefore, by dint of superiority in numbers, to be able to expel the tyrannical usurpers. Had all the nations joined in this resolution, the Spaniards had certainly been exterminated; but some of them were of a pacific disposition, while others considered servitude as the greatest of all possible calamities. Of this last opinion were the Araccians, the most intrepid people of Chili, and who had given Valdivia the greatest trouble. They all rose to a man, and chose Capaulican, a renowned hero among them, for their leader. Valdivia, however, received notice of their revolt sooner than they intended he should, and returned with all expedition to the vale of Araccea; but before he arrived, fourteen thousand of the Chilefians were there assembled under the conduct of Capaulican; he attacked them with his cavalry, and forced them to retreat into the woods, but could not obtain a complete victory, as they kept continually sallying out and harassing his men. At last Capaulican having observed, that fighting with such a number of undisciplined troops, only served to contribute to the defeat and confusion of the whole, divided his forces into bodies of one thousand each. These he directed to attack the enemy by turns, and though he did not expect that a single thousand would put them to flight, he directed them to make as long a stand as they could, when they were to be relieved and supported by another body, and thus the Spaniards would be at last wearied out and overcome. The event fully answered his expectations. The Chilefians maintained a fight for seven or eight hours, till the Spaniards, growing faint for want of refreshment, retired precipitately. Valdivia ordered them to possess a pass at some distance

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tance from the field, to stop the pursuit; but this design being was a discovered to the Chilefians of his page, who native of that country, the Spaniards were furrounded on all fides, and cut in pieces by the Indians. The general was taken and put to death; some fay with the tortures ufually inflicted by thofe favages on their prifoners; others, that he had melted gold poured down his throat; but all agree, that the Indians made flutes and other inftruments of his bones, and preferved his skull as a monument of their victory, which they celebrated by an annual feftival. After this victory, the Chilefians had another engagement with their enemies, in which alfo they proved victorious, defeating the Spaniards with the lofs of near three thousand men; and upon this they bent their whole force againft the colonies. The city of Conception being abandoned by the Spaniards, was taken and destroyed; but the Indians were forced to raife the fiege of Imperial, and their progrefs was at laft ftopped by Garcia de Mendoza, who defeated Capaulican, took him prifoner, and put him to death. No defeats, however, could difpirit the Chilefians; they continued the war for fifty years, and to this day they remain unconquered, and give the Spaniards more trouble than any other American nation. Their moft irrefconcilable enemies are the inhabitants of Araccea and Tucapel, thofe to the fouth of the river Bobio, or whofe country extends towards the Cordilleras. The manners of thefe people greatly refemble thofe of North-America, but feem to have a more warlike difpofition. It is a conftant rule with the Chilefians never to fue for peace. The Spaniards are obliged not only to make the firft overtures, but to purchafe it by prefents. They have at laft been obliged to abandon all thoughts of extending their conquefts, and reduced to cover their frontiers by erecting forts at proper diftances.

The Spanifh colonies in Chili are difperfed on the borders of the South fea. They are parted from Peru by a defert eighty leagues in breadth, and bounded by the ifland of Chiloe, at the extremity next the ftraits of Magellan. There are no fettlements on the coaft except thofe of Baldivia, Conception ifland, Valparaifo, and Coquimbo, or La Serena, which are all fea ports. In the inland country is St. Jago, the capital of the colony. There is no culture nor habitation at any diftance from thefe towns. The buildings in the whole province are low, made of unburnt brick, and moftly thatched. This practice is obferved on account of the frequent earthquakes, and is pro-

properly adapted to the nature of the climate, as to well as the indolence of the inhabitants.

The climate of Chili is one of the most wholesome in the whole world. The vicinity of the Cordilleras gives it such a delightful temperature as could not otherwise be expected in that latitude. Though gold mines are found in it, their richness has been too much extolled; their produce never exceeds two hundred and eighteen thousand seven hundred and fifty pounds per ann. The soil is prodigiously fertile. All the European fruits have improved in that happy climate. The wine would be excellent if nature were properly assisted by art; and the corn harvest is reckoned a bad one when it does not yield a hundred fold. With all these advantages, Chili has no direct intercourse with Spain; their trade is confined to Peru, Paraguay, and the savages on their frontiers. With these last they exchange their less valuable commodities for oxen, horses, and their own children, whom they are ready to part with for the most trifling things. This province supplies Peru with great plenty of hides, dried fruit, copper, salt meat, horses, hemp, lard, wheat, and gold; in exchange, it receives tobacco, sugar, cocoa, earthen ware, woollen cloth, linen, hats, made at Quito, and every article of luxury brought from Europe. The ships sent from Callao on this traffic were formerly bound to Conception bay, but now come to Valparaiso. The commerce between this province and Paraguay is carried on by land, though it is a journey of three hundred leagues, forty of which lie through the snows and precipices of the Cordilleras; but if it was carried on by sea, they must either pass the straits of Magellan, or double cape Horn, which the Spaniards always avoid as much as possible. To Paraguay are sent some woollen stuffs called ponchos, which are used for cloaks: also wines, brandy, oil, and chiefly gold; in return they receive wax, a kind of tallow fit to make soap, European goods, and negroes.

Chili is governed by a chief, who is absolute in all civil, political, and military affairs, and is also independent of the viceroy. The latter has no authority except when a governor dies, in which case he may appoint one in his room for a time, till Spain names a successor. If on some occasion the viceroy has interfered in the government of Chili, it was when he has been either authorized by a particular trust reposed in him by the court, or by the deference paid to the eminence of his office; or when he has been actuated by his

his own ambition to extend his authority.* In the whole province of Chili there are not twenty thousand white men, and not more than sixty thousand negroes, or Indians, able to bear arms. The military establishment amounted formerly to two thousand men; but the maintaining of them being found too expensive, they were reduced to five hundred at the beginning of this century.

* With respect to the power of the governor of Chili, it is doubtful whether the above is correct, as some writers assert that he is subordinate to the viceroy of Peru, in all matters relating to the government, to the finances, and to war, but independent of him as chief administrator of justice, and president of the royal Audience. Eleven inferior officers, distributed in the province, are charged, under his orders, with the details of administration.

HISTORY OF PARAGUAY, OR LA PLATA.

PARAGUAY is situated between 12° and 37° south latitude, and 50° and 75° west longitude; its length is one thousand five hundred miles, and its breadth one thousand. It is bounded on the north, by Amazonia; on the east, by Brazil; on the south, by Patagonia; and on the west, by Chili and Peru.

It is divided into six provinces, viz. PARAGUAY, PARANA, GUAIRA, URAGUA, TUCUMAN, and RIO DE LA PLATA.

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.*

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

* The grand river La Plata deserves a particular description. A Modenesse Jesuit, by the name of P. Cattanco, who sailed up this river, speaks in the following language concerning it: "While I resided in Europe, and read in books of history or geography that the river de la Plata was one hundred and fifty miles in breadth, I considered it as an exaggeration, because in this hemisphere we have no example of such vast rivers. When I approached its mouth, I had the most vehement desire to ascertain the breadth with my own eyes, and I have found the matter to be exactly as it was represented. This I deduce particularly from one circumstance: when we took our departure from Monte Viedo, a fort situated more than one hundred miles from the mouth of the river, and where its breadth is considerably diminished, we sailed a complete day before we discovered the land on the opposite side of the river; and when we were in the middle of the channel, we could not discover land on either side, and saw nothing but the sky and water, as if we had been in some great ocean. Indeed, we should have taken it to be sea, if the fresh water of the river, which was turbid like the Po, had not satisfied us that it was a river."

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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 plain for several hundred miles, extremely fertile, and produces cotton in great quantities; tobacco, and the valuable herb called paraguay, with a variety of fruits, and the 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 carcase being in a manner given into the bargain. A horse some time ago might be bought for a dollar, and the usual price of a bullock, chosen out of a 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 remarkable sweet and serene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholesome.

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, fifty leagues within its mouth, where it is seven leagues broad. This is one of the most considerable towns in South-America, the capital of this country, and the only place of traffic to the south of Brazil. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru, but no regular fleet comes hither as to the other parts of South-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 carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other. The benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portuguese, who keep magazines for that purpose in such parts of Brazil as lie near this country.

Buenos Ayres is regularly built, its streets are wide, the houses are extremely low, and each of them is accommodated with a garden. The public and private buildings which, sixty years ago, were all made of earth, are of more solid and commodious construction, since the natives have learned the art of making brick and lime. The number of inhabitants is about thirty thousand. One side of the town is defended by a fortress with a garrison of six or seven hundred men; the ships get to it by sailing up a river that wants depth, is full of islands, shoals, and rocks, and where storms are more frequent and more dreadful than on the ocean. It is necessary to

anchor every night on the spot where they come to, and on the most moderate days a pilot must go to sound the way for the ship; after having surmounted these difficulties, the ships are obliged, at the distance of three leagues from the town, to put their goods on board some light vessel, and to go to rest, and to wait for their cargoes at Incunado de Barragan, situated seven or eight leagues below.

Paragua sends annually into the kingdom of Peru as many as one thousand five hundred, or two thousand mules. They travel over dreary deserts for the distance of eight or nine hundred leagues. What is not man capable of doing, when necessity, resolution, and avarice are united? neither deep and miry swamps, nor summits of lofty mountains covered with eternal snow, can bar his progress. The province of Tucuman furnishes annually, sixteen or eighteen thousand oxen, and four or five thousand horses, brought forth and reared upon its own territory. Paragua sends several articles of commerce to Spain, but they are all brought from neighbouring districts. The only article it furnishes from its own territory is hides, all these are sent to Europe from Buenos Ayres.

We cannot quit this country without mentioning that extraordinary species of commonwealth which the Jesuits erected in the interior parts, and concerning which these crafty priests have endeavoured to keep strangers in the dark.

About the middle of the last century, those fathers represented to the court of Spain, that the 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. They insinuated, that were it not for those obstacles, 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 the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, nor to suffer any Spaniards to enter into this pale, without licences 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 shall be demanded, and the missions should become populous enough to supply them.

On these terms these Jesuits gladly entered upon the scene of action, and opened their spiritual campaign. They began by gathering

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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 amazed the world, and added much to their power, at the same time that it occasioned much envy against 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 men. The Jesuits left nothing undone that could confirm their subjection, or that could increase their number; and it is said that above three hundred and forty thousand families lived in obedience, and expressed an awe, bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or constraint; that the Indians were instructed in the military art, and could raise sixty thousand men well armed; that they lived in towns, were regularly clad, laboured in agriculture, exercised manufactures, some even aspired to the elegant arts, and that nothing could equal their submission to authority, 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 success, as to cause not only persons of both sexes, but even the magistrates, who were always chosen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with stripes, and by suffering persons of the highest distinction, within their jurisdictions, 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 for forming these missions. The Fathers would not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Mestizos, or even Indians, to come within their missions in Paraguay. In the year 1757, when part of this territory was ceded by Spain to the crown of Portugal in exchange for Saint Sacra-

ment, to make the Uragua 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. We were informed by the Spanish 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 removed from America, by royal authority, and their late subjects were put upon the same footing with the rest of the inhabitants of the country.

WITH respect to the islands belonging to the Spanish monarchy in this part of the globe, we shall notice them in another place; but in order to afford a more particular view of the Spanish interest in her South-American colonies, as well as of the policy pursued by her with respect to them, we shall offer a few additional general remarks on the government, ecclesiastical establishment, and system of trade carried on with them.

Notwithstanding the rapid depopulation of America, a very considerable number of the native race still remains both in Mexico and Peru, especially in those parts which were not exposed to the first fury of the Spanish arms, or desolated by the first efforts of their industry, still more ruinous. In Guatimala, Chiapa, Nicaragua, and the other provinces of the Mexican empire, which stretch along the South sea, the race of Indians is still numerous; their settlements in some places are so populous, as to merit the name of cities. In the three audiences into which New-Spain is divided, there are, as we have before mentioned, at least two millions of Indians; a pitiful remnant, indeed, of its ancient population, but such as still forms a body of people superior in number to that of all the other inhabitants of this extensive country. In Peru several districts, particularly in the kingdom of Quito, are occupied almost entirely by Indians. In other provinces they are mingled with the Spaniards, and in many of their settlements are almost the only persons who practise the mechanic arts, and fill most of the inferior stations in society.

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ciety. As the inhabitants both of Mexico and Peru were accustomed to a fixed residence, and to a certain degree of regular industry, less violence was requisite in bringing them to some conformity with the European modes of civil life. But wherever the Spaniards settled among the savage tribes of America, their attempts to incorporate with them have been always fruitless, and often fatal to the natives. Impatient of restraint, and disdainful labour as a mark of servility, they either abandoned their original seats, and sought for independence in mountains and forests inaccessible to their oppressors, or perished when reduced to a state repugnant to their ancient ideas and habits. In the districts adjacent to Carthagena, to Panama, and to Buenos Ayres, the desolation is more general than even in those parts of Mexico and Peru, of which the Spaniards have taken most full possession.

But the establishments of the Spaniards in the new world, though fatal to its ancient inhabitants, were made at a period when that monarchy was capable of forming them to the best advantage. By the union of all its petty kingdoms, Spain was become a powerful state, equal to so great an undertaking. Its monarchs having extended their prerogatives far beyond the limits which once circumscribed the regal power in every kingdom of Europe, were hardly subject to controul, either in concerting or in executing their measures.

Such was the power of the Spanish monarchs, when they were called to deliberate concerning the mode of establishing their dominion over the most remote provinces which had ever been subjected to any European state. In this deliberation they felt themselves under no *constitutional* restraint, and that as independent masters of their own resolves, they might issue the edicts requisite for modelling the government of the new colonies, by a mere act of prerogative.

This early interposition of the Spanish crown in order to regulate the policy and trade of its colonies, is a peculiarity which distinguishes their progress from that of the colonies of any other European nation. When the Portuguese, the English, and French, took possession of the regions in America, the advantages which these promised to yield were so remote and uncertain, that their colonies were suffered to struggle through a hard infancy, almost without guidance or protection from the parent state. But gold and silver, the first productions of the Spanish settlements in the new world, were more alluring, and immediately attracted the attention of their monarchs.

Though they had contributed little to the discovery, and almost nothing to the conquest of the new world, they instantly assumed the function of its legislators, and having acquired a species of dominion formerly unknown, they formed a plan for exercising it, to which nothing similar occurs in the history of human affairs.

The fundamental maxim of Spanish jurisprudence with respect to America, is to consider what has been acquired there as vested in the crown, rather than in the state. By the bull of Alexander VI. on which, as its great charter, Spain founded its right, all the regions that had been, or should be discovered, were bestowed as a free gift upon Ferdinand and Isabella. They and their successors were uniformly held to be the universal proprietors of the vast territories which the arms of their subjects conquered in the new world. From them all grants of land there flowed, and to them they finally returned. The leaders who conducted the various expeditions, the governors who presided over the different colonies, the officers of justice, and the ministers of religion, were all appointed by their authority, and removeable at their pleasure. The people who composed infant settlements were entitled to no privileges independent of the sovereign, or that served as a barrier against the power of the crown. It is true, that when towns were built, and formed into bodies corporate, the citizens were permitted to elect their own magistrates, who governed them by laws which the community enacted. Even in the most despotic states, this feeble spark of liberty is not extinguished; but in the cities of Spanish America, this jurisdiction is merely municipal, and is confined to the regulation of their own interior commerce and police. In whatever relates to public government, and the general interest, the will of the sovereign is law; no political power originates from the people; all centers in the crown, and in the officers of its nomination.

When the conquests of the Spaniards in America were completed, their monarchs, in forming the plan of internal policy for their new dominions, divided them into two immense governments, one subject to the viceroy of New-Spain, the other to the viceroy of Peru; the jurisdiction of the former extended over all the provinces belonging to Spain in the northern division of the American continent; under that of the latter, was comprehended whatever she possessed in South-America. This arrangement, which, from the beginning, was attended with many inconveniencies, became intolerable when the remote provinces of each vice-royalty began to improve in industry and

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and population. As a remedy for those evils, a third vice-royalty has been established in the present century at Santa Fé de Bogota, the capital of the new kingdom of Granada, the jurisdiction of which extends over the whole kingdom of Tierra Firmé and the province of Quito. Those viceroys not only represent the person of their sovereign, but possess his regal prerogatives within the precincts of their own governments, in their utmost extent. Like him, they exercise supreme authority in every department of government, civil, military and criminal. They have the sole right of nominating the persons who hold many offices of the highest importance, and the occasional privilege of supplying those which, when they become vacant by death, are in the royal gift, until the successor appointed by the king shall arrive. The external pomp of their government is suited to its real dignity and power. Their courts are formed upon the model of that at Madrid, with horse and foot guards, a household regularly established, numerous attendants, and ensigns of command, displaying such magnificence as hardly retains the appearance of delegated authority.

But as the viceroys cannot discharge in person the functions of a supreme magistrate in every part of their extensive jurisdiction, they are aided in their government by officers and tribunals similar to those in Spain. The conduct of civil affairs in the various provinces and districts, into which the Spanish dominions in America are divided, is committed to magistrates of various orders and denominations; some appointed by the king, others by the viceroy, but all subject to the command of the latter, and amenable to his jurisdiction. The administration of justice is vested in tribunals, known by the name of Audiencias, and formed upon the model of the court of chancery in Spain. These are eleven in number, and dispense justice to as many districts, into which the Spanish dominions in America are divided. The number of judges in the court of Audience is various, according to the extent and importance of their jurisdiction. The station is no less honourable than lucrative. Both civil and criminal causes come under their cognizance, and for each peculiar judges are set apart. The Spanish viceroys have often attempted to intrude themselves into the seat of justice, and with an ambition which their distance from the controul of a superior rendered bold, have aspired at a power which even their master does not venture to assume. In order to check an usurpation which must have annihilated justice and security in the Spanish colonies, by subjecting
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the lives and property of all to the will of a single man, the viceroys have been prohibited, in the most explicit terms, by repeated laws, from interfering in the judicial proceedings of the courts of Audience, or from delivering an opinion, or giving a voice with respect to any point litigated before them. In some particular cases, in which any question of civil right is involved, even the political regulations of the viceroy may be brought under the review of the court of Audience, which, in those instances, may be deemed an intermediate power placed between him and the people, as a constitutional barrier to circumscribe his jurisdiction. But as legal restraints on a person who represents the sovereign, and is clothed with his authority, are little suited to the genius of Spanish policy, the hesitation and reserve with which it confers this power on the courts of Audience are remarkable. They may advise, they may remonstrate; but, in the event of a direct collision between their opinion and the will of the viceroy, what he determines must be carried into execution, and nothing remains for them but to lay the matter before the king and the council of the Indies. Upon the death of a viceroy, without any provision of a successor by the king, the supreme power is vested in the court of Audience resident in the capital of the vice-royalty, and the senior judge, assisted by his brethren, exercises all the functions of the viceroy while the office continues vacant. In matters which come under the cognizance of the Audiences, in the course of their ordinary jurisdiction, as courts of justice, their sentences are final in every litigation concerning property of less value than six thousand pesos; but when the subject in dispute exceeds that sum, their decisions are subject to review, and may be carried by appeal before the royal council of the Indies.

In this council, one of the most considerable in the monarchy for dignity and power, is vested the supreme government of all the Spanish dominions in America. It was first established by Ferdinand, in the year 1511, and brought into a more perfect form by Charles V. in the year 1524. Its jurisdiction extends to every department, ecclesiastical, civil, military and commercial. All laws and ordinances relative to the government and police of the colonies originate there, and must be approved of by two-thirds of the members, before they are issued in the name of the king. All the offices, of which the nomination is reserved to the crown, are conferred in this council. To it each person employed in America, from the viceroy downwards, is accountable: it reviews their conduct, rewards their services,

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vices, and inflicts the punishments due to their malversations: before it, is laid all the intelligence, either public or secret, received from America, and every scheme of improving the administration, the police, or the commerce of the colonies, is submitted to its consideration. From the first institution of the council of the Indies, it has been the constant object of the catholic monarchs to maintain its authority, and to make such additions from time to time, both to its power and its splendor, as might render it formidable to all their subjects in the new world. Whatever degree of public order and virtue still remains in that country, where so many circumstances conspire to relax the former, and to corrupt the latter, may be ascribed in a great measure to the wise regulations and vigilant inspection of this respectable tribunal.

As the king is supposed to be always present in his council of the Indies, its meetings are held in the place where he resides. Another tribunal has been instituted, in order to regulate such commercial affairs as required the immediate and personal inspection of those appointed to superintend them: this is called Casa de la Contratacion, or the house of trade, and was established in Seville, the port to which commerce with the new world was confined, as early as the year 1501. It may be considered both as a board of trade and as a court of judicature: in the former capacity, it takes cognizance of whatever relates to the intercourse of Spain with America; it regulates what commodities should be exported thither, and has the inspection of such as are received in return: it decides concerning the departure of the fleets for the West-Indies, the freight and burden of the ships, their equipment and destination: in the latter capacity it judges with respect to every question, civil, commercial, or criminal, arising in consequence of the transactions of Spain with America; and in both these departments, its decisions are exempted from the review of any court but that of the council of the Indies.

Such is the great outline of that system of government which Spain has established in her American colonies. To enumerate the various subordinate boards and officers employed in the administration of justice, in collecting the public revenue, and in regulating the interior police of the country; to describe their different functions, and to enquire into the mode and effect of their operations, would prove a detail no less intricate than minute, and uninteresting.

The first object of the Spanish monarchs was to secure the productions of the colonies to the parent state, by an absolute prohibi-

tion of any intercourse with foreign nations. They took possession of America by right of conquest, and, conscious not only of the feebleness of their infant settlements, but aware of the difficulty in establishing their dominion over regions so extensive, or in retaining so many reluctant nations under the yoke, they dreaded the intrusion of strangers; they even shunned their inspection, and endeavoured to keep them at a distance from their coasts. This spirit of jealousy and exclusion, which at first was natural, and perhaps necessary, augmented as their possessions in America extended, and the value of them came to be more fully understood: in consequence of it, a system of colonizing was introduced, to which there had hitherto been nothing similar among mankind. In their American settlements, the Spanish monarchs took what was peculiar to each, and studied to unite them. By sending colonies to regions so remote, by establishing in each a form of interior policy and administration, under distinct governors, and with peculiar laws, they disjoined them from the mother country. By retaining in their own hands the rights of legislation, as well as that of imposing taxes, together with the power of nominating the persons who filled every department of executive government, civil or military, they secured their dependence upon the parent state. Happily for Spain, the situation of her colonies was such, as rendered it possible to reduce this new idea into practice. Almost all the countries which she had discovered and occupied lay within the tropics. The productions of that large portion of the globe are different from those of Europe, even in its most southern provinces. The qualities of the climate and of the soil naturally turn the industry of such as settle there into new channels. When the Spaniards first took possession of their dominions in America, the precious metals which they yielded were the only object that attracted their attention. Even when their efforts began to take a better direction, they employed themselves almost wholly in rearing such peculiar productions of the climate, as, from their rarity or value, were of chief demand in the mother country. Allured by vast prospects of immediate wealth, they disdained to waste their industry on what was less lucrative, but of superior moment. In order to render it impossible to correct this error, and to prevent them from making any efforts in industry which might interfere with those of the mother country, the establishment of several species of manufactures, and even the culture of the vine, or olive, are prohibited in the Spanish colonies, under severe penalties. They must trust entirely to the mother country

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country for the objects of primary necessity. Their clothes, their furniture, their instruments of labour, their luxuries, and even a considerable part of the provisions which they consume, were imported from Spain. During a great part of the sixteenth century, Spain, possessing an extensive commerce and flourishing manufactures, could supply with ease the growing demands of her colonies from her own stores. The produce of their mines and plantations was given in exchange for these: but all that the colonies received, as well as all that they gave, was conveyed in Spanish bottoms; no vessel belonging to the colonies was ever permitted to carry the commodities of America to Europe: even the commercial intercourse of one colony with another was either absolutely prohibited, or limited by many jealous restrictions. All that America yields flows into the ports of Spain; all that it consumes must issue from them. No foreigner can enter its colonies without express permission; no vessel of any foreign nation is received into their harbours; and the pains of death, with confiscation of moveables, are denounced against every inhabitant who presumes to trade with them. Thus the colonies are kept in a state of perpetual pupillage; and by the introduction of this commercial dependence, a refinement in policy, of which Spain set the first example to the European nations, the supremacy of the parent state hath been maintained over remote colonies during more than two centuries and a half.

Such are the maxims to which the Spanish monarchs seem to have attended in forming their new settlements in America: but they could not plant with the same rapidity that they had destroyed; and, from many concurring causes, their progress has been extremely slow in filling up the immense void which their devastation had occasioned. Migration and population has been so much damped, that sixty years after the discovery of the new world, the number of Spaniards, in all its provinces, is computed not to have exceeded fifteen thousand.

The mode in which property was distributed in the Spanish colonies, and the regulations established with respect to the transmission of it, whether by descent or by sale, were extremely unfavourable to population. In order to promote a rapid increase of people in any new settlement, property in land ought to be divided into small shares, and the alienation of it should be rendered extremely easy. But the rapaciousness of the Spanish conquerors of the new world paid no regard to this fundamental maxim of policy; and, as they possessed

possessed power, which enabled them to gratify the utmost extravagance of their wishes, many seized districts of great extent, and held them as *encomiendas*. By degrees they obtained the privilege of converting a part of these into *mayorazgos*, a species of fief, introduced into the Spanish system of feudal jurisprudence, which can neither be divided nor alienated. Thus a great portion of landed property, under this rigid form of entail, is withheld from circulation, and descends from father to son unimproved, and of little value either to the proprietor or to the community.

To this we may add, that the support of the enormous and expensive fabric of their ecclesiastical establishment has been a burden on the Spanish colonies, which has retarded the progress of population and industry. The payment of tithes is a heavy tax on industry; and if the exaction of them be not regulated and circumscribed by the wisdom of the civil magistrate, it becomes intolerable and ruinous: but, instead of any restraint on the claims of ecclesiastics, the inconsiderate zeal of the Spanish legislators admitted them into America in their full extent, and at once imposed on their infant colonies a burden which is in no slight degree oppressive to society, even in its most improved state.

By the famous regulations of Charles V. in 1542, the high pretensions of the conquerors of the new world, who considered its inhabitants as slaves, to whose service they had acquired a full right of property, were finally abrogated. From that period the Indians have been reputed freemen, and entitled to the *privileges of subjects*. When admitted into this rank, it was *deemed just*, that they should contribute towards the support and improvement of the society which had adopted them as members. But as no considerable benefit could be expected from the voluntary efforts of men unacquainted with regular industry, and averse to labour, the court of Spain found it necessary to fix and secure, by proper regulations, what it *thought* reasonable to exact from them. With this view, an annual tax was imposed upon every male from the age of eighteen to fifty; and at the same time, the nature as well as the extent of the services which they might be required to perform were ascertained with precision. This tribute varies in different provinces; but if we take that paid in New-Spain as a medium, its annual amount is nearly four shillings a head. Every Indian is either an immediate vassal of the crown, or depends upon some subject to whom the district in which he resides has been granted for a limited time, under the denomination

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nomination of an *encomienda*. In the former case, about three-fourths of the tax is paid into the royal treasury; in the latter, the same proportion of it belongs to the holder of the grant.

The benefit arising from the services of the Indians accrues either to the crown, or to the holder of the *encomienda*, according to the same rule observed in the payment of tribute: those services, however, which can now be legally exacted, are very different from the tasks originally imposed upon the Indians. The nature of the work which they must perform is defined, and a recompence is granted for their labour. The stated services demanded of the Indians may be divided into two branches: they are either employed in works of primary necessity, without which society cannot subsist comfortably, or are compelled to labour in the mines, from which the Spanish colonies derive their chief value and importance. In consequence of the former, they are obliged to assist in the culture of maize and other grain of necessary consumption; in tending cattle; in erecting edifices of public utility; in building bridges, and in forming high roads; but they cannot be constrained to labour in raising vines, olives and sugar-canes, or any species of cultivation, which has for its object the gratification of luxury or commercial profit. In consequence of the latter, the Indians are compelled to undertake the more unpleasant task, of extracting ore from the bowels of the earth, and of refining it by successive processes, no less unwholesome than operose.

The mode of exacting both these services is the same. The Indians are called out successively in divisions, termed *Mitas*, and no person can be compelled to go but in his turn. In Peru, the number called out must not exceed the seventh part of the inhabitants in any district. In New-Spain, where the Indians are more numerous, it is fixed at four in the hundred. During what time the labour of such Indians as are employed in agriculture continues, we have not been able to learn: but in Peru, each *mita*, or division, destined for the mines, remains there six months; and while engaged in this service, a labourer never receives less than two shillings a day, and often earns more than double that sum. No Indian, residing at a greater distance than thirty miles from a mine, is included in the *mita*, or division employed in working it; nor are the inhabitants of the low country compelled to remove from that warm climate to the cold elevated regions where minerals abound.

The Indians who live in the principal towns are entirely subject to the Spanish laws and magistrates, but in their own villages they are governed by *cáziques*, some of whom are the descendants of their ancient lords, others are named by the Spanish viceroys. These regulate the petty affairs of the people under them, according to maxims transmitted to them by tradition from their ancestors. A certain portion of the reserved fourth of the annual tribute is destined for the salary of the *cáziques* and protectors; another is applied to the maintenance of the clergy employed in the instruction of the Indians. Another part seems to be appropriated for the use of the Indians themselves, and is applied for the payment of their tribute in years of famine, or when a particular district is affected by any extraordinary local calamity. Besides this, provision is made by various laws, that hospitals shall be founded in every new settlement for the reception of Indians. Such hospitals have accordingly been erected, both for the indigent and infirm, in Lima, in Cuzco, and in Mexico, where the Indians, on the whole, may be said to be treated with tenderness and humanity. Such are the leading principles in the jurisprudence and policy by which the Indians are now governed in the provinces belonging to Spain.

Together with the form of civil government in the Spanish colonies, the peculiarities in their ecclesiastical constitution merit consideration. Notwithstanding the superstitious veneration with which the Spaniards are devoted to the holy see, the vigilant and jealous policy of Ferdinand early prompted him to take precautions against the introduction of the papal dominion into America. With this view, he solicited Alexander VI. for a grant to the crown of the tythes in all the newly-discovered countries, which he obtained on condition of his making provision for the religious instruction of the natives. Soon after Julius II. conferred on him, and his successors, the right of patronage, and the absolute disposal of all ecclesiastical benefices there. In consequence of those grants, the Spanish monarchs have become in effect the heads of the American church: in them the administration of its revenues is vested, and their nomination of persons to supply vacant benefices is instantly confirmed by the pope. Thus, in all Spanish America, authority of every species centers in the crown: there no collision is known between spiritual and temporal jurisdiction; the king is the only superior, his name alone is heard of, and no dependence upon any foreign power has been introduced.

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The hierarchy is established in the same form as in Spain, with its full train of archbishops, bishops, deans and other dignitaries. The inferior clergy are divided into three classes, under the denomination of curas, doctrineros and misioneros. The first are parish priests in those parts of the country where the Spaniards have settled; the second have the charge of such districts as are inhabited by Indians subjected to the Spanish government, and living under its protection; the third are employed in instructing and converting those fiercer tribes which disdain submission to the Spanish yoke, and live in remote or inaccessible regions, to which the Spanish arms have not penetrated. So numerous are the ecclesiastics of all those various orders, and such the profuse liberality with which many of them are endowed, that the revenues of the church in America are immense.

In viewing the state of colonies, where not only the number but influence of ecclesiastics is so great, the character of this powerful body is an object that merits particular attention. A considerable part of the secular clergy in Mexico and Peru are natives of Spain. As persons long accustomed, by their education, to the retirement and indolence of academic life are more incapable of active enterprise, and less disposed to strike into new paths, than any order of men, the ecclesiastical adventurers by whom the American church is recruited, are commonly such as, from merit or rank in life, have little prospect of success in their own country. Accordingly, the secular priests in the new world are still less distinguished than their brethren in Spain for literary accomplishments of any species; and though, by the ample provision which has been made for the American church, many of its members enjoy the ease and independence which are favourable to the cultivation of science, the body of secular clergy has hardly, during two centuries and a half, produced one author whose works convey such useful information, or possess such a degree of merit, as to be ranked among those which attract the attention of enlightened nations. But the greatest part of the ecclesiastics in the Spanish settlements are regulars. The first attempt to instruct and convert the Americans was made by monks, and, as soon as the conquest of any province was completed, and its ecclesiastical establishment began to assume some form, the popes permitted the missionaries of the four mendicant orders, as a reward for their services, to accept of parochial charges in America, to perform all spiritual functions, and to receive the tithes and other emoluments of the benefice, without depending on the jurisdiction

of the bishop of the diocese, or being subject to his censures. In consequence of this, a new career of usefulness, as well as new objects of ambition, presented themselves. Whenever a call is made for a fresh supply of missionaries, men of the most ardent and aspiring minds, impatient under the restraint of a cloister, weary of its insipid uniformity, and fatigued with the irksome repetition of its frivolous functions, offer their service with eagerness, and repair to the new world in quest of liberty and distinction: nor do they pursue distinction without success; the highest ecclesiastical honours, as well as the most lucrative preferments in Mexico and Peru, are often in the hands of regulars; and it is chiefly to the monastic orders that the Americans are indebted for any portion of science that is cultivated among them. They are almost the only Spanish ecclesiastics from whom we have received any accounts, either of the civil or natural history of the various provinces in America.

From this brief survey, some idea may be formed of the interior state of the Spanish colonies. The system of commercial intercourse between them comes next in order to be explained. If the dominions of Spain in the new world had been of such moderate extent, as bore a due proportion to the parent state, the progress of her colonizing might have been attended with the same benefit as that of other nations: but when, in less than half a century, her insatiable rapacity had seized on countries larger than all Europe, her inability to fill such vast regions with a number of inhabitants sufficient for the cultivation of them, was so obvious, as to give a wrong direction to all the efforts of the colonists. They did not form compact settlements, where industry, circumscribed within proper limits, both in its views and operations, is conducted with that sober, persevering spirit, which gradually converts whatever is in its possession to a proper use, and derives thence the greatest advantage. Instead of this, the Spaniards, seduced by the boundless prospect which opened to them, divided their possessions in America into governments of great extent. As their number was too small to attempt the regular culture of the immense provinces, which they occupied rather than peopled, they bent their attention to a few objects, that allured them with hopes of sudden and exorbitant gain, and turned away with contempt from the humbler paths of industry, which lead more slowly, but with greater certainty, to wealth and increase of national strength.

Of all the methods by which riches may be acquired, that of searching for the precious metals is one of the most inviting to men, who are either unaccustomed to the regular assiduity with which the culture of the earth and the operations of commerce must be carried on, or who are so enterprising and rapacious as not to be satisfied with the gradual returns of profit which they yield. Accordingly, as soon as the several countries in America were subjected to the dominion of Spain, this was almost the only method of acquiring wealth which occurred to the adventurers by whom they were conquered. Such provinces of the continent as did not allure them to settle, by the prospect of their affording gold and silver, were totally neglected. Those in which they met with a disappointment of the sanguine expectations they had formed were abandoned. Even the value of the islands, the first-fruits of their discoveries, and the first object of their attention, sunk so much in their estimation, when the mines which had been opened in them were exhausted, that they were deserted by many of the planters, and left to be occupied by more industrious possessors. All crowded to Mexico and Peru, where the quantities of gold and silver found among the natives, who searched for them with little industry and less skill, promised an unexhausted store; as the recompence of more intelligent and persevering efforts.

During several years, the ardour of their researches was kept up by hope rather than success. At length, the rich silver mines of Potosi, in Peru, were accidentally discovered in the year 1545, by an Indian, as he was clambering up the mountain in pursuit of a llama which had strayed from his flock. Soon after the mines of Sarcotecas, in New-Spain, little inferior to the other in value, were opened. From that time, successive discoveries have been made in both colonies, and silver mines are now so numerous, that the working of them, and of some few mines of gold in the provinces of Tierra Firme, and the new kingdom of Granada, has become the capital occupation of the Spaniards, and is reduced into a system no less complicated than interesting. To describe the nature of the various ores, the mode of extracting them from the bowels of the earth, and to explain the several processes by which the metals are separated from the substances with which they are mingled, either by the action of fire, or the attractive powers of mercury, is the province of the natural philosopher or chymist, rather than of the historian.

The exuberant profusion with which the mountains of the new world poured forth their treasures astonished mankind, who had been hitherto accustomed to receive a penurious supply of the precious metals, from the more scanty stores contained in the mines of the ancient hemisphere. According to principles of computation, which appear to be extremely moderate, the quantity of gold and silver that has been regularly entered in the ports of Spain, is equal in value to four millions sterling annually, reckoning from the year 1492, in which America was discovered, to the present time. Immense as this sum is, the Spanish writers contend, that as much more ought to be added to it, in consideration of treasure which has been extracted from the mines, and imported fraudulently into Spain without paying duty to the king. By this account, Spain has drawn from the new world a supply of wealth, amounting to more than two thousand millions of pounds sterling.

The mines, which have yielded this amazing quantity of treasure, are not worked at the expense of the crown, or of the public. In order to encourage private adventurers, the person who discovers and works a new vein is entitled to the property of it. Upon laying his claim to such a discovery before the governor of the province, a certain extent of land is measured off, and a certain number of Indians allotted him, under the obligation of his opening the mine within a limited time, and of his paying the customary duty to the king for what it shall produce. Invited by the facility with which such grants are obtained, and encouraged by some striking examples of success in this line of adventure, not only the sanguine and the bold, but the timid and diffident, enter upon it with astonishing ardour. The charms of this pursuit, like the rage for deep play, are so bewitching, and take such full possession of the mind, as even to give a new bent to the natural temper. Under its influence the cautious become enterprising, and the covetous profuse. Powerful as this charm naturally is, its force is augmented by the arts of an order of men known in Peru by the cant name of *searchers*: these are commonly persons of desperate fortunes, who availing themselves of some skill in mineralogy, accompanied with the insinuating manner and confident pretensions peculiar to projectors, address the wealthy and the credulous: by plausible descriptions of the appearances which they have discovered of rich veins hitherto unexplored; by producing, when requisite, specimens of promising ore; by affirming, with an imposing assurance, that success is certain, and that the

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expense must be trifling, they seldom fail to persuade; an association is formed, a small sum is advanced by each co-partner, the mine is opened, the searcher is entrusted with the sole direction of every operation, unforeseen difficulties occur, new demands of money are made, but amidst a succession of disappointments and delays, hope is never extinguished, and the ardour of expectation hardly abates.

Such is the spirit that must be formed, wherever the active exertions of any society are chiefly employed in working mines of gold and silver. No spirit is more adverse to such improvement in agriculture and commerce, as render a nation really opulent.

But in the Spanish colonies, government is studious to cherish a spirit which it should have laboured to depress, and by the sanction of its approbation, augments that inconsiderate credulity which has turned the active industry of Mexico and Peru into such an improper channel. To this may be imputed the slender progress which Spanish America has made during two centuries and a half, either in useful manufactures, or in those lucrative branches of cultivation which furnish the colonies of other nations with their staple commodities.

As the activity and enterprise of the Spaniards originally took this direction, it is now so difficult to bend them a different way, that although from various causes, the gain of working mines is much decreased, the fascination continues, and almost every person who takes any active part in the commerce of New-Spain or Peru, is still engaged in some adventure of this kind.

But though mines are the chief object of the Spaniards, and the precious metals which these yield form the principal article in their commerce with America, the fertile countries which they possess there abound with other commodities of such value or scarcity, as to attract a considerable degree of attention. Cochineal is a production almost peculiar to New-Spain, of such demand in commerce, that the sale is always certain, and it yields such profit as amply rewards the labour and care employed in rearing the curious insects of which this valuable drug is composed, and preparing it for the market. Quinaquina, or jesuit's bark, the most salutary simple, perhaps, and of most restorative virtue, that Providence has made known unto man, is found only in Peru, to which it affords a lucrative branch of commerce. The indigo of Guatimala is superior in quality to that of any province in America, and cultivated to a considerable extent. Cocoa, though not peculiar to the

Spanish colonies, attains to its highest state of perfection there, and from the great consumption of chocolate in Europe, as well as in America, is a valuable commodity. The tobacco of Cuba, of more exquisite flavour than any brought from the new world; the sugar raised in that island, in Hispaniola, and in New-Spain, together with drugs of various kinds, may be mentioned among the natural productions of America, which enrich the Spanish commerce. To these must be added, an article of no inconsiderable account, the exportation of hides, for which, as well as for many of those enumerated, the Spaniards are more indebted to the wonderful fertility of the country than to their own foresight and industry. The domestic animals of Europe, particularly horned cattle, have multiplied in the new world with a rapidity which almost exceeds belief. A few years after the Spaniards settled there, the herds of tame cattle became so numerous, that their proprietors, as we have before observed, reckoned them by thousands. Less attention being paid to them as they continued to increase, they were suffered to run wild, and spreading over a country of boundless extent, under a mild climate, and covered with rich pasture, their number became immense. They range over the vast plains which extend from Buenos Ayres towards the Andes, in herds of thirty or forty thousand; and the unlucky traveller who once falls in among them, may proceed several days before he can disentangle himself from among the crowd that covers the face of the earth, and seems to have no end. They are hardly less numerous in New-Spain, and in several other provinces; they are killed merely for the sake of their hides; and the slaughter at certain seasons is so great, that the stench of the carcases which are left in the field would infect the air if large packs of wild dogs, and vast flocks of gallinazos, or American vultures, the most voracious of all the feathered kind, did not instantly devour them. The number of those hides exported in every fleet to Europe is very great, and is a lucrative branch of commerce.

Almost all these may be considered as staple commodities peculiar to America, and different, if we except that last mentioned, from the productions of Spain.

When the importation into Spain of those various articles from her colonies first became active and considerable, her interior industry and manufactures were in a state so prosperous, that with the product of these she was able both to purchase the commodities of the new world, and to answer its growing demands. Under the reigns of

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Ferdinand and Isabella, and Charles V. Spain was one of the most industrious countries in Europe; her manufactures in wool, and flax, and silk, were so extensive, as not only to furnish what was sufficient for her own consumption, but to afford a surplus for exportation. When a market for them, formerly unknown, and to which she alone had access, opened in America, she had recourse to her domestic store, and found there an abundant supply. This new employment must naturally have added vivacity to the spirit of industry; nourished and invigorated by it, the manufactures, the population, and wealth of Spain might have gone on increasing in the same proportion with the growth of her colonies; but various causes prevented this. The same thing happens to nations as to individuals. Wealth, which flows in gradually, and with moderate increase, feeds and nourishes that activity which is friendly to commerce, and calls it forth into vigorous and well-conducted exertions; but when opulence pours in suddenly, and with too full a stream, it overturns all sober plans of industry, and brings along with it a taste for what is wild and extravagant, and daring in business or in action. Such was the great and sudden augmentation of power and revenue that the possession of America brought into Spain; and some symptoms of its pernicious influence upon the political operations of that monarchy soon began to appear.

When Philip II. ascended the Spanish throne, with talents far inferior to those of his father, and remittances from the colonies became a regular and considerable branch of revenue, the fatal operation of this rapid change in the state of the kingdom, both on the monarch and his people, was at once conspicuous. Philip, possessing that spirit of unceasing assiduity, which often characterises the ambition of men of moderate talents, entertained such an high opinion of his own resources, that he thought nothing too arduous for him to undertake; shut up himself in the solitude of the *escorial*, he troubled and annoyed all the nations around him. He waged open war with the Dutch and English; he encouraged and aided a rebellious faction in France; he conquered Portugal, and maintained armies and garrisons in Italy, Africa, and both the Indies. By such a multiplicity of great and complicated operations, pursued with ardour during the course of a long reign, Spain was drained both of men and money. Under the weak administration of his successor, Philip III. the vigour of the nation continued to decrease, and sunk into the lowest decline, when the inconsiderate bigotry of that monarch expelled at once near
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a million of his most industrious subjects, at the very time when the exhausted state of the kingdom required some extraordinary exertion of political wisdom to augment its numbers, and to revive its strength. Early in the seventeenth century, Spain felt such a diminution in the number of her people, that from inability to recruit her armies, she was obliged to contract her operations; her flourishing manufactures were fallen into decay; her fleets, which had been the terror of all Europe, were ruined; her extensive foreign commerce was lost; the trade between different parts of her own dominions was interrupted, and the ships which attempted to carry it on, were taken and plundered by enemies whom she once despised. Even agriculture, the primary object of industry in every prosperous state, was neglected, and one of the most fertile countries in Europe hardly raised what was sufficient for the support of its own inhabitants.

In proportion as the population and manufactures of Spain declined, the demands of her colonies continued to increase. The Spaniards, like their monarchs, intoxicated with the wealth which poured in annually upon them, deserted the paths of industry, to which they had been accustomed, and repaired with eagerness to those regions from whence this opulence issued. By this rage of emigration, another drain was opened, and the strength of the colonies augmented by exhausting that of the mother country.

Spain, thinned of people, and decreasing in industry, was unable to supply the growing demands of her colonies; she had recourse to her neighbours; the manufactures of the Low Countries, of England, of France, and of Italy, which her wants called into existence, or animated with new vivacity, furnished in abundance whatever she required. In vain did the fundamental law, concerning the exclusion of foreigners from trade with America, oppose this innovation. Necessity, more powerful than any statute, defeated its operations, and constrained the Spaniards themselves to concur in eluding it. The English, the French, and Dutch, relying on the fidelity and honour of Spanish merchants, who lend their names to cover the deceit, continue to send out their manufactures to America, and received the exorbitant price for which they are sold there, either in specie, or in the rich commodities of the new world. Neither the dread of danger, nor the allurements of profit, ever induced a Spanish factor to betray or defraud the person who confided in him; and that probity, which is the pride and distinction of the nation, contributes to its ruin. The treasure of the new world may therefore be said not to belong to Spain; before it reaches

reaches Europe, it is anticipated as the price of goods purchased from foreigners.

Thus the possessions of Spain in America have not proved a source of population and of wealth to her, in the same manner as those of other nations. In the countries of Europe, where the spirit of industry subsists in full vigour, every person settled in such colonies as are similar in their situation to those of Spain, is supposed to give employment to three or four at home in supplying his wants. But wherever the mother country cannot afford this supply, every emigrant may be considered as a citizen lost to the community, and strangers must reap all the benefit of answering his demands. Such has been the internal state of Spain from the close of the sixteenth century, and such her inability to supply the growing wants of her colonies.

The fatal effects of the disproportion between their demands, and her capacity of answering them, have been much increased by the mode in which Spain has endeavoured to regulate the intercourse between the mother country and the colonies. It is from her idea of monopolizing the trade with America, and debarring her subjects there from any communication with foreigners, that all her jealous and systematic arrangements have arisen; these are so singular in their nature and consequences, as to merit a particular explanation. In order to secure the monopoly at which she aimed, Spain did not vest the trade with her colonies in an exclusive company, a plan which has been adopted by nations more commercial, and at a period when mercantile policy was an object of greater attention, and ought to have been better understood. The Dutch gave up the whole trade with their colonies, both in the East and West-Indies, to exclusive companies. The English, the French, and the Danes, have imitated their example with respect to the East-Indian commerce, and the two former have laid a similar restraint upon some branches of their trade with the new world. The wit of man cannot, perhaps, devise a method for checking the progress of industry and population in a new colony more effectual than this. The interest of the colony, and of the exclusive company, must in every point be diametrically opposite; and as the latter possesses such advantages in this unequal contest, that it can prescribe at pleasure the terms of intercourse, the former must not only buy dear and sell cheap, but must suffer the mortification of having the increase of its surplus stock discour-

raged by those very persons to whom alone it can dispose of its productions.*

Spain, it is probable, was preserved from falling into this error in policy, by the high ideas which she early formed concerning the riches of the new world. Gold and silver were commodities of too high a value to vest a monopoly of them in private hands. The crown wished to retain the direction of a commerce so inviting, and in order to secure that, ordained the cargo of every ship fitted out for America, to be inspected by the officers of the Casa de Contratacion in Seville, before it could receive a licence to make the voyage; and that on its return, a report of the commodities which it brought should be made to the same board, before it could be permitted to land them. In consequence of this regulation, all the trade of Spain with the new world centered originally in the port of Seville, and was gradually brought into a form, in which it has been conducted with little variation from the middle of the sixteenth century, almost to our own times. For the greater security of the valuable cargoes sent to America, as well as for the more easy prevention of fraud, the commerce of Spain, with its colonies, was carried on by fleets which sailed under strong convoys; these fleets consisted of two squadrons, one distinguished by the name of the galleons, the other by that of the flota, are equipped annually. Formerly they took their departure from Seville, but as the port of Cadiz has been found more commodious, they have sailed from it since the year 1720.

The galleons destined to supply Terra Firma, and the kingdoms of Peru and Chili, with almost every article of luxury or necessary consumption that an opulent people can demand, touch first at Carthagena, and then at Porto Bello; to the former, the merchants of Santa Martha, Garaccas, the new kingdom of Granada, and several other provinces resort; the latter is the great mart for the rich commerce of Peru and Chili. At the season when the galleons are expected, the product of all the mines in these two kingdoms, together with their other valuable commodities, is transported by sea to Panama; from thence, as soon as the appearance of the fleet from Europe is announced, they are conveyed across the isthmus, partly on mules, and partly down the river Chagre to Porto Bello. This paltry village, the climate of which, from the pernicious union of

* Smith's Inquiry, ii. 171.

excessive heat, continual moisture, and the putrid exhalations arising from a rank soil, is more fatal to life than any perhaps in the known world, is immediately filled with people. From being the residence of a few negroes and mulattoes, and of a miserable garrison relieved every three months, Porto Bello assumes suddenly a very different aspect, and its streets are crowded with opulent merchants from every corner of Peru, and the adjacent provinces; a fair is opened, the wealth of America is exchanged for the manufactures of Europe; and during its prescribed term, as we have before observed, the richest traffic on the face of the earth is begun and finished, with that simplicity of transaction and that unbounded confidence which accompanies extensive commerce. The flota holds its course to Vera Cruz. The treasures and commodities of New-Spain, and the depending provinces, which were deposited at Puebla de los Angeles, in expectation of its arrival, are carried thither, and the commercial operations of Vera Cruz, conducted in the same manner with those of Porto Bello, are inferior to them only in importance and value. Both fleets, as soon as they have completed their cargoes from America, rendezvous at the Havannah, and return in company to Europe.

The trade of Spain with her colonies, while thus fettered and restricted, came necessarily to be conducted with the same spirit, and upon the same principles as that of an exclusive company. Being confined to a single port, it was of course thrown into a few hands, and almost the whole of it was gradually engrossed by a small number of wealthy houses, formerly in Seville and now in Cadiz. These, by combinations which they can easily form, may altogether prevent that competition which preserves commodities at their natural price; and by acting in concert, to which they are prompted by their mutual interest, they may raise or lower the value of them at pleasure; in consequence of this, the price of European goods in America is always high, and often exorbitant. A hundred, two hundred, and even three hundred per cent. are profits not uncommon in the commerce of Spain with her colonies. From the same ingrossing spirit it frequently happens, that traders of the second order, whose warehouses do not contain a complete assortment of commodities for the American market, cannot purchase from the more opulent merchants such goods as they want, at a lower price than that for which they are sold in the colonies. With the same vigilant jealousy that an exclusive company guards against the intrusion of the free

trader, whose overgrown monopolists endeavour to check the progress of every one whose incroachments they dread.* This restraint of the American commerce to one port, not only affects its domestic state, but limits its foreign operations. A monopolist may acquire more, and certainly will hazard less by a confined trade which yields exorbitant profit, than by an extensive commerce in which he receives only a moderate return of gain. It is often his interest not to enlarge, but circumscribe the sphere of his activity, and instead of calling forth more vigorous exertions of commercial industry, it may be the object of his attention to check and set bounds to them. By some such maxim the mercantile policy of Spain seems to have regulated its intercourse with America. Instead of furnishing the colonies with European goods in such quantity as might render both the price and the profit moderate; the merchants of Seville and Cadiz seem to have supplied them with a sparing hand, that the eagerness of competition amongst customers obliged to purchase in a scanty market, might enable the Spanish factors to dispose of their cargoes with exorbitant gain. About the middle of the last century, when the exclusive trade to America from Seville was in its most flourishing state, the burden of the two united squadrons of the galleons and flota did not exceed twenty-seven thousand five hundred tons. The supply which such a fleet could carry, must have been very inadequate to the demands of those populous and extensive colonies, which depended upon it for all the luxuries, and many of the necessaries of life.

Spain early became sensible of her declension from her former prosperity, and many respectable and virtuous citizens employed their thoughts in devising methods for reviving the decaying industry and commerce of their country. From the violence of the remedies proposed, it is evident how desperate and fatal the malady appeared.

Besides wild projects, many schemes, well-digested and beneficial, were suggested; but under the feeble monarchs with whom the reign of the Austrian line in Spain closed, incapacity and indecision are conspicuous in every department of government. Instead of taking for their model the active administration of Charles V. they affected to imitate the cautious procrastinating wisdom of Philip II. and destitute of his talents, they deliberated perpetually, but determined nothing.

* Smith's Inquiry, li. 171.

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No remedy was applied to the evils under which the national commerce, domestic as well as foreign, languished. These evils continued to increase, and Spain, with dominions more extensive and more opulent than any European state, possessed neither vigour, nor money, nor industry. At length the violence of a great national convulsion roused the slumbering genius of Spain. The efforts of the two contending parties in the civil war, kindled by the dispute concerning the succession of the crown at the beginning of this century, called forth, in some degree, the ancient spirit and vigour of the nation.

As soon as the Bourbons obtained quiet possession of the throne, they discerned this change in the spirit of the people, and took advantage of it. It was the first object of Philip V. to suppress an innovation which had crept in during the course of the war, and had overturned the whole system of the Spanish commerce with America. The English and Dutch, by their superiority in naval power, having acquired such command of the sea, as to cut off all intercourse between Spain and her colonies; Spain, in order to furnish her subjects in America with those necessaries of life, without which they could not exist, and as the only means of receiving from thence any part of their treasure, departed so far from the usual rigour of its maxims, as to open the trade with Peru to her allies the French. The merchants of St. Malo, to whom Louis XIV. granted the privilege of this lucrative commerce, engaged in it with vigour, and carried it on upon principles very different from those of the Spaniards. They supplied Peru with European commodities at a moderate price, and not in stinted quantity. The goods which they imported were conveyed to every province of Spanish-America in such abundance as had never been known in any former period. If this intercourse had been continued, the exportation of European commodities from Spain must have ceased, and the dependence of the colonies on the mother country have been at an end. The most peremptory injunctions were therefore issued, prohibiting the admission of foreign vessels into any port of Peru or Chili, and a Spanish squadron was employed to clear the South sea of intruders, whose aid was no longer necessary.

But though on the cessation of the war, which was terminated by the treaty of Utrecht, Spain obtained relief from one incroachment on her commercial system, she was exposed to another, which she deemed hardly less pernicious. As an inducement that might prevail

with Queen Anne to conclude a peace, which France and Spain desired with equal ardour, Philip V. not only conveyed to Great-Britain the *Affiento*, or contract for supplying the Spanish colonies with negroes, which had formerly been enjoyed by France, but granted it the more extraordinary privilege of sending annually to the fair of Porto Bello, a ship of five hundred tons, laden with European commodities. In consequence of this, British factories were established at Carthagená, Panama, Vera Cruz, Buenos Ayres, and other Spanish settlements. The veil with which Spain had hitherto covered the state and transactions of her colonies was removed. The agents of a rival nation, residing in the towns of most extensive trade, and of chief resort, had the best opportunities of becoming acquainted with the interior condition of the American provinces, of observing their stated and occasional wants, and of knowing what commodities might be imported into them with the greatest advantage. In consequence of information so authentic and expeditious, the merchants of Jamaica and other English colonies who traded to the Spanish main, were enabled to assort and proportion their cargoes so exactly to the demands of the market, that the contraband commerce was carried on with a facility, and to an extent unknown in any former period. This, however, was not the most fatal consequence of the *Affiento* to the trade of Spain. The agents of the British South sea company, under cover of the importation which they were authorized to make by the ship sent annually to Porto Bello, poured in their commodities on the Spanish continent, without limitation or restraint. Instead of a ship of five hundred tons, as stipulated in the treaty, they usually employed one which exceeded nine hundred tons in burden; she was accompanied by two or three smaller vessels, which mooring in some neighbouring creek, supplied her clandestinely with fresh bales of goods, to replace such as were sold. The inspectors of the fair, and officers of the revenue, gained by exorbitant presents, connived at the fraud. Thus, partly by the operations of the company, and partly by the activity of private interlopers, almost the whole trade of Spanish-America was ingrossed by foreigners. The immense commerce of the galleons, formerly the pride of Spain, and the envy of other nations, sunk to nothing, and the squadron itself reduced from fifteen thousand to two thousand tons, served hardly any purpose but to fetch home the royal revenue arising from the fifth on silver.

While Spain observed those incroachments, and felt their pernicious effects, it was impossible not to make some effort to restrain them. Her first expedient was to station ships of force, under the appellation of guarda costas, upon the coasts of those provinces, to which interlopers most frequently resorted. Some check was by this means given to the progress of the contraband trade, though in dominions so extensive, and so accessible by sea, hardly any number of cruisers was sufficient to guard against its inroads in every quarter. This interruption of an intercourse which had been carried on with so much facility, that the merchants in the British colonies were accustomed to consider it almost as an allowed branch of commerce, excited murmurs and complaints. These authorized in some measure, and rendered more interesting, by several unjustifiable acts of violence committed by the captains of the Spanish guarda costas, precipitated Great-Britain into a war with Spain, in consequence of which the latter obtained a final release from the Assiento, and was left at liberty to regulate the commerce of her colonies, without being restrained by any engagement with a foreign power.

As the formidable incroachments of the English on the American trade had discovered to the Spaniards the vast consumption of European goods in their colonies, and taught them the advantage of accommodating their importations to the occasional demand of the various provinces, they perceived the necessity of devising some method of supplying their colonies, different from their ancient one, of sending thither periodical fleets. That mode of communication had been found not only to be uncertain, as the departure of the galleons and flota was sometimes retarded by various accidents, and often prevented by the wars which raged in Europe; but long experience had shewn it to be ill adapted to afford America a regular and timely supply of what it wanted. The scarcity of European goods in the Spanish settlements frequently became excessive; their price rose to an enormous height; the vigilant eye of mercantile attention did not fail to observe this favourable opportunity, an ample supply was poured in by interlopers from the English, the French, and Dutch islands; and when the galleons at length arrived, they found the markets so glutted by this illicit commerce, that there was no demand for the commodities with which they were loaded. In order to remedy this, Spain has permitted a considerable part of her commerce with America to be carried on by register ships. These are fitted out during the intervals between the stated seasons when the galleons

galleons and flota sail, by merchants in Seville or Cadiz, upon obtaining a licence from the council of the Indies, for which they pay a very high premium, and are destined for those ports in America where any extraordinary demand is foreseen or expected. By this expedient, such a regular supply of the commodities, for which there is the greatest demand, is conveyed to the American market, that the interloper is no longer allured by the same prospect of excessive gain, or the people in the colonies urged by the same necessity to engage in the hazardous adventures of contraband trade.

In proportion as experience manifested the advantages of carrying on trade in this mode, the number of register ships increased, and at length, in the year 1748, the galleons, after having been employed upwards of two centuries, were finally laid aside. From that period there has been no intercourse with Chili and Peru but by single ships, dispatched from time to time as occasion requires, and when the merchants expect a profitable market will open. These ships sail round cape Horn, and convey directly to the ports in the South sea the productions and manufactures of Europe, for which the people settled in those countries were formerly obliged to repair to Porto Bello or Panama. These towns, as has been formerly observed, must gradually decline, when deprived of that commerce to which they owed their prosperity. This disadvantage, however, is more than compensated by the beneficial effects of this new arrangement, as the whole continent of South-America receives new supplies of European commodities with so much regularity, and in such abundance, as must not only contribute greatly to the happiness, but increase the population of all the colonies settled there. But as all the register ships destined for the South seas must still take their departure from Cadiz, and are obliged to return thither, this branch of the American commerce, even in its new and improved form, continues subject to the restraints of a species of monopoly, and feels all the pernicious effects of it.

Among the new tastes which the people of Europe have acquired, in consequence of importing the productions of those countries which they conquered in America, that for chocolate is one of the most universal. The use of this liquor, made with a paste formed of the nut or almond of the cocoa tree, compounded with various ingredients, the Spaniards first learned from the Mexicans; and it has appeared to them, and to the other European nations, so palatable, so nourishing, and so wholesome, that it has become a com-

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mercial article of considerable importance. The cacao tree grows spontaneously in several parts of the torrid zone, but the nuts of the best quality, next to those of Guatimala, on the South sea, are produced in the rich plains of Caraccas, a province of Terra Firma. In consequence of this acknowledged superiority in the quality of cacao in that province, and its communication with the Atlantic, which facilitates the conveyance to Europe, the culture of the cacao there is more extensive than in any district of America. But the Dutch, by the vicinity of their settlements in the small islands of Curazoa and Buen-Ayre, to the coast of Caraccas, gradually engrossed the greatest part of the cacao trade. The traffic with the mother country for this valuable commodity ceased almost entirely, and such was the supine negligence of the Spaniards, or the defects of their commercial arrangements, that they were obliged to receive from the hands of foreigners this production of their own colonies at an exorbitant price. In order to remedy an evil no less disgraceful than pernicious to his subjects, Philip V. in the year 1728, granted to a body of merchants an exclusive right to the commerce with Caraccas and Cumana, on condition of their employing, at their own expense, a sufficient number of armed vessels to clear the coast of interlopers. This society, distinguished sometimes by the name of the Company of Guipuscoa, from the province of Spain in which it is established, and sometimes by that of the Company of Caraccas, from the district of America to which it trades, has carried on its operations with such vigour and success, that Spain has recovered an important branch of commerce, which she had suffered to be wrested from her, and is plentifully supplied with an article of extensive consumption at a moderate price. Not only the parent state, but the colony of Caraccas, has derived great advantages from this institution; for although, at the first aspect, it may appear to be one of those monopolies, whose tendency is to check the spirit of industry, instead of calling it forth to new exertions, it has been prevented from operating in this manner by several salutary regulations, framed upon foresight of such bad effects, and of purpose to obviate them. The planters in the Caraccas are not left to depend entirely on the company, either for the importation of European commodities, or the sale of their own productions. The inhabitants of the Canary islands have the privilege of sending thither annually a register-ship of considerable burden; and from Vera Cruz, in New-Spain, a free trade is permitted in every port comprehended in the charter

charter of the company. In consequence of this, there is such a competition, that, both with respect to what the colonies purchase, and what they sell, the price seems to be fixed at its natural and equitable rate. The company has not the power of raising the former, or of degrading the latter at pleasure; and accordingly, since it was established, the increase of culture, of population, and of live stock, in the province of Caraccas, has been very considerable.

While Spain adhered with rigour to her ancient maxims concerning her commerce with America, she was so much afraid of opening any channel, by which an illicit trade might find admission into the colonies, that she almost shut herself out from any intercourse with them, but that which was carried on by her annual fleets. There was no establishment for a regular communication of either public or private intelligence between the mother country and its American settlements. From the want of this necessary institution, the operations of the state, as well as the business of individuals, were retarded or conducted unskilfully, and Spain often received from foreigners her first information with respect to very interesting events in her own colonies. But though this defect in police was sensibly felt, and the remedy for it was obvious, that jealous spirit with which the Spanish monarchs guarded the exclusive trade, restrained them from applying it. At length Charles III. surmounted those considerations which had deterred his predecessors, and in the year 1764 appointed packet-boats to be dispatched on the first day of each month from Corunna to the Havannah or Porto Rico. From thence letters are conveyed in smaller vessels to Vera Cruz and Porto Bello, and transmitted by post through the kingdoms of Terra Firma, Granada, Peru and New-Spain. With no less regularity packet-boats sail once in two months to Rio de la Plata, for the accommodation of the provinces to the east of the Andes. Thus provision is made for a speedy and certain circulation of intelligence throughout the vast dominions of Spain, from which equal advantages must redound to the political and mercantile interest of the kingdom. With this new arrangement, a scheme of extending commerce has been more immediately connected. Each of the packet-boats, which are vessels of some considerable burden, is allowed to take in half a loading of such commodities as are the product of Spain, and most in demand in the ports whither they are bound. In return for these they may bring home to Corunna an equal quantity of American productions. This may be considered as the first relaxations of those rigid laws, which

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which confined the trade with the new world to a single port, and the first attempt to admit the rest of the kingdom to some share in it.

It was soon followed by one more decisive. In the year 1765 Charles III. laid open the trade to the windward islands, Cuba, Hispaniola, Porto-Rico, Margarita and Trinidad, to his subjects in every province of Spain. He permitted them to sail from certain ports in each province, which are specified in the edict, at any season, and with whatever cargo they deemed most proper, without any other warrant than a simple clearance from the custom-house of the place whence they took their departure. He released them from the numerous and oppressive duties imposed on goods exported to America, and in place of the whole substituted a moderate tax of six in the hundred on the commodities sent from Spain. He allowed them to return either to the same port, or to any other where they might hope for a more advantageous market, and there to enter the homeward cargo, on payment of the usual duties. This ample privilege, which at once broke through all the fences which the jealous policy of Spain had been labouring, for two centuries and a half, to throw round its commercial intercourse with the new world, was soon after extended to Louisiana, and to the provinces of Yucatan and Campeachy.

Still, however, the commercial regulations of Spain, with respect to her colonies, are too rigid and systematical to be carried into complete execution. The legislature that loads trade with impositions too heavy, or fetters it by restrictions too severe, defeats its own intention, and is only multiplying the inducements to violate its statutes, and proposing an high premium to encourage illicit traffic. The Spaniards, both in Europe and America, being circumscribed in their mutual intercourse by the jealousy of the crown, or oppressed by its exactions, have their invention continually on the stretch how to elude its edicts. The vigilance and ingenuity of private interest discover means of effecting this, which public wisdom cannot foresee, nor public authority prevent. This spirit, counteracting that of the laws, pervades the commerce of Spain with America in all its branches, and from the highest departments in government descends to the lowest. The very officers appointed to check contraband trade are often employed as instruments in carrying it on; and the boards instituted to restrain and punish it, are the channels through which it flows. The king is supposed, by the most intelligent Spanish writers,

to be defrauded, by various artifices, of more than one-half of the revenue which he ought to receive from America; and as long as it is the interest of so many persons to screen those artifices from detection, the knowledge of them will never reach the throne.

Before we close this account of the Spanish trade in America, there remains one detached, but important branch of it, to be mentioned. Soon after his accession to the throne, Philip II. formed a scheme of planting a colony in the Philippine islands, which had been neglected since the time of their discovery; and he accomplished it by means of an armament fitted out from New-Spain. Manilla, in the island of Luconia, was the station chosen for the capital of this new establishment. From it an active commercial intercourse began with the Chinese, and a considerable number of that industrious people, allured by the prospect of gain, settled in the Philippine islands under the Spanish protection: they supplied the colony so amply with all the valuable productions and manufactures of the East, as enabled it to open a trade with America, by a course of navigation the longest from land to land on our globe. In the infancy of this trade it was carried on with Callao, on the coast of Peru; but experience having discovered the impropriety of fixing upon that as the port of communication with Manilla, the staple of the commerce between the east and west was removed from Callao to Acapulco, on the coast of New-Spain.

After various arrangements, it has been brought into a regular form: one or two ships depart annually from Acapulco, which are permitted to carry out silver to the amount of five hundred thousand pesos, but they have hardly any thing else of value on board; in return for which, they bring back spices, drugs, china and japan wares, calicoes, chintz, muslins, silks, and every precious article, with which the benignity of the climate, or the ingenuity of its people, has enabled the East to supply the rest of the world. For some time the merchants of Peru were admitted to participate in this traffic, and might send annually a ship to Acapulco to wait the arrival of the vessels from Manilla, and receive a proportional share of the commodities which they imported. At length, the Peruvians were excluded from this trade by most rigorous edicts; and all the commodities from the East reserved solely for the consumption of New-Spain.

In consequence of this indulgence, the inhabitants of that country enjoy advantages unknown in the other Spanish colonies. The manufactures,

manufactures of the East are not only more suited to a warm climate, and more showy than those of Europe, but can be sold at a lower price; while, at the same time, the profits upon them are so considerable, as to enrich all those who are employed, either in bringing them from Manilla, or vending them in New-Spain. As the interest both of the buyer and seller concurred in favouring this branch of commerce, it has continued to extend in spite of regulations, concerted with the most anxious jealousy to circumscribe it. Under cover of what the laws permit to be imported, great quantities of India goods are poured into the markets of New-Spain, and when the flota arrives at Vera Cruz from Europe, it often finds the wants of the people already supplied by cheaper and more acceptable commodities.

There is not, in the commercial arrangements of Spain, any circumstance more inexplicable than the permission of this trade between New-Spain and the Philippines, or more repugnant to its fundamental maxim of holding the colonies in perpetual dependence on the mother country, by prohibiting any commercial intercourse that might suggest to them the idea of receiving a supply of their wants from any other quarter. This permission must appear still more extraordinary, from considering that Spain herself carries on no direct trade with her settlements in the Philippines, and grants a privilege to one of her American colonies, which she denies to her subjects in Europe. It is probable, that the colonists who originally took possession of the Philippines, having been sent out from New-Spain, begun this intercourse with a country which they considered, in some measure, as their parent state, before the court of Madrid was aware of its consequences, or could establish regulations in order to prevent it. Many remonstrances have been presented against this trade, as detrimental to Spain, by diverting into another channel a large portion of that treasure which ought to flow into the kingdom, as tending to give rise to a spirit of independence in the colonies, and to encourage innumerable frauds, against which it is impossible to guard in transactions so far removed from the inspection of government. But as it requires no slight effort of political wisdom and vigour to abolish any practice which numbers are interested in supporting, and to which time has added the sanction of its authority, the commerce between New-Spain and Manilla seems to be as considerable as ever, and may be considered as one chief cause of the elegance and splendor conspicuous in this part of the Spanish dominions.

PORTUGUESE SETTLEMENTS

IN

SOUTH-AMERICA.

BRASIL.

THIS territory is situated between the equator and 35° south latitude, and 60° west longitude; it is about one thousand five hundred and sixty miles in length, and one thousand in breadth; but, measuring along the coast, it is two thousand miles long, and is bordered with mountains that open from time to time, and form good harbours where vessels may lie in safety.

It is bounded by the mouth of the river Amazon and the Atlantic ocean on the north; and by the same ocean on the east; on the south by the river Plata; on the west by morasses, lakes, torrents, rivers, and mountains, which separate it from Amazonia and the Spanish possessions. On the coast are three small islands, where ships touch for provisions on their voyage to the South seas, viz, Fernando, St. Barbaro and St. Catherine's.

It was accidentally discovered by the Portuguese in 1500. Emanuel, king of Portugal, had equipped a squadron of thirteen sail, carrying twelve hundred soldiers and sailors destined for the East-Indies, under the conduct of Peter Alvarez Cabral. This admiral, quitting Lisbon on the 9th of Mareh, 1500, struck out to sea to avoid the coast of Guinea, and steered his course southward, that he might the more easily turn the cape of Good Hope. On the 24th of April he got sight of the continent of South-America, which he judged to be a large island at some distance from the coast of Africa. Coasting along for some time, he ventured to send a boat on shore, and was astonished to observe the inhabitants entirely different from the Africans,

Africans in features, hair and complexion. It was found, however, impracticable to seize upon any of the Indians, who retired with great celerity to the mountains on the approach of the Portuguese; yet, as the sailors had discovered a good harbour, the admiral thought proper to come to an anchor, and called the bay Puerto Seguro. Next day he sent another boat on shore, and had the good fortune to lay hold on two of the natives, whom he clothed and treated kindly, and then dismissed, to make a proper report to their countrymen. The stratagem had the desired effect. The Indians, having heard the relation of the prisoners, immediately crowded to the shore, singing, dancing, and sounding horns of different kinds; which induced Cabral to land, and take solemn possession in the name of his Portuguese majesty.

As soon as the court of Lisbon had ordered a survey to be taken of the harbours, bays, rivers and coasts, of Brasil, and was convinced that the country afforded neither gold nor silver, they held it in such contempt, that they sent thither none but condemned criminals and abandoned women. Two ships were sent every year from Portugal, to carry the refuse of the kingdom to this new world, and to bring home parrots, and woods for the dyers and cabinet-makers. Ginger was afterwards added, but soon after prohibited, lest it should interfere with the sale of the same article from India.

In 1548, the Jews, many of whom had taken refuge in Portugal, beginning to be persecuted by the inquisition, were stripped of their possessions, and banished to Brasil. Here, however, they were not entirely forsaken: many of them found kind relations and faithful friends; others, who were known to be men of probity and understanding, obtained money in advance from merchants of different nations, with whom they had formerly had transactions. By the assistance of some enterprising men they were enabled to cultivate sugar-canes, which they first procured from the island of Madeira. Sugar, which till then had been used only in medicine, became an article of luxury; princes and great men were all eager to procure themselves this new species of indulgence. This circumstance proved favourable to Brasil, and enabled it to extend its sugar plantations. The court of Lisbon, notwithstanding its prejudices, began to be sensible, that a colony might be beneficial to the mother country, without producing gold or silver; and this settlement, which had been wholly left to the capricious management of the colonists, was now thought to deserve some kind of attention; and accordingly

Thomas

Thomas de Souza was sent thither, in 1549, to regulate and superintend it.

This able governor began by reducing these men, who had always lived in a state of anarchy, into proper subordination, and bringing their scattered plantations closer together; after which he applied himself to acquire some information respecting the natives, with whom he knew he must be necessarily engaged either in traffic or war. This it was no easy matter to accomplish. Brasil was full of small nations, some of which inhabited the forests, and others lived in the plains and along the rivers: some had settled habitations, but the greater number of them led a roving life, and most of them had no intercourse with each other. It is not to be supposed, that such a people would be at all disposed to submit to the yoke which the Portuguese wanted to put upon them. At first they only declined all intercourse with these strangers; but finding themselves pursued in order to be made slaves, and to be employed in the labours of the field, they took the resolution to murder and devour all the Europeans they could seize upon. The friends and relations of the savages that were taken prisoners also ventured to make frequent attempts to rescue them, and were sometimes successful; so that the Portuguese were forced to attend to the double employments of labour and war.

Souza, by building San Salvador, gave a center to the colony; but the honour of settling, extending, and making it really useful to the mother country, was reserved for the Jesuits who attended him. These men, who for their arts of insinuation and address have been equalled by none, dispersed themselves among the Indians. When any of the missionaries were murdered, they were immediately replaced by others; and seeming to be inspired only with sentiments of peace and charity, the Indians, in process of time, grew not only familiar but passionately fond of them. As the missionaries were too few in number to transact all the business themselves, they frequently deputed some of the most intelligent Indians in their stead. These men, having distributed hatchets, knives and looking-glasses, among the savages they met with, represented the Portuguese as a harmless, humane, and good sort of people.

The prosperity of the colony of Brasil, which was visible to all Europe, excited the envy of the French, Spaniards and Dutch successively: the latter, indeed, bid fairest for the conquest of the whole; their admiral Henry Lonk arrived, in the beginning of the year

1630, with forty-six men of war, on the coast of Fernambucca, one of the largest and best fortified captainships of these parts. He reduced it after several obstinate engagements, in which he was always victorious. The troops he left behind subdued the captainships of Tamaraca, Pareiba, and Rio Grande, in the years 1633, 1634, and 1635. These, as well as Fernambucca, furnished annually a large quantity of sugar, a great deal of wood for dying, and other commodities. The Hollanders were so elated with the acquisition of this wealth, which flowed to Amsterdam instead of Lisbon, that they determined to conquer all the Brasils, and entrusted Maurice of Nassau with the conduct of this enterprise. That general reached the place of his destination in the beginning of the year 1637; he found the soldiers so well disciplined, the commanders such experienced men, and so much readiness in all to engage, that he directly took the field. He was successively opposed by Albuquerque, Banjola, Lewis Rocca de Borgia, and the Brasilian Cameron, the idol of his people, passionately fond of the Portuguese, brave, active, cunning, and who wanted no qualification necessary for a general, but to have learned the art of war under able commanders. These several chiefs exerted their utmost efforts to defend the possessions that were under their protection; but their endeavours proved ineffectual. The Dutch seized upon the captainships of Siara, Seregippe, and the greater part of that of Bahia. Seven of the fifteen provinces which composed the colony had already submitted to them, and they flattered themselves that one or two campaigns would make them masters of the rest of their enemies possessions in that part of America, when they were suddenly checked by the revolution happening on the banishment of Philip IV. and placing the duke of Braganza on the throne. After this, the Portuguese recovering their spirits, soon drove the Dutch out of Brasil, and have continued masters of it ever since.

The country of Brasil is divided into the following provinces, or captainships, as they are called, viz. Paria, Maragnano, Siara, Rio Grande, Pareiba, Tamarica, Fernambucca, Seregippe, Bahia, Porto Seguro, Esperito Santo, Rio de Janeiro, Angra, St. Vincent, and Del Rey.

The harbours of Brasil are Panambuco, All Saints, Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador; and with respect to rivers, there are a great number of noble streams, which unite with the rivers Amazon and Plata, besides others which fall into the Atlantic ocean.

The climate of Brasil has been described by two eminent naturalists, Pifo and Margrave, who observed it with a philosophical accuracy, to be temperate and mild, when compared with that of Africa; they ascribe this chiefly to the refreshing wind which blows continually from the sea. The air is not only cool, but chilly through the night, so that the natives kindle a fire every evening in their huts. As the rivers in this country annually overflow their banks, and leave a sort of slime upon the lands, the soil here must be in many places amazingly rich; and this corresponds with the best information upon the subject. The vegetable productions are Indian corn, sugar canes, tobacco, indigo, hides, ipecacuana, balsam, Brasil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly used in dying, but not the red of the best kind. Here is also the yellow fustic, of use in dying yellow, and a beautiful piece of speckled wood, made use of in cabinet work. Here are five different sorts of palm trees, some curious ebony, and a great variety of cotton trees. This country abounds in horned cattle, which are hunted for their hides only, twenty thousand being sent annually into Europe. There is also a plenty of deers, hares, and other game. Amongst the wild beasts found here, are tigers, porcupines, janouveras, and a fierce animal, somewhat like a greyhound; monkeys, sloths, and the topiraffou, a creature between a bull and an ass, but without horns, and entirely harmless, the flesh is very good, and has the flavour of beef. There is a numberless variety of fowl, wild and tame, in this country; among these are turkeys, fine white hens and ducks. The remarkable birds are the humming bird; the lankima, sometimes called the unicorn bird, from its having a horn, two or three inches long, growing out of its forehead; the guira, famous for often changing its colour, being first black, then ash-coloured, next white, afterwards scarlet, and last of all crimson; which colours grow richer and deeper the longer the bird lives. Among the abundance of fish with which the seas, lakes, and rivers of this country are stored, is the globe fish, so called from its form, which is so beset with spines like a hedgehog, that it bids defiance to all fish of prey. But the most remarkable creature is the sea bladder, so called because it greatly resembles one, and swims on the surface of the waves; the inside is filled with air, except a small quantity of water, that serves to poise it. The skin is very thin and transparent, and like a bubble raised in the water, reflects all the colours of the sky. Brasil breeds a great variety of serpents and venomous creatures, among which are the Indian salamander

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der, a four-legged insect, the sting of which is mortal; the ibivaboca, a species of serpent, about seven yards long, and half a yard in circumference, whose poison is instantaneously fatal; the rattle-snake, which there attains an enormous size; the liboyd, or roe-buck snake, which authors inform us are capable of swallowing a roe-buck whole with his horns, being between twenty and thirty feet in length, and two yards in circumference. Besides those, there are many other insects and serpents of a dangerous and venomous nature.

The gold and diamond mines are but a recent discovery; they were first opened in the year 1681, and have since yielded above five millions sterling annually, of which sum a fifth belongs to the crown. So plentiful are diamonds in this country, that the court of Portugal has found it necessary to restrain their importation, to prevent too great a diminution of their value. They are neither so hard nor so clear as those of the East-Indies, nor do they sparkle so much, but they are whiter. The Brazilian diamonds are sold ten per cent. cheaper than the Oriental ones, supposing the weights to be equal. The largest diamond in the world was sent from Brazil to the king of Portugal; it weighs one thousand six hundred and eighty carats, or twelve ounces and a half, and has been valued at fifty-six millions seven hundred and eighty-seven thousand five hundred pounds. Some skilful lapidaries, however, are of opinion that this supposed diamond is only a topaz, in which case a very great abatement must be made in its value. The crown revenue arising from this colony amounts to two millions sterling in gold, if we may credit some late writers, besides the duties and customs on merchandise imported from that quarter. This, indeed, is more than a fifth of the precious metal produced by the mines, but every other consequent advantage considered, it probably does not much exceed the truth.

The extraction of gold is neither very laborious nor dangerous in Brazil. It is sometimes on the surface of the soil, and this is the purest kind, and at other times it is necessary to dig for it eighteen or twenty feet, but seldom lower. It is found in larger pieces upon the mountains and barren rocks than in the valleys, or on the borders of the river. Every man who discovers a mine, must give notice of it to the government. If the vein be thought of little consequence by persons appointed to examine it, it is always given up to the public; if it be declared to be a rich vein, the government reserve a portion of it to themselves; another share is given to the commandant, a third to the intendant, and two shares are secured to the discoverer. The

miners are obliged to deliver to the king of Portugal a fifth part of all the gold which is extracted.

St. Salvador is the capital of Brasil. This city has a noble, spacious and commodious harbour, is built on a high and steep rock, having the sea upon one side, and a lake forming a crescent on the other. The situation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature, and the Portuguese have besides added to it very strong fortifications; it is populous, magnificent, and beyond comparison the most gay and opulent in all Brasil.

The trade of Brasil is very great, and increases every year. 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, from whence they import as many as forty thousand negroes annually.

The excessive confluence of people to the Brasil colonies, as well from other countries as from Portugal, not only enlarges the imports of gold, diamonds, sugar, tobacco, hides, drugs and medicines, but what is of infinitely more importance to Europe in general, the exportation of the manufactures of this hemisphere, of which the principal are the following: Great-Britain sends woollen manufactures, such as fine broad medley cloths, fine Spanish cloths, scarlet and black cloths, serges, duroys, druggets, sagathies, shalloons, camblets, and Norwich stuffs, black Colchester bays, says, and perpetuanas, called long ells, hats, stockings, and gloves. Holland, Germany, and France, chiefly export fine hollands, bone lace, and fine thread; silk manufactures, pepper, lead, block tin, and other articles, are also sent from different countries. Besides the particulars already specified, England likewise trades with Portugal, for the use of the Brasils, in copper and bras, wrought and unwrought pewter, and all kinds of hardware; all which articles have so enlarged the Portuguese trade, that instead of twelve ships usually employed in the Brasil commerce, there are now never fewer than one hundred sail of large vessels constantly going and returning to those colonies. To all this may be added, that Brasil receives from Madeira great quantity of wine, vinegar, and brandy; and from the Azores, liquors to the amount of twenty-five thousand pounds per ann. Indeed, the commerce of Brasil alone is sufficient to raise Portugal to a considerable height of naval power, as it maintains a constant nursery of seamen; yet a certain infatuation in the policy of the country has prevented that effect

fect even amidst all these extraordinary advantages. All the ships in this trade being under the direction of the government, have their appointed seasons of going and returning, under convoy of a certain number of men of war; nor can a single ship clear out or go, except with the fleet, but by a special licence from the king, which is seldom granted, though it is easily determined that such restrictions can prove no way beneficial to the general commerce, though possibly the crown revenue may be better guarded thereby. The fleets sail in the following order, and at the following stated periods: that to Rio de Janeiro sets sail in January; the fleet to Bahia, or the bay of All Saints, in February; and the third fleet, to Fernambucca, in the month of March.

The native Brasilians are about the size of the Europeans, but not so stout. They are subject to fewer distempers, and are long lived. They wear no cloathing; the women wear their hair extremely long, the men cut their's short; the women wear bracelets of bones of a beautiful white, the men necklaces of the same; the women paint their faces, and the men their bodies. The food of the Brasilians is very simple; they live upon shell fish by the sea side, along the rivers by fishing, and in the forests by hunting; and when these fail, they live upon cassava and other roots. They are extremely fond of dancing and other amusements, and these amusements are not interrupted by the worship of a Supreme Being, for it is said they know of none, nor is their tranquillity disturbed by the dread of a future state, of which they have no idea. They have, however, their magicians, who, by strange contortions, so far work upon the credulity of the people, as to throw them into violent convulsions. If the impostures of these magicians are detected, they are immediately put to death, which serves in some measure to check the spirit of deceit. Every Brasilian takes as many wives as he chooses, and puts them away when he gets tired of them. When the women lie in, they keep their bed but a day or two; then the mother, hanging the child to her neck in a cotton scarf, returns to her usual occupation, without any kind of inconvenience. Travellers are received with distinguished marks of civility by the native Brasilians: wherever they go they are surrounded with women, who wash their feet, and welcome them with the most obliging expressions. But it would be an unpardonable affront if they should leave the family where they were first entertained, in hopes of better accommodation in another. Some of these virtues, however, were more applicable to these natives,

natives, before they were corrupted by an intercourse with the Europeans.

With respect to the religion of Brasil, though the king of Portugal, as grand master of the order of Christ, is solely in possession of the titles; and though the produce of the crusade belongs entirely to him, yet in this extensive country, six bishoprics have been successively founded, which acknowledge for their superior the archbishop of Bahia, established in the year 1552. The fortunate prelates, most of them Europeans, who fill these honourable sees, live in a very commodious manner, upon the emoluments attached to the function of their ministry, and upon a pension of from fifty to one thousand two hundred and fifty pounds per ann. granted to them by the government. Among the inferior clergy, none but the missionaries who are settled in the Indian villages are paid, but the others find sufficient resources in the superstition of the people. Besides an annual tribute paid by every family to the clergyman, he is entitled to two shillings for every birth, for every wedding, and every burial. Though there is not absolutely an inquisition in Brasil, yet the people of that country are not protected from the outrages of that barbarous and infernal institution.

The government of Brasil is in the viceroy, who has two councils, one for criminal, the other for civil affairs, in both of which he presides; but there is no part of the world where the lawyers are more corrupt, or the chicanery of their profession more practised.

Only half of the Captainships, into which this country is divided, belong to the crown, the rest being fiefs made over to some of the nobility, in reward of their extraordinary services, who do little more than acknowledge the sovereignty of the king of Portugal.

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FRENCH POSSESSIONS

IN

SOUTH-AMERICA.

CAYENNE.

CAYENNE is bounded north and east, by the Atlantic ocean; south, by the Amazonia; and west, by Guiana, or Surinam. It extends two hundred and forty miles along the coast of Guiana, and nearly three hundred miles within land, lying between the equator and the 9th degree of north latitude.

The land along the coast is low, and very subject to inundations during the rainy seasons, from the multitude of rivers which rush down from the mountains with great impetuosity. Here the atmosphere is very hot, moist and unwholesome, especially where the woods are not cleared away; but on the higher parts where the trees are cut down, and the ground laid out in plantations, the air is more healthy, and the heat great, mitigated by the sea breezes. The soil in many parts is very fertile, producing sugar, tobacco, Indian corn, fruits, and other necessaries of life.

The French have taken possession of an island upon this coast, called also Cayenne. This settlement was begun in 1635. A report had prevailed for some time before, that in the interior parts of Guiana, there was a country known by the name of del Dorado, which contained immense riches in gold and precious stones, more than ever Cortes and Pizarro had found in Mexico and Peru, and this fable had fired the imagination of every nation in Europe. It is supposed that this was the country in quest of which Sir Walter Raleigh went on his
last

last voyage; and as the French were not behind their neighbours in their endeavours to find out so desirable a country, some attempts for this purpose were likewise made by that nation much about the same time, which at last coming to nothing, the adventurers took up their residence on the island of Cayenne. In 1643, some merchants of Rouen united their flock, with a design to support the new colony, but committing their affairs to one Poncet de Bretigny, a man of a ferocious disposition, he declared war both against the colonists and savages, in consequence of which he was soon massacred. This catastrophe entirely extinguished the ardour of these associates; and in 1651 a new company was established. This promised to be much more considerable than the former; and they set out with such a capital as enabled them to collect seven or eight hundred colonists in the city of Paris itself. These embarked on the Seine in order to sail down to Havre de Grace, but unfortunately the Abbé de Marivault, a man of great virtue, and the principal promoter of the undertaking, was drowned as he was stepping into his boat. Another gentleman who was to have acted as general, was assassinated on his passage; and twelve of the principal adventurers who had promised to put the colony into a flourishing situation, not only were the principal perpetrators of this act, but uniformly behaved in the same atrocious manner: At last they hanged one of their own number, two died, three were banished to a desert island, and the rest abandoned themselves to every kind of excess. The commandant of the citadel deserted to the Dutch with part of his garrison. The savages, roused by numberless provocations, fell upon the remainder; so that the few who were left, thought themselves happy in escaping to the Leeward islands in a boat and two canoes, abandoning the fort, ammunition, arms, and merchandize, fifteen months after they had landed on the island.

In 1663, a new company was formed, whose capital amounted only to eight thousand seven hundred and fifty pounds. By the assistance of the ministry they expelled the Dutch, who had taken possession of the island, and settled themselves much more comfortably than their predecessors. In 1667, the island was taken by the English, and in 1676 by the Dutch, but afterwards restored to the French, and since that time has never been attacked. Soon after, some pirates, laden with the spoils they had gathered in the South seas, came and fixed their residence at Cayenne, resolving to employ the treasures they had acquired in the cultivation of the lands. In

1688, Ducasse, an able seaman, arrived with some ships from France, and proposed to them the plundering of Surinam. This proposal exciting their natural turn for plunder, the pirates betook themselves to their old trade, and almost all the rest followed their example. The expedition, however, proved unfortunate; many of the assailants were killed, and all the rest taken prisoners and sent to the Caribbee islands. This loss the colony has never yet recovered.

The island of Cayenne is about sixteen leagues in circumference, and is only parted from the continent by two rivers. By a particular formation, uncommon in islands, the land is highest near the water side, and low in the middle. Hence the land is so full of morasses, that all communication between the different parts of it is impossible, without taking a great circuit. There are some small tracts of an excellent soil to be found here and there; but the generality is dry, sandy, and soon exhausted. The only town in the colony is defended by a covert way, a large ditch, a very good mud rampart, and five bastions. In the middle of the town is a pretty considerable eminence, of which a redoubt has been made that is called the fort. The entrance into the harbour is through a narrow channel, and ships can only get in at high water owing to the rocks and reefs that are scattered about this pass.

The first produce of Cayenne was the arnotto, from the produce of which, the colonists proceeded to that of cotton, indigo, and lastly, sugar. It was the first of all the French colonies that attempted to cultivate coffee. The coffee tree was brought from Surinam in 1721, by some deserters from Cayenne, who purchased their pardon by so doing. Ten or twelve years after they planted cocoa; we have very little account of the produce with respect to quantity, but as far back as the year 1752, there were exported from Cayenne two hundred and sixty thousand five hundred and forty-one pounds of arnotto, eighty thousand three hundred and sixty-three pounds of sugar, seventeen thousand nine hundred and nineteen pounds of cotton, twenty-six thousand eight hundred and eighty-one pounds of coffee, ninety-one thousand nine hundred and sixteen pounds of cocoa, six hundred and eighteen trees for timber, and one hundred and four planks.

DUTCH POSSESSIONS

IN

SOUTH-AMERICA.

SURINAM, OR DUTCH GUIANA.

THIS province, the only one belonging to the Dutch on the continent of America, is situated between 5° and 7° north latitude, having the mouth of the Oronoko and the Atlantic, on the north; Cayenne, on the east; Amazonia, on the south; and Terra Firma on the west.

The Dutch claim the whole coast from the mouth of Oronoko to the river Marowyne, on which are situated their colonies of Essequibo, Demerara, Berbice, and Surinam. The latter begins with the river Saramacha, and ends with the Marowyne, including a length of coast of one hundred and twenty miles.

A number of fine rivers pass through this country, the principal of which are Essequibo, Surinam, Demerara, Berbice, and Conya. Essequibo is nine miles wide at its mouth, and is more than three hundred miles in length. Surinam is a beautiful river, three quarters of a mile wide, navigable for the largest vessels four leagues, and for smaller vessels sixty or seventy miles farther. Its banks, quite to the water's edge, are covered with evergreen mangrove trees, which render the passage up this river very delightful. The Demerara is about three quarters of a mile wide where it empties into the Surinam, is navigable for large vessels one hundred miles; a hundred miles

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miles farther are several falls of easy ascent, above which it divides into the south-west and south-east branches.

The water of the lower parts in the river is brackish, and unfit for use; and the inhabitants are obliged to make use of rain water, which is here uncommonly sweet and good. It is caught in cisterns placed under ground, and before drinking, is set in large earthen pots to settle, by which means it becomes very clear and wholesome. These cisterns are so large and numerous, that water is seldom scarce.

In the months of September, October, and November, the climate is unhealthy, particularly to strangers. The common diseases are putrid and other fevers, the dry belly-ach, and the dropsy. One hundred miles back from the sea, the soil is quite different, a hilly country, a pure, dry, wholesome air, where a fire sometimes would not be disagreeable. Along the sea coast the water is unwholesome, the air damp and sultry. The thermometer ranges from 75° to 90° through the year. A north-east breeze never fails to blow from about nine o'clock in the morning through the day, in the hottest seasons. As the days and nights throughout the year are very nearly of an equal length, the air can never become extremely heated, nor the inhabitants so greatly incommoded by the heat, as those who live at a greater distance from the equator. The seasons were formerly divided regularly into rainy and dry; but of late years so much dependence cannot be placed upon them, owing probably to the country's being more cleared, by which means a free passage is opened for the air and vapours.

Through the whole country runs a ridge of oyster shells, nearly parallel to the coast, but three or four leagues from it, of a considerable breadth, and from four to eight feet deep; composed of shells exactly of the same nature as those which form the present coast: from this and other circumstances, there is great reason to believe that the land, from that distance from the sea, is all new land, rescued from the water by some revolution in nature, or other unknown cause.

On each side of the rivers and creeks are situated the plantations, containing from five hundred to two thousand acres each, in number about five hundred and fifty in the whole colony, producing at present annually about sixteen thousand hogsheds of sugar, twelve million pounds of coffee, seven hundred thousand pounds of cocoa, eight hundred and fifty thousand pounds of cotton: all which articles,

cotton excepted, have fallen off within fifteen years, at least one third, owing to bad management; both here and in Holland, and to other causes. Of the proprietors of these plantations, not above eighty reside here. The sugar plantations have many of them water mills, which being much more profitable than others, and the situation of the colony admitting of them, will probably become general; of the rest, some are worked by mules, others by cattle, but from the lowness of the country none by the wind. The estates are for the greatest part mortgaged for as much or more than they are worth, which greatly discourages any improvements which might otherwise be made. Was it not for the unfortunate situation of the colony in this and other respects, it is certainly capable of being brought to a great height of improvement; dyes, gums, oils, plants for medicinal purposes, &c. might, and undoubtedly will, at some future period, be found in abundance. Rum might be distilled here; indigo, ginger, rice and tobacco, have been, and may be farther cultivated, and many other articles. In the woods are found many kinds of good and durable timber, and some woods for ornamental purposes, particularly a kind of mahogany called copic. The soil is perhaps as rich and as luxuriant as any in the world; it is generally a rich, fat, loamy earth, lying in some places above the level of the rivers at high water, which rise about eight feet, but in most places below it. Whenever, from a continued course of cultivation for many years, a piece of land becomes impoverished, for manure is not known here, it is laid under water for a certain number of years, and thereby regains its fertility, and in the mean time a new piece of wood land is cleared. This country has never experienced those dreadful scourges of the West-Indies, hurricanes; and droughts from the lowness of the land it has not to fear, nor has the produce ever been destroyed by insects or by the blast. In short, this colony, by proper management, might become equal to Jamaica, or any other. Land is not wanting; it is finely intersected by noble rivers, and abundant creeks; the soil is of the best kind; it is well situated, and the climate is not very unhealthy: it is certainly growing better, and will continue so to do, the more the country is cleared of its woods, and cultivated.

The rivers abound with fish, some of which are good; at certain seasons of the year there is plenty of turtle. The woods abound with plenty of deer, hares, and rabbits, a kind of buffaloe, and two species

of wild hogs, one of which, the peccary, is remarkable for having its navel on the back.

The woods are infested with several species of tigers, but with no other ravenous or dangerous animals. The rivers are rendered dangerous by alligators, from four to seven feet long, and a man was a short time since crushed between the jaws of a fish, but its name is not known. Scorpions and tarantulas are found here of a large size and great venom, and other insects without number, some of them very dangerous and troublesome. The torporific eel, the touch of which, by means of the bare hand or any conductor, has the effect of a strong electrical shock. Serpents also, some of which are venomous, and others, as has been asserted by many credible persons, are from twenty-five to fifty feet long. In the woods are monkeys, the sloth, and parrots in all their varieties; also some birds of beautiful plumage, among others the flamingo, but few or no singing birds.

Paramaribo, situated on Surinam river, four leagues from the sea, north latitude 6° , west longitude 55° from Greenwich, is the principal town in Surinam. It contains about two thousand whites, one half of whom are Jews, and eight thousand slaves. The houses are principally of wood, some few have glass windows, but generally they have wooden shutters. The streets are spacious and straight, and planted on each side with orange or tamarind trees.

About seventy miles from the sea, on the same river, is a village of about forty or fifty houses, inhabited by Jews. This village, and the town above mentioned, with the intervening plantations, contain all the inhabitants in this colony, which amount to three thousand two hundred whites, and forty-three thousand slaves. The buildings on the plantations are many of them costly, convenient, and airy. The country around is thinly inhabited with the native Indians, a harmless friendly race of beings. They are, in general, short of stature, but remarkably well made, of a light copper colour, straight black hair, without beards, high cheek bones, and broad shoulders. In their ears, noses, and hair the women wear ornaments of silver, &c. Both men and women go naked. One nation or tribe of them tie the lower part of the legs of the female children, when young, with a cord bound very tight for the breadth of six inches about the ankle, which cord is never afterwards taken off but to put on a new one, by which means the flesh, which should otherwise grow on that part of the leg, increases the calf to a great size, and leaves the bone

below nearly bare. This, though it must render them very weak, is reckoned a great beauty by them. The language of the Indians appears to be very soft. They are mortal enemies to every kind of labour, but nevertheless manufacture a few articles, such as very fine cotton hammocks, earthen water pots, baskets, a red or yellow dye called roucau, and some other trifles, all which they exchange for such articles as they stand in need of.

They paint themselves red, and some are curiously figured with black. Their food consists chiefly of fish and crabs; and cassava, of which they plant great quantities, and this is almost the only produce they attend to. They cannot be said to be absolutely wandering tribes, but their huts being merely a few cross sticks covered with branches, so as to defend them from the rain and sun, they frequently quit their habitations, if they see occasion, and establish them elsewhere. They do not shun the whites, and have been serviceable against the runaway negroes.

Dr. Bancroft observes, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are either whites, blacks, or the reddish brown aboriginal natives. The promiscuous intercourse of these different people have generated several intermediate casts, whose colours depend on their degree of consanguinity to either whites, blacks, negroes, or Indians.

The river Surinam is guarded by a fort and two redoubts at the entrance, and a fort at Paramaribo, but none of them of any strength, so that one or two frigates would be sufficient to make themselves masters of the whole colony, and never was there a people who more ardently wished for a change of government than the inhabitants of this colony do at this time. The many grievances they labour under, and the IMMENSE BURTHEN OF TAXES, which threaten the ruin of the colony, make them excusable in their general desire to change the Dutch for a French government. This is precisely the case in Europe, the taxes are so enormous, and the oppression of the Statholderian government so great, that we may venture to assert, that no human power (*and we cannot think a Divine one will interfere*) can possibly prevent much longer a revolution from taking place.

The colony is not immediately under the States General, but under a company in Holland, called the Directors of Surinam, a company first formed by the States General, but now supplying its own vacancies; by them are appointed the governor and all the

prin-

principal officers both civil and military. The interior government consists of a governor, and a supreme and inferior council; the members of the latter are chosen by the governor from a double nomination of the principal inhabitants, and those of the former in the same manner. By these powers, and by a magistrate presiding over all criminal affairs, justice is executed, and laws are enacted necessary for the interior government of the colony; those of a more general and public nature are enacted by the directors, and require no approbation by the court.

The colony is guarded by about one thousand six hundred regular troops, paid by the directors. These troops, together with a corps of about two hundred and fifty free negroes, paid by the Dutch government, and another small corps of chasseurs, and as many slaves as the court thinks fit to order from the planters, from time to time, are dispersed at posts placed at proper distances on a cordon, surrounding the colony on the land side, in order, as far as possible, to defend the distant plantations and the colony in general, from the attacks of several dangerous bands of runaway slaves, which from very small beginnings have, from the natural prolificacy of the negro race, and the continual addition of fresh fugitives, arrived at such a height as to have cost the country very great sums of money, and much loss of men, without being able to do these negroes any effectual injury.

This colony was first possessed by the French as early as the year 1630 or 40, and was abandoned by them on account of its unhealthy climate. In the year 1650 it was taken by some Englishmen, and in 1662 a charter grant was made of it by Charles II. About this time it was considerably augmented by the settlement of a number of Jews, who had been driven out of Cayenne and the Brasils, whose descendants, with other Jews, compose at present one half of the white inhabitants of the colony, and are allowed great privileges. In 1667 it was taken by the Dutch, and the English having got possession about the same time of the then Dutch colony of New-York, each party retained its conquest; the English planters most of them retired to Jamaica, leaving their slaves behind them, whose language is still English, but so corrupted as not to be understood at first by an Englishman.

ABORIGINAL AMERICA,

OR THAT PART WHICH

THE ABORIGINAL INDIANS POSSESS,

A M A Z O N I A.

AMAZONIA is situated between the equator and 20° south latitude; its length is one thousand four hundred miles, and its breadth nine hundred miles: it is bounded on the north by Terra Firma and Guiana; on the east by Brasil; on the south by Paraguay; and on the west by Peru.

The air is cooler in this country than could be expected, considering it is situated in the torrid zone. This is partly owing to the heavy rains which occasion the rivers to overflow their banks one-half of the year, and partly to the cloudiness of the weather, which obscures the sun great part of the time he is above the horizon. During the rainy season the country is subject to dreadful storms of thunder and lightning.

The soil is extremely fertile, producing cocoa nuts, pine apples, bananas, plantains, and a great variety of tropical fruits; cedar, red-wood, pak, ebony, logwood, and many other sorts of dying wood; together with tobacco, sugar canes, cotton, potatoes, balsam, honey, &c. The woods abound with tigers, wild boars, buffaloes, deer, and game of various kinds. The rivers and lakes abound with fish. Here are also sea-cows and turtles; but the crocodiles and water serpents render fishing a dangerous employment.

The river Amazon is the largest in the known world. This river, so famous for the length of its course, this great vassal of the sea, to which it brings the tribute it has received from so many of its own tributaries, seems to be produced by innumerable torrents, which rush down with amazing impetuosity from the eastern declivity of the

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the Andes, and unite in a spacious plain to form this immense river. In its progress of three thousand three hundred miles it receives the waters of a prodigious number of rivers, some of which come from far, and are very broad and deep. It is interspersed with an infinite number of islands, which are too often overflowed to admit of culture: it falls into the Atlantic ocean under the equator, and is there one hundred and fifty miles broad.

The natives of this country, like all the other Americans, are of a good stature, have handsome features, long black hair, and copper complexions. They are said to have a taste for the imitative arts, especially painting and sculpture, and make good mechanics. Their cordage is made of the barks of trees, and their sails of cotton, their hatchets of tortoise shells or hard stones, their chisels, planes and wimbles, of the horns and teeth of wild beasts, and their canoes are trees hollowed. They spin and weave cotton cloth, build their houses with wood and clay, and thatch them with reeds. Their arms in general are darts and javelins, bows and arrows, with targets of cane or fish skins. The several nations are governed by their chiefs or caziques; it being observable, that the monarchical form of government has prevailed almost universally, both among *ancient* and *modern barbarians*, doubtless on account of its superior advantages with respect to war and rapine, and as requiring a much less refined policy than the republican system, and therefore best adapted for the savage state. The regalia, which distinguish the chiefs, are a crown of parrots feathers, a chain of tigers teeth or claws, which hangs round the waist, and a wooden sword, which, according to some authors, were intended for hieroglyphics.

As early as the time of Hercules and Theseus, the Greeks had imagined the existence of a nation of Amazons; with this fable they embellished the history of all their heroes, not excepting that of Alexander; and the Spaniards, infatuated with this dream of antiquity, transferred it to America. They reported, that a republic of female warriors actually existed in America, who did not live in society with men, and only admitted them once a year for the purposes of procreation. To give the more credit to this romantic story, it was reported, not without reason, that the women in America were all so unhappy, and were treated with such contempt and inhumanity by the men, that many of them had agreed to shake off the yoke of their tyrants. It was farther said, that being accustomed to follow the men into the forests, and to carry their provisions and baggage

baggage when they went out to fight or to hunt, they must necessarily have been inured to hardships, and rendered capable of forming so bold a resolution. Since this story has been propagated, infinite pains have been taken to find out the truth of it, but no traces could ever be discovered.

The mind of a good man is pleased with the reflection, that any part of South-America has escaped the ravages of European tyrants. This country has hitherto remained unsubdued; the original inhabitants, therefore, enjoy their native freedom and independence, the birthright of every human being.

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VOL. I

P A T A G O N I A.

PATAGONIA is situated between 35° and 54° south latitude; its length is eleven hundred miles, and its breadth three hundred and fifty: it is bounded north by Chili and Paragua; east by the Atlantic ocean; south by the straits of Magellan; west by the Pacific ocean.

The climate is said to be much colder in this country than in the north under the same parallels of latitude, which is imputed to the Andes, which pass through it, being covered with eternal snow: it is almost impossible to say what the soil would produce, as it is not at all cultivated by the natives. The northern parts are covered with wood, among which is an inexhaustible fund of large timber; but towards the south, it is said, there is not a single tree large enough to be of use to mechanics. There are, however, good pastures, which feed incredible numbers of horned cattle and horses, first carried there by the Spaniards, and now increased in an amazing degree.

It is inhabited by a variety of Indian tribes, among which are the Patagonis, from whom the country takes its name, the Pampas and the Coflores: they all live upon fish and game, and what the earth produces spontaneously: their huts are thatched, and, notwithstanding the rigour of the climate, they wear no other clothes than a mantle made of seal skin, or the skin of some beast, and that they throw off when they are in action: they are exceedingly hardy, brave and active, making use of their arms, which are bows and arrows headed with flints, with amazing dexterity.

Magellan, who first discovered the straits which bear his name, and after him Commodore Byron, have reported, that there exists, in these regions, a race of giants; but others, who have failed this way, contradict the report. Upon the whole we may conclude, that this story is, perhaps, like that of the female republic of Amazons.

The Spaniards once built a fort upon the straits, and left a garrison in it to prevent any other European nation passing that way into the Pacific ocean; but most of the men perished by hunger, whence

the place obtained the name of port Famine, and since that fatal event, no nation has attempted to plant colonies in Patagonia. As to the religion or government of these savages, we have no certain information: some have reported, that these people believe in invisible powers, both good and evil; and that they pay a tribute of gratitude to the one, and deprecate the wrath and vengeance of the other.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

We have now traversed the several provinces of that extensive region, which is comprehended between the isthmus of Darien and the fifty-fourth degree of south latitude. We have taken a cursory view of the rivers, the soil, the climate, the productions, the commerce, the inhabitants, &c.

The history of Columbus, together with his bold and adventurous actions in the discovery of this country, we have but slightly noticed in this account, as we had done this in a preceding part of this work.* His elevated mind suggested to him ideas superior to any other man of his age, and his aspiring genius prompted him to make greater and more noble efforts for new discoveries: he crossed the extensive Atlantic, and brought to view a world unheard of by the people of the ancient hemisphere. This excited an enterprising, avaricious, spirit among the inhabitants of Europe; and they flocked to America for the purposes of plunder. In consequence of which, a scene of barbarity has been acted, of which South-America has been the principal theatre, which shocks the human mind, and almost staggers belief. No sooner had the Spaniards set foot upon the American continent, than they laid claim to the soil, to the mines, and to the services of the natives, wherever they came. Countries were invaded, kingdoms were overturned, innocence was attacked, and happiness had no asylum. Despotism and cruelty, with all their terrible scourges, attended their advances in every part: they went forth, they conquered, they ravaged, they destroyed: no deceit, no cruelty, was too great to be made use of to satisfy their avarice: justice was disregarded, and mercy formed no part of the character of these inhuman conquerors: they were intent only on the prosecution of schemes most degrading and most scandalous to the human character. In South-America, the kingdoms of Terra Firma, of Peru, of Chili, of Paragua, of Brasil, and of Guiana, successively fell a sacrifice to their vicious

* See vol. i. page 1.

ambition and avarice. The history of their several reductions was too copious to be inserted at large in a work of this kind; but we have endeavoured to afford the reader a brief view of those transactions which have blasted the character of all those who had any thing to do with the conquest of this part of the globe. Let us then turn from these distressing scenes; let us leave the political world, where nothing but spectacles of horror are presented to our view; where scenes of blood and carnage distract the imagination; where the avarice, injustice and inhumanity of men, furnish nothing but uneasy sensations; let us leave these, and enter the natural world, whose laws are constant and uniform, and where beautiful, grand and sublime objects continually present themselves to our view.

We have given a description of those beautiful and spacious rivers which every where intersect this country; and of that immense chain of mountains, which runs from one end of the continent to the other. These enormous masses, which rise to such prodigious heights above the humble surface of the earth, where almost all mankind have fixed their residence; these masses, which in one part are crowned with impenetrable and ancient forests, that have never resounded with the stroke of the hatchet, and in another, raise their towering tops, and arrest the clouds in their course, while in other parts they keep the traveller at a distance from their summits, either by ramparts of ice that surround them, or from volleys of flame issuing forth from the frightful and yawning caverns; these masses giving rise to impetuous torrents descending with dreadful noise from their open sides, to rivers, fountains and boiling springs, fill every beholder with astonishment.

The height of the most elevated point in the Pyrenees is, according to Mr. Cossini, six thousand six hundred and forty-six feet. The height of the mountain Gemmi, in the canton of Berne, is ten thousand one hundred and ten feet. The height of the peak of Teneriffe, is thirteen thousand one hundred and seventy-eight feet. The height of the Chimborazo, the most elevated point of the Andes, is twenty thousand two hundred and eighty feet. Thus, upon comparison, the highest part of the Andes is seven thousand one hundred and two feet higher than the peak of Teneriffe, the most elevated mountain known in the ancient hemisphere.

HISTORY

OF THE

WEST-INDIA ISLANDS.

THE vast continent of America is divided into two parts, North and South, the narrow isthmus of Darien serving as a link to connect them together; between the Florida shore on the northern peninsula, and the gulf of Maracabo on the southern, lie a multitude of islands, which are called the West-Indies, from the name of India, originally assigned to them by Columbus; though, in consequence of the opinions of some geographers of the fifteenth century, they are frequently known by the appellation of Antilia or Antilles: this term is, however, more often applied to the windward or Caribbean islands.

Subordinate to this comprehensive and simple arrangement, necessity or convenience has introduced more local distinctions: that portion of the Atlantic which is separated from the main ocean to the north and east by the islands, though known by the general appellation of the Mexican gulf, is itself properly divided into three distinct parts; the gulf of Mexico, the bay of Honduras, and the Caribbean sea, so called from that class of islands which bound this part of the ocean on the east. Of this class, a group nearly adjoining to the eastern side of St. John de Porto Rico is likewise called the Virgin isles.* The name of Bahama islands is likewise given, or

* It may be proper to observe, that the old Spanish navigators, in speaking of the West-India islands, frequently distinguish them into two classes, by the terms *Borvento* and *Sesavento*, from whence our Windward and Leeward islands, the Caribbean constituting, in strict propriety, the former class, and the islands of Cuba, Jamaica, Hispaniola and Porto-Rico the latter; but the English mariners appropriate both terms to the Caribbean islands only, subdividing them according to their situation in the course of trade; the Windward islands, by their arrangement, terminating, I believe, with Martinico, and the Leeward commencing at Dominica and extending to Porto-Rico. *Edwards' Hist. Vol. I. p. 5.*

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applied, by the English, to a cluster of small islands, rocks and reefs of sand, which stretch in a north-westerly direction for the space of nearly three hundred leagues from the northern coast of Hispaniola to the Bahama strait opposite the Florida shore.*

Such of the above islands as are worth cultivation now belong to GREAT-BRITAIN, SPAIN, FRANCE, HOLLAND and DENMARK.

The BRITISH claim

Jamaica,	Nevis,
Barbadoes,	Montserrat,
St. Christopher's,	Barbuda,
Antigua,	Anguilla,
Grenada, and the Grenadines,	Bermudas,
Dominica,	The Bahama islands.
St. Vincent,	

The SPANIARDS claim

Cuba,	Trinidad,
Part of St. Domingo, or Hispaniola,	Margaretta,
	Porto-Rico.

The FRENCH claim

Part of St. Domingo,	St. Bartholomew, Descada,
Martinico,	Marigalante,
Guadaloupe,	Tobago.
St. Lucia,	

The DUTCH claim

St. Eustatia,	Curassou, or Curacoa,
Saba.	

The DANES claim

The islands of St. Croix,	St. Thomas and St. John's.
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The climate in all the 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 would be continually

* The whole group is called by the Spaniards Lucayos.

subjected to an extreme and intolerable heat, if the trade winds, 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 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 center, towards the sea, to all points of the compass at once.

By the same remarkable Providence in the disposing of things it is, that 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, which shield them from his direct beams, and dissolving into rain, cool the air and refresh the country, thirsty with the long drought, which commonly prevails from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the West-Indies are like floods of water poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuosity; the rivers suddenly rise; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a short time all the low country is under water.* Hence it is, that 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 continual 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 inconveniencies 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 a 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 an European constitution.

It is in the rainy season, principally in the month of August, more rarely in July and September, that they are assaulted by hurricanes,

* Wafer's Journey across the Isthmus of Darien.

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 planter, and at the moment when he thinks himself out of danger. 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 a 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 windmills 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 raises the water five feet, rushes in upon them with an 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 was derived 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 determined, whether the cane, from which this substance is taken, 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, excellent, and the least cloying sweet in nature, which, sucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholesome. From the molasses rum is distilled, and from the scummings of the sugar a meaner spirit is procured. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for their cattle, and the refuse of the cane, after grinding, serves for fire, so that no part of this excellent plant is without its use.

They compute that, when things are well managed, the rum and molasses pay the charges of the plantation, and the sugars are clear gain. However, a man cannot begin a sugar plantation of any consequence,

sequence, not to mention the purchase of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at least five thousand pounds.

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 or 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 ten or twelve pounds annually. The price of men negroes, upon their first arrival, is from thirty to fifty pounds, women and grown boys less; but such negro families as are acquainted with the business of the islands generally bring above forty pounds upon an average one with another; and there are instances of a single negro man, expert in the business, bringing one hundred and fifty guineas; and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of slaves he possesses.

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THIS island lies between west longitude, about sixty in windward passage west, and His breadth.

This island his second voyage much charmed in consequence settled by Juan from the place farther to the east island, seated on are gone to decay. The Spaniards and in their time immense stock of cattle. The English, 1654, and principal commerce not thrive; and vines, which hath

BRITISH

Vol. IV.

BRITISH WEST-INDIES.

J A M A I C A.

THIS island, the largest of the Antilles, and the most valuable, lies between 17° and 19° north latitude, and between 76° and 79° west longitude, is near one hundred and eighty miles in length, and about sixty in breadth; it approaches in its figure to an oval. The windward passage right before it hath the island of Cuba on the west, and Hispaniola on the east, and is about twenty leagues in breadth.

This island was discovered by Admiral Christopher Columbus in his second voyage, who landed upon it May 5, 1494, and was so much charmed with it, as always to prefer it to the rest of the islands; in consequence of which, his son chose it for his dukedom. It was settled by Juan d'Esquivel, A. D. 1509, who built the town, which, from the place of his birth, he called Seville, and eleven leagues farther to the east stood Melilla. Orifon was on the south side of the island, seated on what is now called the Blue Fields river. All these are gone to decay, but St. Jago, now Spanish-Town, is still the capital. The Spaniards held this country one hundred and sixty years, and in their time the principal commodity was cacao: they had an immense stock of horses, asses, and mules, and prodigious quantities of cattle. The English landed here under Penn and Venables, May 11, 1654, and quickly reduced the island. Cacao was also their principal commodity till the old trees decayed, and the new ones did not thrive; and then the planters from Barbadoes introduced sugar canes, which hath been the great staple ever since.

The prospect of this island from the sea, by reason of its constant verdure, and many fair and safe bays, is wonderfully pleasant. The coast, and for some miles within the land, is low; but removing farther, it rises, and becomes hilly. The whole island is divided by a ridge of mountains running east and west, some rising to a great height; and these are composed of rock, and a very hard clay, through which, however, the rains that fall incessantly upon them have worn long and deep cavities, which they call gullies. These mountains, however, are far from being unpleasant, as they are crowned even to their summits by a variety of fine trees. There are also about a hundred rivers that issue from them on both sides; and though none of them are navigable for any thing but canoes, are both pleasing and profitable in many other respects. The climate, like that of all countries between the tropics, is very warm towards the sea, and in marshy places unhealthy; but in more elevated situations cooler, and where people live temperately, to the full as wholesome as any part of the West-Indies. The rains fall heavy for about a fortnight in the months of May and October; and as they are the cause of fertility, are styled seasons. Thunder is pretty frequent, and sometimes showers of hail; but ice or snow, except on the tops of the mountains, are never seen, but on them, and at no very great height, the air is exceedingly cold.

The most eastern parts of this ridge are famous under the name of the Blue mountains. This great chain of rugged rocks defends the south side of the island from those boisterous north-west winds, which might be fatal to their produce. Their streams, though small, supply the inhabitants with good water, which is a great blessing, as their wells are generally brackish. The Spaniards were persuaded that these hills abounded with metals; but we do not find that they wrought any mines, or if they did, it was only copper, of which they said the bells in the church of St. Jago were made. They have several hot springs, which have done great cures. The climate was certainly more temperate before the great earthquake, and the island was supposed to be out of the reach of hurricanes, which since then it hath severely felt. The heat, however, is very much tempered by land and sea breezes, and it is asserted, that the hottest time of the day is about eight in the morning. In the night, the wind blows from the land on all sides, so that no ships can then enter their ports.

In an island so large as this, which contains above five millions of acres, it may be very reasonably conceived that there are great variety of soils. Some of these are deep, black, and rich, and mixed

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with a kind of potter's earth, others shallow and sandy, and some of a middle nature. There are many savannahs, or wide plains, without stones, in which the native Indians had luxuriant crops of maize, which the Spaniards turned into meadows, and kept in them prodigious herds of cattle. Some of these savannahs are to be met with even amongst the mountains. All these different soils may be justly pronounced fertile, as they would certainly be found, if tolerably cultivated, and applied to proper purposes. A sufficient proof of this will arise from a very cursory review of the natural and artificial produce of this spacious country.

It abounds in maize, pulse, vegetables of all kinds, meadows of fine grass, a variety of beautiful flowers, and as great a variety of oranges, lemons, citrons, and other rich fruits. Useful animals there are of all sorts, horses, asses, mules, black cattle of a large size, and sheep, the flesh of which is well tasted, though their wool is hairy and bad. Here are also goats and hogs in great plenty, sea and river fish, wild, tame, and water fowl. Amongst other commodities of great value, they have the sugar cane, cocoa, indigo, pimento, cotton, ginger, and coffee; trees for timber and other uses, such as mahogany, manchineel, white wood, which no worm will touch, cedar, olives, and many more. Besides these, they have fustic, red wood, and various other materials for dying. To these we may add a multitude of valuable drugs, such as as guaiacum, china sarsaparilla, cassia, tamarinds, vanellas, and the prickly pear or opuntia, which produces the cochineal, with no inconsiderable number of odoriferous gums. Near the coast they have salt ponds, with which they supply their own consumption, and might make any quantity they pleased.

As this island abounds with rich commodities, it is happy likewise in having a number of fine and safe ports. Point Morant, the eastern extremity of the island, hath a fair and commodious bay. Passing on to the south there is Port-Royal; on a neck of land which forms one side of it, there stood once the fairest town in this island; and the harbour is as fine a one as can be wished, capable of holding a thousand large vessels, and still the station of the English Squadron. Old harbour is also a convenient port, so is Maccary bay; and there are at least twelve more between this and the western extremity, which is point Negrillo, where ships of war lie when there is a war with Spain. On the north side there is Orange bay, Cold harbour, Rio Novo, Montego bay, Port Antonio, one of the finest in the island, and several others.

The north-west winds, which sometimes blow furiously on this coast, render the country on that side less fit for canes, but pimento thrives wonderfully; and certainly many other staples might be raised in small plantations, which are frequent in Barbadoes, and might be very advantageous here in many respects.

The town of Port-Royal stood on a point of land running far out into the sea, narrow, sandy, and incapable of producing any thing; yet the excellence of the port, the convenience of having ships of seven hundred tons coming close up to their wharfs, and other advantages, gradually attracted inhabitants in such a manner, that though many of their habitations were built on piles, there were near two thousand houses in the town in its most flourishing state, and which let at high rents. The earthquake by which it was overthrown happened on the 7th of June, 1692, and numbers of people perished in it. This earthquake was followed by an epidemic disease, of which upwards of three thousand died; yet the place was rebuilt, but the greatest part was reduced to ashes by a fire that happened on the 9th of January, 1703, and then the inhabitants removed mostly to Kingston. It was, however, rebuilt for the third time, and was raising towards its former grandeur, when it was overwhelmed by the sea, August 28, 1722; there is, notwithstanding, a small town there at this day. Hurricanes since that time have often happened, and occasioned terrible devastation; one in particular, in 1780, which almost overwhelmed the little sea port town of Savannah la Mar.

The island is divided into three counties, Middlesex, Surry, and Cornwall, containing twenty parishes, over each of which presides a magistrate, styled a custos; but these parishes in point of size are a kind of hundreds. The whole contains thirty-six towns and villages, eighteen churches and chapels, and about twenty-three thousand white inhabitants.

The administration of public affairs is by a governor and council of royal appointment, and the representatives of the people in the lower House of Assembly. They meet at Spanish-town, and things are conducted with great order and dignity. The lieutenant-governor and commander in chief has five thousand pounds currency, or three thousand five hundred and seventy-one pounds eight shillings and six-pence three farthings sterling, besides which, he has a house in Spanish-town, a pen or a farm adjoining, and a polink or mountain for provisions, a secretary, an under secretary, and a domestic chaplain, and other fees, which make his income at least eight thousand five

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five hundred and fifty pounds currency, or six thousand one hundred pounds sterling.

The honourable the council consists of a president and ten members, with a clerk, at two hundred and seventy pounds, chaplain one hundred pounds, usher of the black rod and messenger, two hundred and fifty pounds.

The honourable the assembly consists of forty-three members, one of whom is chosen speaker. To this assembly belongs a clerk, with one thousand pounds salary; a chaplain, one hundred and fifty pounds; messenger, seven hundred pounds; deputy, one hundred and forty pounds; and printer, two hundred pounds.

The number of members returned by each parish and county are, for Middlesex seventeen, viz. St. Catharine three, St. Dorothy two, St. John two, St. Thomas in the Vale two, Clarendon two, Vere two, St. Mary two, St. Ann two: for Surry sixteen, viz. Kingston three, Port-Royal three, St. Andrew two, St. David two, St. Thomas in the East two, Portland two, St. George two: for Cornwall ten, viz. St. Elizabeth two, Westmorland two, Hanover two, St. James two, Trelawney two.

The high court of chancery consists of the chancellor (governor for the time being) twenty-five masters in ordinary, and twenty masters extraordinary, a register, and clerk of the patents, serjeant at arms, and mace-bearer. The court of vice admiralty has a sole judge, judge surrogate, and commissary, king's advocate, principal register, marshal, and a deputy-marshal. The court of ordinary consists of the ordinary (governor for the time being) and a clerk. The supreme court of judicature has a chief justice and sixteen assistant judges, attorney-general, clerk of the courts, clerk of the crown, solicitor of the crown, thirty-three commissioners for taking affidavits, a provost-marshal-general, and eight deputies, eighteen barristers, besides the attorney-general and advocate-general, and upwards of one hundred and twenty practising attorneys at law.

The trade of this island will best appear by the quantity of shipping, and the number of seamen to which it gives employment, and the nature and quantity of its exports. The following is an account from the books of the inspector-general of Great-Britain, of the number of vessels of all kinds there registered, tonnage, and number of men, which cleared from the several ports of entry in Jamaica, in the year 1787, exclusive of coasting sloops, wherries, &c.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION

	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Men.
For Great-Britain	242	63471	7748
Ireland	10	1231	91
American States	133	13041	893
British American Colonies	66	6133	449
Foreign West-Indies . . .	22	1903	155
Africa	1	109	8
Total	474	85888	9344

It must, however, be observed, that as many of the vessels clearing for America and the foreign West-Indies make two or more voyages in the year, it is usual, in computing the real number of those vessels, their tonnage and men, to deduct one third from the official numbers. With this correction the total to all parts is four hundred vessels, containing seventy-eight thousand eight hundred and sixty-two tons, navigated by eight thousand eight hundred and forty-five men.

The exports for the same year are given on the same authority, as follows:



Inspector

Inspector-General's Account of the JAMAICA EXPORTS, between the 5th of January, 1787, and the 5th of January, 1788, with the Value in Sterling Money, according to the Prices then current.

Inspector-General's Account of the JAMAICA EXPORTS, between the 5th of January, 1787, and the 5th of January, 1788, with the Value in Sterling Money, according to the Prices then current at the London Market.

To what PARTS.	Sugar.		Rum.	Melasses.		Pimento.		Coffee.		Cotton Wool.		Indigo.	
	Cwt.	qrs. lbs.		Gallons.	Gallons.	lbs.	Cwt.	qrs. lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	
To Great-Britain	824,706	2 25	1,890,540	2,316	606,994	3,706	3 27	1,899,967	27,223				
Ireland	6,829	0 0	106,700	—	2,800	10 0	0	5,500	400				
American States	6,167	0 0	327,325	1,800	6,450	2,566	0 2	—	—				
Br. Amer. Colonies	2,822	0 0	207,000	2,300	200	110	3 8	1,000	—				
Foreign W. Indies	24	0 0	2,200	—	—	2	0 0	—	—				
Africa	—	—	8,600	—	—	—	—	—	—				
Totals	840,548	2 25	2,543,025	6,416	616,444	6,295	3 9	1,906,467	27,623				

(Continued.)

To what PARTS.	Ginger.		Cocoa.		Tobacco.		Mahogany.		Logwood.		Miscellaneous Articles.		Total Value.	
	Cwt.	qrs. lbs.	Cwt.	qrs. lbs.	lbs.	Tons.	Cwt.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Value.	Value.	£.	s. d.
To Great-Britain	3,553	2 15	82	3 15	18,140	5,783	4	6,701	147,286	1.38.4d	2,022,814	7 10	25,778	10 0
Ireland	918	0 0	—	—	—	95	0	—	—	—	—	—	60,095	18 0
American States	339	0 0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	26,538	2 5
Br. Amer. Colonies	4	0 0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	355	19 0
Foreign W. Indies	2	0 0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	800	0 0
Africa	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Totals	4,876	2 15	82	3 15	18,140	5,878	4	6,701	—	—	—	—	2,136,442	17 3

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But it must be noted, that a considerable part of the cotton, indigo, tobacco, mahogany, dye-woods, and miscellaneous articles, included in the preceding account, is the produce of the foreign West-Indies imported into Jamaica, partly under the free-port law, and partly in small British vessels employed in a contraband traffic with the Spanish American territories, payment of which is made chiefly in British manufactures and negroes; and considerable quantities of bullion, obtained by the same means, are annually remitted to Great-Britain, of which no precise accounts can be procured.

The General Account of IMPORTS into Jamaica will stand nearly as follows, viz.

IMPORTS INTO JAMAICA.

	£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.
From Great-Britain, } direct, according } to a return of the } Inspector-General } for 1787. }	British manu- factures	686,657	2	3
	Foreign mer- chandise	72,275	3	1
		<hr/> 758,932 5 4		
From Ireland, allowing a moiety of the whole import to the British West-Indies, consisting of manufactures and salted provisions to the amount of 350,000l.				175,000 0 0
From Africa, five thousand three hundred and forty-five negroes,* at 40l. sterling each—(this is wholly a British trade, carried on in ships from England)				213,800 0 0
From the British Colonies in America, including about twenty thousand quintals of salted cod from Newfoundland				30,000 0 0
From the United States, Indian corn, wheat, flour, rice, lumber, slaves, &c. imported in British ships				90,000 0 0
From Madeira and Teneriffe, in ships trading circuitously from Great-Britain, five hundred pipes of wine, exclusive of wines for re-exportation, at 30l. sterling the pipe				15,000 0 0
		<hr/> 1,282,732 5 4		

* Being an average of the whole number imported and retained in the island for ten years, 1778 to 1787, as returned by the inspector-general.

	£. s. d.
Brought over -	1,282,732 5 4
From the foreign West-Indies, under the free-port law, &c. calculated on an average of three years *	150,000 0 0
	£.1,432,732 5 4

* From returns of the inspector-general. The following are the particulars for the year 1787.

Cotton wool	-	-	-	194,000 lbs.
Cacao	-	-	-	64,750 lbs.
Cattle, viz.				
Asses	-	-	43	
Horses	-	-	233	
Mules	-	-	585	
Oxen	-	-	243	
Sheep	-	-	98	
			-	1,202 No.
Dying woods	-	-	-	5,077 Tons.
Gum guaiacum	-	-	-	79 Barrels.
Hides	-	-	-	4,537 No.
Indigo	-	-	-	4,663 lbs.
Mahogany	-	-	-	9,993 Planks.
Tortoise shell	-	-	-	655 lbs.
Dollars	-	-	-	53,850 No.

A RETURN of the number of SUGAR PLANTATIONS in the island of JAMAICA, and the NEGRO SLAVES thereon, on the 28th of March, 1789, distinguishing the several Parishes.

County of Middlefex.			Plantations.	Total Number of Negroes in each County.	Total of Sugar Plantations.	Total of Negroes employed in cultivation of Sugar.
	No. of Sugar Plant.	Negroes thereon.				
Parish of St. Mary . . .	63	12,065				
Do. St. Anne	30	4,908				
Do. St. John	21	3,713				
Do. St. Dorothy	12	1,776				
Do. St. Tho. in the Vale	33	5,327				
Do. Clarendon	56	10,150				
Do. Vere	26	5,279				
Do. St. Catharine	3	408				
Total in the County of Middlefex			244	43,626		
County of Surry.			Plantations.	Total Number of Negroes in each County.	Total of Sugar Plantations.	Total of Negroes employed in cultivation of Sugar.
	No. of Sugar Plant.	Negroes thereon.				
Parish of St. Andrew . .	24	3,540				
Do. St. George	14	2,795				
Do. Portland	23	2,968				
Do. Port-Royal	3	358				
Do. St. David	12	1,890				
Do. St. Tho. in the East	83	15,786				
Do. Kingston						
Total in the County of Surry			159	27,337		
County of Cornwall.			Plantations.	Total Number of Negroes in each County.	Total of Sugar Plantations.	Total of Negroes employed in cultivation of Sugar.
	No. of Sugar Plant.	Negroes thereon.				
Parish of Trelawney . . .	83	15,692				
Do. St. James	67	12,482				
Do. Hanover	69	13,330				
Do. Westmoreland	62	11,219				
Do. St. Elizabeth	26	5,112				
Total in the County of Cornwall			307	57,835		
Total in Jamaica			710	128,798		

B A R B A D O E S.

BARBADOES, the most easterly of all the Caribbee islands, subject to Great-Britain, and, according to the best geographers, lying between $59^{\circ} 50'$ and $62^{\circ} 2'$ of west longitude, and between $12^{\circ} 56'$ and $13^{\circ} 16'$ of north latitude. Its extent is not certainly known; the most general opinion is, that it is twenty-five miles from north to south, and fifteen from east to west; but these mensurations are subject to so many difficulties and uncertainties, that it will perhaps convey a more adequate idea of this island to tell the reader, that in reality it does not contain above one hundred and seven thousand acres. The climate is hot but not unwholesome, the heat being qualified by sea breezes; and a temperate regimen renders this island as safe to live in as any climate south of Great-Britain; and, according to the opinion of many, as even Great-Britain itself. This island has on its east side two streams that are called rivers, and in the middle is said to have a bituminous spring, which sends forth a liquor like tar, and serves for the same uses as pitch or lamp oil. The island abounds in wells of good water, and has several reservoirs for rain water. Some parts of the soil are said to be hollowed into caves, some of them capable of containing three hundred people. These are imagined to have been the lurking-places of runaway negroes, but may as probably be natural excavations. The woods that formerly grew upon the island have been all cut down, and the ground converted into sugar plantations. When those plantations were first formed, the soil was prodigiously fertile, but has since been worn out, insomuch, that about the year 1730, the planters were obliged to raise cattle for the sake of their dung, by which means the profit of their plantations was reduced to less than a tenth of its usual value. Notwithstanding the smallness of Barbadoes, its soil is different, being in some places sandy and light, and others rich, and in others spongy, but all of it is cultivated according to its proper nature, so that the island presents to the eye the most beautiful

ful appearance that can be imagined. Oranges and lemons grow in Barbadoes in great plenty, and in their utmost perfection. The lemon juice here has a peculiar fragrancy. The citrons of Barbadoes afford the best drams and sweetmeats of any in the world, the Barbadoes ladies excelling in the art of preserving the rind of the citron fruit. The juice of the limes, or dwarf lemons, is the most agreeable souring we know, and great quantities of it have of late been imported into Britain and Ireland. The pine apple is also a native of Barbadoes, and grows there to much greater perfection than it can be made to do in Europe by any artificial means. A vast number of different trees peculiar to the climate are also found to flourish in Barbadoes in great perfection, such as the aloe, mangrove, calabash, cedar, cotton, mastic, &c. Here likewise are produced some sensitive plants, with a good deal of garden stuff, which is common in other places. In short, a native of the finest, the richest, and most diversified country in Europe, can hardly form an idea of the variety of delicious, and at the same time nutritive vegetable productions with which the island abounds.

When Barbadoes was first discovered by the English, few or no quadrupeds were found upon it, except hogs, which had been left there by the Portuguese. For convenience of carriage to the sea side, some of the planters at first procured camels, which undoubtedly would in all respects have been preferable to horses for their sugar and other works; but the nature of the climate disagreeing with that animal, it was found impossible to preserve the breed. They then applied for horses to Old and New-England; from the former they had those that were fit for slow and draught; from the latter those that were proper for mounting their militia, and for the saddle. They had likewise some of an inferior breed from Curassao, and other settlements. They are reported to have had their first breed of black cattle from Bonavista, and the isle of May; they now breed upon the island, and often do the work of horses. Their asses are very serviceable in carrying burdens to and from the plantations. The hogs of Barbadoes are finer eating than those of Britain, but the few sheep they have are not near so good. They likewise have goats, which, when young, are excellent food. Raccoons and monkeys are also found here in great abundance. A variety of birds are produced on Barbadoes, of which the humming bird is the most remarkable. Wild fowl do not often frequent this island; but sometimes teal are found near their ponds. A bird which they call

the

the man of war, is said to meet ships at twenty leagues from land, and their return is, to the inhabitants, a sure sign of the arrival of these ships: When the wind blows from the south and south-west, they have flocks of curlews, plovers, snipes, wild pigeons, and wild ducks. The wild pigeons are very fat and plentiful at such seasons, and rather larger than those of England. The tame pigeons, pullets, ducks, and poultry of all kinds, that are bred at Barbadoes, have also a fine flavour, and are accounted more delicious than those of Europe. Their rabbits are scarce; they have no hares, and if they have deer of any kind, they are kept as curiosities. The insects of Barbadoes are not venomous, nor do either their snakes or their scorpions ever sting. The musketoes are troublesome, and bite, but are more tolerable in Barbadoes than on the continent. Various other insects are found on the island, some of which are troublesome, but in no greater degree than those that are produced by every warm summer in England. Barbadoes is well supplied with fish, and some caught in the sea surrounding it are almost peculiar to itself, such as the parrot fish, snappers, grey cavallos, terbums, and coney fish. The mullets, lobsters, and crabs caught here are excellent; and the green turtle is, perhaps, the greatest delicacy that ancient or modern luxury can boast of. At Barbadoes this delicious shell fish seldom sells for less than a shilling a pound, and often for more. There is found in this island a kind of land crab, which eats herbs wherever it can find them, and shelters itself in houses and hollow trees. According to report, they are a shell fish of passage, for in March they travel to the sea in great numbers.

The inhabitants may be reduced to three classes, viz. the masters, the white servants, and the blacks. The former are either English, Scots, or Irish; but the great encouragement given by the government to the peopling of this and other West-Indian islands, induced some Dutch, French, Portuguese, and Jews, to settle among them; by which, after a certain time, they acquire the rights of naturalization in Great-Britain. The white servants, whether by covenant or purchase, lead more easy lives than the day-labourers in England, and when they come to be overseers, their wages and other allowances are considerable. The manners of the white inhabitants in general are the same as in most polite towns and countries in Europe. The capital of the island is Bridge-town.

When

When the English, some time after the year 1625, first landed here, they found it the most 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, no root fit for supporting the life of man. Yet, as the climate was so good, and the soil appeared fertile, some gentlemen of small fortune in England resolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were so large, and of a wood so hard and stubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was necessary for their subsistence. By unremitting perseverance, however, they 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 storm between king and parliament, which was 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 fifty thousand whites, and a much greater number of negro 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 slaves therefore was still augmented; and in 1676 it is supposed that their number amounted to one hundred thousand, which, together with fifty thousand whites, make one hundred and fifty thousand 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 the above period, Barbadoes employed four hundred sail of ships, one with another, of one hundred and fifty tons, in their trade. Their annual exports in sugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citrou-water, were above thirty-five thousand pounds, and their circulating cash at home was two hundred thousand pounds. 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. Their

numbers at present are said to be twenty thousand whites, and one hundred thousand slaves. Their commerce consists of the same articles as formerly, though they deal in them to less extent.

Barbadoes is divided into five districts and eleven parishes, and contains four towns, viz. Bridge-town, Oskins, or Charles-town, St. James's, formerly called the Hole, and Speight's-town. Bridge-town, the capital, before it was destroyed by the fires of 1766, consisted of about fifteen hundred houses, which were mostly built of brick; and it is still the seat of government, and may be called the chief residence of the governor, who is provided with a country villa called Pilgrims, situated within a mile of it; his salary was raised by Queen Anne from twelve hundred to two thousand pounds per ann. the whole of which is paid out of the exchequer, and charged to the account of the four and a half per cent. duty. The form of the government of this island so very nearly resembles that of Jamaica, which has already been described, that it is unnecessary to enter into detail, except to observe that the council is composed of twelve members, and the assembly of twenty-two. The most important variation respects the court of chancery, which in Barbadoes is constituted of the governor and council, whereas in Jamaica the governor is sole chancellor. On the other hand, in Barbadoes, the governor sits in council, even when the latter are acting in a legislative capacity: this in Jamaica would be considered improper and unconstitutional. It may also be observed, that the courts of grand sessions, common pleas and exchequer in Barbadoes, are distinct from each other, and not as in Jamaica, united and blended in one supreme court of judicature.

We shall close our account of Barbadoes with the following authentic document.

An

An ACCOUNT of the Number of Vessels, their Tonnage and Number of Men, including their repeated Voyages, that cleared Outwards from the Island of BARBADOES to all Parts of the World, between the 5th of January, 1787, and the 5th of January, 1788, with the Species, Quantities, and Value of their Cargoes, according to the actual Prices in London, as made out by the Inspector-General of Great-Britain.

Whither bound.	Shipping.		Sugr.	Rum.	Melasses.	Ginger.	Cotton.	Miscellaneous Articles.		Total Value in Sterling Money agreeably to the London Market.							
	No.	Tons.						Men.	Value.		Futic.						
To Great-Britain	66	11,221	833	136,242	0 16	28,689	1,089	5,437	2 18	2,640,725	240	0 5	45,948	19 11	£. s. d.	486,570	4 8
Ireland	3	317	28	2,114	0 0	25,200	—	124	0 0	65,250	5	0 0	35	7 10	11,521	15 10	
American States	54	6,416	379	2,668	0 0	213,400	706	—	—	—	—	—	38	5 0	23,217	13 4	
Br. Am. Colonies	41	3,182	237	2,742	0 0	146,100	11,700	—	—	—	—	—	69	16 0	18,080	6 0	
Foreign West-Indies	78	5,664	458	—	—	2,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	32	0 0	207	0 0	
Africa	1	87	7	—	—	100	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	15 0	
Total	243	26,917	1,942	137,766	0 16	415,489	13,489	5,551	2 18	2,705,975	245	0 5	46,124	7 11	539,605	14 10	

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SAINT CHRISTOPHER'S.

THIS island, commonly called St. Kitt's, is situated in 62° west longitude and 17° north latitude, about fourteen leagues from Antigua; is twenty miles long and about seven broad; it was discovered in November, 1493, by Columbus, and named after himself, but was never planted or possessed by the Spaniards: it is in reality the oldest of all the British settlements in the West-Indies, and the common mother both of the French and English settlements in the Caribbean islands. It was first settled by a Mr. Warner and fourteen other persons in 1623. Mr. Warner, a respectable gentleman, had accompanied Capt. North in a voyage to Surinam, where he had become acquainted with a Capt. Painton, a very experienced seaman, who suggested to him the advantages of a settlement on one of the West-India islands deserted by the Spaniards, and pointed out this as eligible for such an undertaking. Mr. Warner returning to Europe in 1620, determined to carry this project into execution. He accordingly sailed with the above party to Virginia, from whence he took his passage to St. Christopher's, where he arrived in the month of January, 1623, and by the month of September following had raised a good crop of tobacco, which they proposed to make their staple commodity.

Unfortunately, their plantations were destroyed the latter end of the year by an hurricane; in consequence of which calamity, Mr. Warner returned to England, and obtained the powerful patronage of the Earl of Carlisle, who caused a ship to be fitted out and laden with all kinds of necessaries, which arrived on the 18th of May following; and thus saved a settlement which had otherwise died in its infancy. Warner himself did not, however, return till the year 1625, when he carried with him a large number of other persons. About this time, and, according to some writers, on the same day with Warner, arrived D'Esnaubuc, the captain of, and about thirty hardy veterans belonging to, a French privateer, which had been much damaged in an engagement with a Spanish galleon; they were received kindly by the English, and remained with them on the island,

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49124	7	11
49124	5	5
245	0	5
2,705,975	245	0
51561	2	18
13,489	51561	2
415,489	13,489	51561
137,766	0	16
1,942	137,766	0
26,917	1,942	137,766
243	26,917	1,942
Total	243	26,917

island, from whence, by their united endeavours, they drove the original inhabitants.

After this exploit, these two leaders returned to their respective countries to solicit succours, and bringing with them the name of conquerors, they met with every encouragement. Warner was knighted, and, by the influence of his patron, sent back in 1626, with four hundred fresh recruits, amply furnished with necessaries of all kinds. D'Esnambuc obtained from Cardinal Richelieu, the then minister of France, the establishment of a separate company, to trade with this and some other islands. Subscriptions, however, did not come in very rapid, and the ships sent out by the new company were so badly provided, that of five hundred and thirty-two new settlers, who sailed from France in 1627, the greater part perished miserably at sea for want of food. The English received the survivors, and, to prevent contests about limits, the commanders of each nation divided the island as equally as possible among their respective followers. The island thus continued in the hands of the French and English until the peace of Utrecht, when it was finally ceded to Great-Britain. We are not, however, to suppose, that during this period harmony and good-will prevailed; on the contrary, the English were three times driven off the island, and their plantations laid waste: nor were the French much less sufferers. Such are the consequences of those cursed systems or maxims of government, which beget a spirit of enmity against all those who are of a different nation. After the peace of Utrecht, the French possessions, a few excepted, were sold for the benefit of the English government; and in 1783, eighty thousand pounds of the money was granted as a marriage portion to the Princess Anne, who was betrothed to the Prince of Orange. In 1782, it was attacked and taken by the French, but again ceded to Britain at the peace of 1783.

About one-half of this island is supposed to be unfit for cultivation, the interior parts consisting of many high and barren mountains, between which are horrid precipices and thick woods. The loftiest mountain, which is evidently a decayed volcano, is called mount Misery; it rises three thousand seven hundred and eleven feet perpendicular height from the sea. Nature has, however, made a recompense for the sterility of the mountains by the fertility of the plains. The soil is a dark grey loam, very light and porous, and is supposed by Mr. Edwards * to be the production of subterraneous

* Vide History of West-Indies, vol. i. p. 429.

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fires finely incorporated with a pure loam or virgin mould; this soil is peculiarly favourable to the culture of sugar. In the south-west part of the island hot sulphureous springs are found at the foot of some of the mountains: the air is, on the whole, salubrious, but the island is subject to hurricanes.

St. Christopher's is divided into nine parishes, and contains four towns and hamlets, viz. Basseterre, (the capital) Sandy point, Old road, and Deep bay; of these, Basseterre and Sandy point are ports of entry established by law. The fortifications on this island are Charles fort and Brimstone hill near Sandy point, three batteries at Basseterre, one at Fig-tree bay, another at Palmeton point, and some others of little importance.

St. Christopher's contributes twelve hundred pounds currency per annum towards the support of the governor-general, besides the perquisites of his office, which in war time are very considerable: the council consists of ten members; the house of assembly of twenty-four representatives, of whom fifteen make a quorum. The qualification for a representative is a freehold of forty acres of land, or a house worth forty pounds per annum; for an elector, a freehold of ten pounds per annum: the governor is chancellor by office, and sits alone on the bench. The jurisdiction of the courts of king's bench and common pleas centers in one superior court, wherein justice is administered by a chief justice and four assistant judges, the former appointed by the king, the latter by the governor in the king's name; they all hold their offices during pleasure. The office of the chief judge is worth about six hundred pounds per annum; those of the assistant judges trifling. The present number of inhabitants are estimated at four thousand white inhabitants, three hundred free blacks and mulattoes, and about twenty-six thousand slaves.

As in the other British islands in the neighbourhood, all the white males from sixteen to sixty are obliged to enlist in the militia; they serve without pay, and form two regiments of about three hundred effective men each: these, with a company of free blacks, constituted the whole force of the island before the last war. Since that period, a small addition of British troops have, we believe, in general been kept there.

A N T I G U A.

ANTIGUA is situated about twenty leagues east of St. Christopher's, in west longitude $62^{\circ} 5'$, and north latitude $17^{\circ} 30'$. It is about fifty miles in circumference, and is reckoned the largest of all the British Leeward islands.

This island has neither stream nor spring of *fresh* water; this inconvenience, which rendered it uninhabitable to the Caribbees, deterred for some time Europeans from attempting a permanent establishment upon it; but few, if any, are the obstacles of Nature, which civilised man will not overcome, more especially when interest spurs him on. The soil of Antigua was found to be fertile, and it soon presented itself to the view of enterprising genius, that by means of cisterns the necessity of springs and streams might be superseded. Hence, as early as 1632, a son of Sir Thomas Warner, and a number of other Englishmen, settled here, and began the cultivation of tobacco. In 1674, Colonel Codrington, of Barbadoes, removed to this island, and succeeded so well in the culture of sugar, that, animated by his example, and aided by his experience, many others engaged in the same line of business. A few years after, Mr. Codrington was declared captain-general and commander in chief of the Leeward islands, and carried his attention to their welfare farther than perhaps any other governor either before or since has done, and the good effects of his wisdom and attention were soon manifest.

Antigua, in particular, had so far increased, that in 1690, when General Codrington headed an expedition against the French settlement at St. Christopher's, it furnished eight hundred effective men. Mr. Codrington dying in 1698, was succeeded by his son Christopher, who, pursuing his father's steps, held the government till 1704, when he was superseded by Sir William Matthews, who died soon after his arrival. Queen Anne then bestowed the government on Daniel Park, Esq. a man who for debauchery, villany and despotism, though he may have been equalled, was certainly never excelled. His government lasted till Dec. 1710, when his oppressions

aroused

aroused the inhabitants to resistance: he was seized by the enraged multitude and torn to pieces, and his reeking limbs scattered about the street. An inquiry was instituted with respect to the perpetration of this act; the people of England were divided, some looking upon his death as an act of rebellion against the crown, others viewing it as a just sacrifice to liberty. The government, however, after a full inquiry, were so fully satisfied of Park's guilty and illegal conduct, that, much to their honour, they issued a general pardon for all persons concerned in his death, and, some time afterwards, sanctioned the promotion of two of the principal perpetrators to seats in the council.

The principal article raised in this island is sugar; besides which, cotton-wool and tobacco, is raised in considerable quantities, and likewise provisions to a considerable amount in favourable years.

Crops here are very unequal, and it is exceeding difficult to furnish an average: in 1779, there was shipped three thousand three hundred and eighty-two hogheads and five hundred and seventy-nine tierces of sugar: in 1782, the crop was fifteen thousand one hundred and two hogheads and one thousand six hundred and three tierces; in 1770, 1773, and 1778, there were no crops of any kind, owing to long continued drought. The island is progressively decreasing in produce and population. The last accurate returns to government were made in the year 1774, when the white inhabitants of all ages and sexes were two thousand five hundred and ninety, and the enslaved blacks thirty-seven thousand eight hundred and eight: seventeen thousand hogheads of sugar of sixteen hundred weight each, are deemed, on the whole, a good saving crop; as one-half of the canes only are cut annually, this is about an hoghead to the acre.

Antigua is divided into six parishes and eleven districts, and contains six towns and villages. St. John's, which is the capital, Parham, Falmouth, Willoughby bay, Old road, and James's fort; the two first are the legal ports of entry. The island has many excellent harbours, particularly English harbour and St. John's, at the former of which there is a dock-yard and arsenal established by the English government.

The military establishment here is two regiments of infantry and two of militia, besides which there is a squadron of dragoons and a battalion of artillery raised in the island. The governor, or captain-general, of the Leeward islands, though directed by his instructions to visit each island within his government, is generally sta-

tionary at Antigua: in hearing the causes from the other islands he sits alone, but in causes arising within the island he is assisted by a council; and by an act of assembly, sanctioned by the crown, the president and a majority of the council may hear and determine chancery causes during the absence of the governor-general; besides this court, there is a court of King's Bench, a court of Common Pleas, and a court of Exchequer.

The legislature of Antigua consists of the commander in chief, a council of twelve members, and an assembly of twenty-five. The legislature of Antigua set the first example of a melioration of the criminal law respecting negro slaves, by allowing them a trial by jury, &c. And the inhabitants, still more to their honour, have encouraged the propagation of the gospel among their slaves.

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GRENADINES.

GRENADA lies in west longitude $61^{\circ} 40'$, north latitude $12^{\circ} 0'$. It is the last of the windward Caribbees, and lies thirty leagues north of New-Andalusia, on the continent. According to some, it is twenty-four leagues in compass; according to others, only twenty-two; and it is said to be thirty miles in length, and in some places fifteen in breadth. The island abounds with wild game and fish; it produces also very fine timber, but the cocoa tree is observed not to thrive here so well as in the other islands. A lake on a high mountain, about the middle of the island, supplies it with fresh water streams. Several bays and harbours lie round the island, some of which might be fortified to great advantage; so that it is very convenient for shipping, not being subject to hurricanes. The soil is capable of producing tobacco, sugar, indigo, pease and millet.

Columbus found it inhabited by a fierce, warlike people, who were left in quiet possession of the island till 1650; though, according to others, in 1638, M. Poincy, a Frenchman, attempted to make a settlement in Grenada, but was driven off by the Caribbeans, who resorted to this island in greater numbers than to the neighbouring ones, probably on account of the game with which it abounded. In 1650, however, Mons. Parquet, governor of Martinico, carried over from that island two hundred men, furnished with presents to reconcile the savages to them; but with arms to subdue them, in case they should prove untractable. The savages are said to have been frightened into submission by the number of Frenchmen; but, according to some French writers, the chief not only welcomed the new-comers, but, in consideration of some knives, hatchets, scissars, and other toys, yielded to Parquet the sovereignty of the island, reserving to themselves their own habitations. The Abbé Raynal informs us, that these first French colonists, imagining they had purchased

chased the island by these trifles, assumed the sovereignty, and soon acted as tyrants. The Caribs, unable to contend with them by force, took their usual method of murdering all those whom they found in a defenceless state. This produced a war; and the French settlers, having received a reinforcement of three hundred men from Martinico, forced the savages to retire to a mountain; from whence, after exhausting all their arrows, they rolled down great logs of wood on their enemies. Here they were joined by other savages from the neighbouring islands, and again attacked the French, but were defeated anew; and were at last driven to such desperation, that forty of them, who had escaped from the slaughter, jumped from a precipice into the sea, where they all perished, rather than fall into the hands of their implacable enemies. From thence the rock was called *le morne des sauteurs*, or, "the hill of the leapers," which name it still retains. The French then destroyed the habitations and all the provisions of the savages; but fresh supplies of the Caribbeans arriving, the war was renewed with great vigour, and great numbers of the French were killed. Upon this they resolved totally to exterminate the natives; and having accordingly attacked the savages unawares, they inhumanly put to death the women and children, as well as the men; burning all their boats and canoes, to cut off also communication between the few survivors and the neighbouring islands.* Notwithstanding all these barbarous precautions, however, the Caribbees proved the irreconcilable enemies of the French; and their frequent insurrections at last obliged Parquet to sell all his property in the island to the Count de Cerillac in 1657.† The new proprietor, who purchased Parquet's property for thirty thousand crowns, sent thither a person of brutal manners to govern the island. He behaved with such insupportable tyranny, that most of the colonists retired to Martinico; and the few who remained condemned him to death after a formal trial. In the whole court

* Of the manner in which these persons carried on the war against the natives, a pretty correct estimate may be formed from the following circumstance: a beautiful young girl, of twelve or thirteen years of age, who was taken alive, became the object of dispute between two of the French officers; each of them claiming her as his prize, a third coming up, put an end to the contest by shooting the girl through the head.

† Mr. Edwards attributes this sale to another cause; he says, the Caribbees were totally extinct, and that it was the great expense which Parquet had been at in conquering the island which obliged him to sell it.

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of justice that tried this miscreant, there was only one man (called Archangeli) who could write. A farrier was the person who impeached; and he, instead of the signatures, sealed with a horseshoe; and Archangeli, who performed the office of clerk, wrote round it these words in French, " Mark of Mr. de la Brie, counsellor for the court."

Cerrillac receiving, as supposed, but little profit from his capital, conveyed all his rights, &c. to the French West-India company; the charter of which being abolished in 1674, the island became vested in the crown of France. Under the various calamities to which this island was subjected, it will not be supposed to have made much progress. By an account taken in 1700, there were at Grenada no more than two hundred and fifty-one white people, fifty-three free savages or mulattoes, and five hundred and twenty-five slaves. The useful animals were reduced to sixty-four horses and five hundred and sixty-nine head of horned cattle. The whole culture consisted of three plantations of sugar, and fifty-two of indigo.

This unfavourable state of the affairs of Grenada was changed in 1714. The change was owing to the flourishing condition of Martinico. The richest of the ships from that island were sent to the Spanish coasts, and in their way touched at Grenada to take in refreshments. The trading privateers, who undertook this navigation, taught the people of that island the value of their soil, which only required cultivation. Some traders furnished the inhabitants with slaves and utensils to erect sugar plantations. An open account was established between the two colonies. Grenada was clearing its debts gradually by its rich produce, and the balance was on the point of being closed, when the war in 1744 interrupted the communication between the two islands, and at the same time stopped the progress of the sugar plantations. This loss was supplied by the culture of coffee, which was pursued during the hostilities with all the activity and eagerness that industry could inspire. The peace of 1748 revived all the labours, and opened all the former sources of wealth. In 1753, the population of Grenada consisted of one thousand two hundred and sixty-two white people, one hundred and seventy-five free negroes, and eleven thousand nine hundred and ninety-one slaves. The cattle amounted to two thousand two hundred and ninety-eight horses or mules, two thousand four hundred and fifty-six head of horned cattle, three thousand two hundred and seventy-eight sheep, nine hundred and two goats, and three hundred and thirty-one

hogs. The cultivation rose to eighty-three sugar plantations, two millions seven hundred and twenty-five thousand six hundred coffee trees, one hundred and fifty thousand three hundred cocoa trees, and eight hundred cotton plants. The provisions consisted of five millions seven hundred forty thousand four hundred and fifty trenches of cassada, nine hundred and thirty-three thousand five hundred and ninety-six banana trees, and one hundred and forty-three squares of potatoes and yams. The colony made a rapid progress, in proportion to the excellence of its soil; but in the course of the last war but one, the island was taken by the British. At this time, one of the mountains at the side of St. George's harbour was strongly fortified, and might have made a good defence, but surrendered without firing a gun; and by the treaty concluded in 1763 the island was ceded to Britain. On this cession, and the management of the colony after that event, the Abbé Raynal has the following remarks: "This long train of evils [the ambition and mismanagement of his countrymen] has thrown Grenada into the hands of the English, who are in possession of this conquest by the treaty of 1763. But how long will they keep this colony? Or, will it never again be restored to France? England made not a fortunate beginning. In the first enthusiasm raised by an acquisition, of which the highest opinion had been previously formed, every one was eager to purchase estates there; they sold for much more than their real value. This caprice, by expelling old colonists who were inured to the climate, sent about one million five hundred and fifty-three thousand pounds out of the mother country. This imprudence was followed by another. The new proprietors, misled by national pride, substituted new methods to those of their predecessors; they attempted to alter the mode of living among their slaves. The negroes, who from their very ignorance are more attached to their customs than other men, revolted. It was found necessary to send out troops, and to shed blood: the whole colony was filled with suspicions: the masters, who had laid themselves under a necessity of using violent methods, were afraid of being burnt or massacred in their own plantations: the labours declined, or were totally interrupted. Tranquillity was at length restored, and the number of slaves increased as far as forty thousand, and the produce raised to the treble of what it was under the French government. The plantations were farther improved by the neighbourhood of a dozen of islands, called the Grenadines or Grenadilloes, which are dependent on the colony.

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They are from three to eight leagues in circumference, but do not afford a single spring of water, one small one excepted; the air is wholesome; the ground, covered only with thin bushes, has not been screened from the sun; it exhales none of those noxious vapours which are fatal to the husbandman. Carriacou, the only one of the Grenadines which the French occupied, was at first frequented by turtle fishermen; who, in the leisure afforded them by so easy an occupation, employed themselves in clearing the ground. In process of time, their small number was increased by the accession of some of the inhabitants of Guadaloupe, who finding that their plantations were destroyed by a particular sort of ants, removed to Carriacou. The island flourished from the liberty that was enjoyed there. The inhabitants collected about one thousand two hundred slaves, by whose labours they made themselves a revenue of near twenty thousand pounds a year in cotton. The other Grenadines do not afford a prospect of the same advantages, though plantations are begun there. Sugar has succeeded remarkably well at Becouya, the largest and most fertile of these islands, which is no more than two leagues distant from St. Vincent."

In the year 1779, the conquest of this island was accomplished by D'Estaing, the French admiral, who had been prevented from attempting it before by his enterprise against St. Vincent. Immediately after the conquest of St. Lucia, however, being reinforced by a squadron under M. de la Motte, he set sail for Grenada with a fleet of twenty-six sail of the line and twelve frigates, having on board ten thousand land forces. Here he arrived on the second of July, and landed three thousand troops, chiefly Irish, being part of the brigade composed of natives of Ireland in the service of France. These were conducted by Count Dillon, who disposed them in such a manner as to surround the hill that overlooks and commands George's-town, together with the fort and harbour. To oppose these, Lord M'Cartney, the governor, had only about one hundred and fifty regulars, and three hundred or four hundred armed inhabitants; but though all resistance was evidently vain, he determined nevertheless to make an honourable and gallant defence. The preparations he made were such as induced D'Estaing himself to be present at the attack; and even with this vast superiority of force, the first attack on the entrenchments proved unsuccessful. The second continued two hours, when the garrison was obliged to yield to the immense disparity of numbers who assaulted them, after having killed or wounded three hundred of their antagonists. Having thus

made themselves masters of the entrenchments on the hill, the French turned the cannon of them towards the fort which lay under it, on which the governor demanded a capitulation. The terms, however, were so extraordinary and unprecedented, that both the governor and inhabitants agreed in rejecting them, and determined rather to surrender without any conditions at all than upon those which appeared so extravagant. This they did, and it must be acknowledged, that the protection which was afforded to the helpless inhabitants of the town and their property, was such as reflected the highest honour and lustre on the discipline and humanity of the conqueror's protections and safeguards were granted on every application; and thus a town was saved from plunder which, by the strict rules of war, might have been given up to an exasperated soldiery.

In the mean time Admiral Byron, who had been convoying the homeward bound West-India fleet, halted to St. Vincent, in hopes of recovering it; but being informed by the way, that a descent had been made at Grenada, he changed his course, hoping that Lord M'Cartney would be able to hold out till his arrival. On the sixth of July he came in sight of the French fleet, and without regarding D'Estaing's superiority of six ships of the line and as many frigates, determined, if possible, to force him to a close engagement. The French commander, however, was not so confident of his own prowess as to run the risk of an encounter of this kind, and having already achieved his conquest, had no other view than to preserve it. His designs were facilitated by the good condition of his fleet, which being more lately come out of port than that of the British, sailed faster, so that he was thus enabled to keep at what distance he pleased. The engagement began at eight in the morning, when Admiral Barrington with his own and two other ships got up to the van of the enemy, which they attacked with the greatest spirit. As the other ships of his division, however, were not able to get up to his assistance, these three ships were necessarily obliged to encounter a vast superiority, and of consequence suffered exceedingly. The battle was carried on from beginning to end in the same unequal manner; nor were the British commanders, though they used their utmost efforts for this purpose, able to bring the French to a close engagement. Thus Captains Collingwood, Edwards, and Cornwallis, stood the fire of the whole French fleet for some time. Captain Fanshaw of the Monmouth, a sixty-four gun ship, threw himself singly in the way of the enemy's van; and Admiral Rowley and Captain Burchart fought

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fought at the same disadvantage: so that finding it impossible to continue the engagement with any probability of success, a general cessation of firing took place about noon. It re-commenced in the same manner about two in the afternoon, and lasted with different interruptions till the evening. During this action some of the British ships had forced their way into St. George's harbour, not imagining that the enemy were already in possession of the island. They were soon undeceived, however, by perceiving the French colours flying ashore, and the guns and batteries firing at them. This discovery put an end to the design which had brought on the engagement; and as it was now high time to think of providing for the safety of the British transports, which were in danger from the number of the enemy's frigates, the engagement was finally discontinued. During this action some of Admiral Byron's ships had suffered extremely; the Lion of sixty-four guns, Captain Cornwallis, was found incapable of re-joining the fleet, which were plying to windward, and was therefore obliged to bear away alone before the wind. Two other ships lay far astern in a very distressed situation, but no attempt was made to capture them, nor did the French admiral show the least inclination to renew the engagement.

Grenada was again restored to Great-Britain at the peace of Paris; it contains about eighty thousand acres of land, of which although no less than seventy-two thousand one hundred and forty-one acres paid taxes in 1776, and may therefore be supposed fit for cultivation, yet the quantity actually cultivated has never exceeded fifty thousand acres. The face of the country is mountainous, but not inaccessible in any part, and abounds with springs and rivulets. To the north and the east, the soil is a brick mould, the same, or nearly the same, as that of which mention has been made in the history of Jamaica; on the west side, it is a rich black mould on a substratum of yellow clay; to the south, the land in general is poor, and of a reddish hue, and the same extends over a considerable part of the interior country. On the whole, however, Grenada appears to be fertile in a high degree, and by the variety, as well as the excellence of its returns, seems adapted to every tropical production. The exports of the year 1776, from Grenada and its dependencies, were fourteen millions twelve thousand one hundred and fifty-seven pounds of muscavado, and nine millions two hundred and seventy-three thousand six hundred and seven pounds of clayed sugar, eight hundred and eighteen thousand seven hundred gallons of rum, one million eight hundred

dred and twenty-seven thousand one hundred and sixty-six pounds of coffee, four hundred and fifty-seven thousand seven hundred and nineteen pounds of cocoa, ninety-one thousand nine hundred and forty-three pounds of cotton, twenty-seven thousand six hundred and thirty-eight pounds of indigo, and some smaller articles; the whole of which, on a moderate computation, could not be worth less, at the ports of shipping, than six hundred thousand pounds sterling, excluding freight, duties, insurance, and other charges. It deserves to be remembered too, that the sugar was the produce of one hundred and six plantations only, and that they were worked by eighteen thousand two hundred and ninety-three negroes, which was therefore rather more than one hoghead of sixteen hundred weight from the labour of each negro, old and young, employed in the cultivation of that commodity; a prodigious return, equalled, we believe, by no British island in the West-Indies, St. Christopher's excepted. The exports of 1787 will be given hereafter; they will be found, except in one or two articles, to fall greatly short of those of 1776.

This island is divided into six parishes; St. George, St. David, St. Andrew, St. Patrick, St. Mark, and St. John; and its chief dependency, Carriacou, forms a seventh parish. It is only since the restoration of Grenada to Great-Britain by the peace of 1783, that an island law has been obtained for the establishment of a Protestant clergy. This act passed in 1784, and provides stipends of three hundred and thirty pounds currency, and sixty pounds for house rent per annum, for five clergymen, viz. one for the town and parish of St. George three for the other five out parishes of Grenada, and one for Carriacou. Besides these stipends, there are valuable glebe lands, which had been appropriated to the support of the Roman Catholic clergy, whilst that was the established religion of Grenada. These lands, according to an opinion of the attorney and solicitor-general of England, to whom a question on this point was referred by the crown, became vested in his Majesty as public lands, on the restoration of the island to the British government,* and we believe have since been

* If the decision of the attorney-general and solicitor-general was founded on justice, and the government of Great-Britain had a right to seize these lands and apply them to a different purpose than that which they were originally intended, and bestowed for, the same principle must justify the French government in seizing the church lands as public property, and applying them to the benefit of their country; hence it appears that what has been termed the most daring sacrilege and usurpation when done in France, is sanctioned in Great-Britain by legal authority as an act of justice.

applied by the colonial legislature, with the consent of the crown, to the farther support of the Protestant church, with some allowance for the benefit of the *tolerated* Romish clergy of the remaining French inhabitants.

The capital of Grenada, by an order of governor Melville, soon after the cession of the country to Great-Britain by the peace of Paris, was called St. George. By this ordinance, the English names were given to the several towns and parishes, and their French names forbidden to be thereafter used in any public acts. The French name of the capital was Fort Royale; it is situated in a spacious bay, on the west or lee side of the island, not far from the south end, and possesses one of the safest and most commodious harbours for shipping in the English West-Indies, which has lately been fortified at a very great expence.

The other towns in Grenada are, properly speaking, inconsiderable villages or hamlets, which are generally situated at the bays or shipping places in the several out parishes. The parish town of Carriacou is called Hillsborough.

Grenada has two ports of entry, with separate establishments, and distinct revenue officers, independent of each other, viz. one at St. George, the capital, and one at Grenville bay, a town and harbour on the east or windward side of the island. The former, by the 27th Geo. III. c. 27, is made a free port.

It appears that the white population of Grenada and the Grenadines has decreased considerably since these islands first came into the possession of the English. The number of white inhabitants, in the year 1771, were known to be somewhat more than sixteen hundred; in 1777, they had decreased to thirteen hundred; and at this time they are supposed not to exceed one thousand, of which about two thirds are men able to bear arms, and incorporated into five regiments of militia, including a company of free blacks or mulattoes attached to each. There are likewise about five hundred regular troops from Great-Britain, which are supported on the British establishment. Besides the regular troops which are sent from Great-Britain for the protection of Grenada, there are in its garrison three companies of king's negroes, which came from America, where they served in three capacities, as pioneers, artificers, and light dragoons. In Grenada they form a company of each, and are commanded by a lieutenant of the regulars, having captain's rank.

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The negro slaves have also decreased. By the last returns preceding the capture of the island in 1779, they were stated at thirty-five thousand, of which five thousand were in Carriacou, and the smaller islands. In 1785 they amounted to no more than twenty-three thousand nine hundred and twenty-six in the whole. The decrease was owing partly to the want of any regular supply during the French government, and partly to the numbers carried from the island by the French inhabitants, both before and after the peace.

The free people of colour amounted in 1787, to one thousand one hundred and fifteen. To prevent the too great increase of this mixed race, every manumission is, by an act of this island, charged with a fine of one hundred pounds currency, payable into the public treasury. But this law has neither operated as a productive fund, nor as a prohibition; for it is usually evaded by executing and recording acts of manumission in some other island or government where there is no such law. The evidence of all free coloured people, whether born free or manumitted, is received in the courts of this island, on their producing sufficient proof of their freedom; and such free people are tried on criminal charges in the same manner as whites, without distinction of colour. They are also allowed to possess and enjoy lands and tenements to any amount, provided they are native-born subjects or capitulants, and not aliens.

The governor, by virtue of his office, is chancellor, ordinary, and vice-admiral, and presides solely in the courts of chancery and ordinary, as in Jamaica. His salary is three thousand two hundred pounds currency per annum,* which is raised by a poll tax on all slaves; and it is the practice in Grenada to pass a salary bill on the arrival of every new governor, to continue during his government. In all cases of absence beyond twelve months, the salary ceases and determines.

The council of Grenada consists of twelve members, and the assembly of twenty-six. The powers, privileges and functions of both these branches of the legislature are the same, and exercised precisely in the same manner as those of the council and assembly in Jamaica. A freehold or life estate, of fifty acres, is a qualification to sit as representatives for the parishes, and a freehold, or life estate in fifty pounds house rent in St. George, qualifies a representative for the

* The currency of Grenada, or rate of exchange, is commonly sixty-five per cent. worse than sterling.

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town. An estate of ten acres in fee, or for life, or a rent of ten pounds in any of the out towns, gives a vote for the representatives of each parish respectively; and a rent of twenty pounds per ann. issuing out of any freehold or life estate in the town of St. George, gives a vote for the representative for the town.

The law courts in Grenada, besides those of chancery and ordinary, are the court of grand sessions of the peace, held twice a year, viz. in March and September. In this court the first person named in the commission of the peace presides, who is usually the president or senior in council.—The court of common pleas: this court consists of one chief and four assistant justices, whose commissions are during pleasure. The chief justice is usually appointed in England, a professional man, and receives a salary of six hundred pounds per annum. The four assistant justices are usually appointed by the governor from among the gentlemen of the island, and act without a salary.—The court of exchequer: the barons of this court are commissioned in like manner as in the court of common pleas; but this court is lately grown into disuse.—The court of admiralty for trial of all prize causes of capture from enemies in war, and of revenue seizure in peace or war. There is one judge of admiralty and one surrogate.—The governor and council compose a court of error, as in Jamaica, for trying all appeals of error from the court of common pleas.

We have already noticed that there are several small islands subject to the laws enacted in Grenada; they each elect a person to represent them in the general assembly, which is always held in St. George's. As none of the Grenadines have a harbour fit for large vessels, the produce of them is conveyed in small vessels to St. George's, from whence it is exported to the different places of Europe, Africa, America, &c. From the number of vessels that arrive there yearly from different places, and from its being the seat of the Legislature, it has become so populous, that two newspapers are published in it. On occasion of the late prospect of a war with Spain, an act was passed here in February 1790, obliging every gentleman to give in upon oath the value of his estate, and the number of blacks upon it, in order that the general assembly might ascertain the number of slaves each should send to work upon the fortifications on Richmond hill, near St. George's.

We shall close our account of this island with a view of its exports in 1787, with an account of its value in the British market.

An Account of the Number of Vessels, their Tonnage, and Men (including their repeated Voyages) that cleared outwards from the Island of GRENADA, &c. to all Parts of the World, between the 5th of January, 1787, and the 5th of January, 1788, with the Species, Quantities, and Value of their Cargoes, according to the actual Price in London. By the Inspector-General of Great-Britain.

Whither bound.	Shipping.		Sugar.	Rum.	Melасса.	Coffee.	Cacon.	Cotton.	Indigo.	Value of Miscellaneous Articles, as Hides, Dying Woods, &c.		Total Value according to the current Prices in London.											
	No.	Tons.								Men.	Cwt. qrs. lb.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Cwt. qrs. lb.	lbs.	lbs.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	
To Great-Britain	65	13,276	969	172,880	0	9	102,590	—	8550	2	426,45	1	2,030,177	1560	64439	0	3	555,222	11	6			
Ireland	7	771	59	1248	0	0	86100	—	—	—	19	2	16	32250	24	70	0	13,580	4	5	—	—	—
American States	47	6373	410	290	0	0	272,080	—	44	4	0	36	0	—	27	4	0	24,597	4	0	—	—	—
British Amer. Colonies	30	2610	194	1130	0	0	209,620	4300	218	0	0	16	0	—	15	6	0	214,69	9	4	—	—	—
Foreign West-Indies]	39	2734	192	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	39	0	0	39	0	0	—	—	—
	188	25764	1824	175,548	—	9	670,390	4300	8812	2	42716	3	182,062,427	2810	64545	0	3	614,908	9	3	—	—	—

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DOMINICA.

THIS island is situated between 61° and 62° west longitude, and 15° and 16° north latitude, is about twenty-nine miles long, and sixteen broad; it was so named by Columbus, on account of its being discovered on a Sunday. Prior to the year 1759, its history is a mere blank; at the above period it was taken by Great-Britain from France, and afterwards confirmed to her at the peace in 1763.

When Great-Britain took possession of this island, many Frenchmen had established plantations of coffee in various parts thereof, and these were secured in their possessions by the British government, on condition of taking the oaths of allegiance, and paying a quit rent of two shillings per acre per ann. provided each plantation did not consist of more than three hundred acres. The rest of the cultivable lands were sold by auction under the inspection of commissioners appointed for that purpose: ninety-six thousand three hundred and forty-four acres were thus disposed of, which yielded to the British government three hundred and twelve thousand and ninety-two pounds eleven shillings and one penny sterling. These purchases made by British subjects do not appear to have answered the expectation of the buyers, for the French inhabitants are still the most numerous, and possess the most valuable coffee plantations in the island, the produce of which has hitherto been found its most important staple.

At the commencement of the unjust and destructive war against the American colonies by Great-Britain, the island of Dominica was in a very flourishing state. Roseau, its capital, had been declared a free port by act of parliament, and was resorted to by trading vessels from most part of the foreign West-Indies, as well as from America. The French and Spaniards purchased great numbers of negroes there for the supply of their settlements, together with large quantities of the manufactures of Great-Britain, payment for the greater part of which was made in bullion, indigo, and cotton, and completed in mules and cattle, articles of prime necessity to the planter. Thus the island,

though certainly not so fertile as some others, was rapidly advancing to importance.

The situation of this island is between the French island of Guadeloupe and Martinico, with safe and commodious roads and harbours for privateers, rendered its defence an object of the utmost importance to Great-Britain; but her despotic principles, folly, and frantic rage against her colonies on the continent, caused a total neglect of her West-India possessions. Posterity will scarcely believe that the regular force allotted to this island, the best adapted of all others for the defence of the Carribbean sea, and the distressing of the French colonies, consisted only of six officers and ninety-four privates. In 1778, the Marquis de Bouille, the governor of Martinico, made a descent with two thousand men; all resistance being vain, the only thing the garrison could do was to procure as favourable terms of capitulation as possible. These were granted with such readiness as did great honour to the character of this officer, the inhabitants experiencing no kind of change except that of transferring their obedience from Britain to France, being left unmolested in the enjoyment of all their rights, both civil and religious. The capitulation was strictly observed by the Marquis, no plunder or irregularity being allowed, and a pecuniary gratification being distributed among the soldiers and volunteers who accompanied him in the expedition. An hundred and sixty-four pieces of excellent cannon, and twenty-four brass mortars, besides a large quantity of military stores, were found in the place, insomuch that the French themselves expressed their surprize at finding so few hands to make use of them. The Marquis, however, took care to supply this defect, by leaving a garrison of one thousand five hundred of the best men he had with him.

Though the conduct of Bouille in the above expedition was such as in every part hereof to reflect honour on him as a soldier and a man, yet it was far different with respect to the Marquis Duchilleau, whom Bouille appointed commander in chief in Dominica. During five years and three months, the period this island was subject to the French monarchy, and under his administration, it was a prey to the most villainous despotism and wanton exertion of power. The principles of the late court of Versailles discovered themselves in all their hellish forms. The English inhabitants were stripped of their arms, and forbid to assemble in any greater number than two in a

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place, under the penalty of military execution; and the centinels were ordered to shoot them if they passed in greater numbers. No lights were to be seen in their houses after nine o'clock in the evening, nor was an English person to presume to walk the streets on any account whatever after that period without a lanthorn and candle. Mr. Robert How, an English merchant, and owner of a ship then in the harbour, attempting to go on board after that time, was shot dead in the attempt, and the centinel who did the act, promoted for having, as the governor expressed it, done his duty.

The town of Roseau was set on fire by the French soldiery, which if not done by the governor's orders, was however sanctioned by him, for during the whole night on which the melancholy event took place, he was present like another Nero, diverting himself with the scene, and actually forbid his soldiers to assist in extinguishing the flames, save only in houses belonging to the French inhabitants, but he permitted, if he did not positively encourage, his men to plunder the English inhabitants in the midst of their distress.

The accumulated distresses of the inhabitants ruined a number of the planters, who threw up their plantations, and abandoned them. In 1783 it was again restored to Great-Britain, and the inhabitants restored to the enjoyment of their former privileges.

This island is divided into ten parishes, the town of Roseau, which contains only five hundred houses, exclusive of the cottages of the negroes, is the capital; it is situated on a point of land on the south-west side of the island, which forms Woodbridge's and Charlotte Ville bays. The island contains many high rugged mountains, several of which contain volcanoes, which frequently discharge burning sulphur, and from some of the mountains hot springs of water issue. Between the mountains are many fertile vallies, well watered, there being at least thirty fine rivers, besides rivulets in the country.

There are not, however, at this time, more than fifty sugar plantations in work, and one year with another they do not produce more than from two to three thousand hogheads per annum. There are more than two hundred coffee plantations, which seem to answer well, as in some years they have produced twenty-six thousand seven hundred and eighty-five hundred weight. Cocoa, indigo and ginger are also cultivated, but in a very small degree, for the chief of those in the list of exports are obtained from South-America, under the sanction of the free port law.

The

GENERAL DESCRIPTION

The number of inhabitants, according to the return of 1788, is as follows: white inhabitants of all sorts, one thousand two hundred and thirty-six; free negroes, &c. four hundred and forty-five; slaves, fourteen thousand nine hundred and sixty-seven; and about twenty or thirty families of Caribbees. We shall close this account with the following table of exports, &c.

An ACCOUNT of the Number of Vessels, their Tonnage and Men, (including their repeated Voyages) that cleared outwards from the Island of DOMINICA, to all Parts of the World, between the 5th of January 1788, and the 31st of December 1788.

An ACCOUNT of the Number of Vessels, their Tonnage and Men, (including their repeated Voyages) that cleared outwards from the Island of DOMINICA, to all Parts of the World, between the 5th of January, 1787, and the 5th of January, 1788, with the Species, Quantities and Value of their Cargoes, according to the actual Prices in London.

Whither bound.	Shipping.		Sugar.	Rum.	Melaffes	Cacao.	Coffee.	Indigo.	Cotton.	Ginger.	Value of Miscellaneous Articles, as Hides, dyeing Woods, &c.		Total Value according to the Prices current in London.					
	No.	Tons.									Men.	Cwt.	qrs.	lb.	Cwt.	qrs.	lb.	lb.
To Great-Britain	56	8682	966	58,665	1 21	1492	9443	1126	2 26	17,387	3 6	11,250	961,066	161	11,635	11 3	271,472	14 0
Ireland	9	1046	85	11,163	0 0	3600	—	8 0 4	—	—	—	—	9750	—	20 0 0	—	19,900	11 6
American States	16	2003	147	1066	0 0	31,600	—	45 0 0	543 0 0	—	—	—	—	—	194 0 0	—	7164	5 0
Brit. Amer. Colonies	14	1096	96	408	0 0	25,400	7380	15 0 0	219 0 0	—	—	—	—	—	21 13 6	—	4295	3 6
Foreign W. Indies	67	5299	520	—	—	1300	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	41 6 0	—	155	1 0
	162	18,126	1814	71,302	1 21	63,392	16,803	1194	3 2	18,149	3 6	11,250	970,816	161	11,912	10 9	322,87	15 0

ST. VINCENT.

THIS island contains about eighty-four thousand acres, and is on the whole well watered ; it is, however, in general mountainous and rugged, but the intermediate vallies are exceeding fertile. The country held and cultivated by the British, at present, does not exceed twenty-three thousand six hundred and five acres, all the rest of the island being held by the Caribbees, or incapable of cultivation.

The Spaniards, according to Dr. Campbell, bestowed the name of St. Vincent on this island, on account of its being discovered on a day devoted to that Saint in their calendar ; but it does not appear that they ever got possession of it on account of the number of Indians who inhabited it ; but neither the natural strength of the island, nor their numbers, could ultimately exempt them from European hostilities.

When the English and French, who for some years had been ravaging the Windward islands, began to give some confidence to their settlements, in the year 1660 they agreed that Dominica and St. Vincent should be left to the Caribs as their property. Some of these savages, who till then had been dispersed, retired into the former, and the greater part into the latter. There these mild and moderate men, lovers of peace and silence, lived in woods, in scattered families, under the guidance of an old man, whom his age alone had advanced to the dignity of ruler. The dominion passed successively into every family, where the oldest always became king, that is to say, the guide and father of the nation. These ignorant savages were still unacquainted with the *sublime* art of subduing and governing men by force of arms ; of murdering the inhabitants of a country to get possession of their lands ; of granting to the conquerors the property, and to the conquered the labours of the conquered country ; and in process of time, of depriving both of the rights and the fruit of their toil by arbitrary taxes.

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The population of these children of nature was suddenly augmented by a race of Africans, whose origin was never positively ascertained. It is said that a ship carrying negroes for sale, foundered on the coast of St. Vincent, and the slaves who escaped the wreck, were received as brethren by the savages. Others pretend that these negroes were deserters, who ran away from the plantations of the neighbouring colonies. A third tradition says, that this foreign race comes from the blacks whom the Caribs took from the Spaniards in the first wars between those Europeans and the Indians. If we may credit Du Tertre, the most ancient historian who has written an account of the Antilles, these terrible savages who were so inveterate against their masters, spared the captive slaves, brought them home, and restored them to liberty that they might enjoy life, that is, the common blessings of nature, which no man has a right to withhold from any of his fellow creatures.

Their kindness did not stop here; for by whatever chance these strangers were brought into the island, the proprietors of it gave them their daughters in marriage, and the race that sprang from this mixture were called black Caribs: they have preserved more of the primitive colour of their fathers, than of the lighter hue of their mothers. The red Caribs are of a low stature; the black Caribs tall and stout, and this doubly-savage race speaks with a vehemence that seems to resemble anger.

In process of time, however, some differences arose between the two nations; the people of Martinico perceiving this, resolved to take advantage of their divisions, and raise themselves on the ruins of both parties. Their pretence was, that the black Caribs gave shelter to the slaves who deserted from the French islands. Imposture is always productive of injustice. Those who were falsely accused, were afterwards attacked without reason; but the smallness of the numbers sent out against them, the jealousy of those who were appointed to command the expedition, the defection of the red Caribs, who refused to supply such dangerous allies with any of the succours they had promised them to act against their rivals, the difficulty of procuring subsistence, the impossibility of coming up with enemies who kept themselves concealed in woods and mountains; all these circumstances conspired to disconcert this rash and violent enterprise. It was obliged to be given up after the loss of many valuable lives; but the triumph the savages obtained, did not prevent them from suing for peace as supplicants. They even invited the French to come and live

with them, swearing sincere friendship and inviolable concord. This proposal was agreed to, and the next year, 1719, many of the inhabitants of Martinico removed to St. Vincent.

The first who came thither settled peaceably, not only with the consent, but by the assistance of the red Caribs. This success induced others to follow their example; but these, whether from jealousy, or some other motive, taught the savages a fatal secret; that people, who knew of no property but the fruits of the earth, because they are the reward of labour, learnt with astonishment that they could sell the earth itself, which they had always looked upon as belonging to mankind in general. This knowledge induced them to measure and fix boundaries, and from that instant peace and happiness were banished from their island: the partition of lands occasioned divisions amongst them. The following were the causes of the revolution produced by the system of usurpation.

When the French came to St. Vincent, they brought slaves along with them to clear and till the ground. The black Caribs, shocked at the thought of resembling men who were degraded by slavery, and fearing that some time or other their colour, which betrayed their origin, might be made a pretence for enslaving them, took refuge in the thickest part of the forest. In this situation, in order to imprint an indelible mark of distinction upon their tribe, that might be a perpetual token of their independence, they flattened the foreheads of all their children as soon as they were born. The men and women whose heads could not bend to this strange shape, dared no longer appear in public without this visible sign of freedom. The next generation appeared as a new race; the flat-headed Caribs, who were nearly of the same age, tall proper men, hardy and fierce, came and erected huts by the sea side.

They no sooner knew the price which the Europeans set upon the lands they inhabited, than they claimed a share with the other islanders. This rising spirit of covetousness was at first appeased by some presents of brandy and a few sabres; but not content with these, they soon demanded fire arms, as the red Caribs had; and at last they were desirous of having their share in all future sales of land, and likewise in the produce of past sales. Provoked at being denied a part in this brotherly repartition, they formed into a separate tribe, swore never more to associate with the red Caribs, chose a chief of their own, and declared war.

The number of the combatants might be equal, but their strength was not so. The black Caribs had every advantage over the red, that industry, valour, and boldness, must soon acquire over a weak habit and a timorous disposition. But the spirit of equity, which is seldom deficient in savages, made the conqueror consent to share with the vanquished all the territory lying to the leeward. It was the only one which both parties were desirous of possessing, because there they were sure of receiving presents from the French.

The black Caribs gained nothing by the agreement which they themselves had drawn up. The new planters who came to the island, always landed and settled near the red Caribs, where the coast was most accessible. This preference roused that enmity which was but ill extinguished; the war broke out again; the red Caribs, who were always beaten, retired to windward of the island; many took to their canoes and went over to the continent, or to Tobago, and the few that remained lived separate from the blacks.

The black Caribs, conquerors and masters of all the leeward coast, required of the Europeans that they should again buy the lands they had already purchased. A Frenchman attempted to shew the deed of his purchase of some land which he had bought of a red Carib; "I know not," says a black Carib, "what thy paper says, but read what is written on my arrow; there you may see, in characters which do not lie, that if you do not give me what I demand, I will go and burn your house to night." In this manner did a people who had not learnt to read, argue with those who derived such consequence from knowing how to write. They made use of the right of force, with as much assurance and as little remorse as if they had been acquainted with divine, political and civil right.

Time, which brings on a change of measures with a change of interests, put an end to these disturbances. The French became in their turn the strongest; they no longer spent their time in breeding poultry, and cultivating vegetables, cassava, maize, and tobacco, in order to sell them at Martinico. In less than twenty years more important cultures employed eight hundred white men and three thousand blacks. Such was the situation of St. Vincent when it fell into the hands of the English, and was secured to them by the treaty of 1763.

It was in the western part of the island that the French had begun the culture of cocoa and of cotton, and had made considerable advances in that of coffee. The conquerors formed there some sugar

plantations; the impossibility of multiplying them upon an uneven soil, which is full of ravines, made them desirous of occupying the plains towards the east. The savages who had taken refuge there, refused to quit them, and recourse was had to arms to compel them to it. The resistance which they opposed to the thunders of European tyranny, was not, and could not possibly be maintained without great difficulty.

An officer was measuring out the ground which had just been taken possession of, when the detachment that accompanied him was unexpectedly attacked, and almost totally destroyed on the 25th of March, 1775. It was generally believed that the unfortunate persons who had just been deprived of their possessions, were the authors of this violence, and the troops put themselves in motion, and it was determined totally to eradicate and destroy them.

Fortunately it was determined in time that the Caribs were innocent, that they had taken or massacred several fugitive slaves, who had been guilty of such cruelties, and that they had sworn not to stop till they had purged the island of those vagabonds, whose enormities were often imputed to them. In order to confirm the savages in this resolution, by allurements of rewards, the legislative body passed a bill to insure a gratuity of five moides, or one hundred and twenty livres, to any one who should bring the head of a negro, who should have deserted within three months.

On the 19th of June, 1779, St. Vincent's shared the fate of many other British possessions in the West-Indies, being taken by a small body of French troops from Martinico, commanded by a lieutenant in the navy. The black Caribbees, however, joined the foe, and the island surrendered without a struggle. The terms of capitulation were easy, and it was again restored in 1783 to Great-Britain; at that time it contained sixty-one sugar estates, five hundred acres in coffee, two hundred in cacao, four hundred in cotton, fifty in indigo, and five hundred in tobacco, besides the land appropriated to the raising plantains, yams, maize, &c. All the rest, except the small spots cultivated by the native Caribbees, retained its native woods, as it does at this time.

The British territory in this island is divided into five parishes, of which only one was ever furnished with a church, which was blown down in 1780. Kingston is the capital of the island, and the seat of government. There are besides three other inconsiderable villages, called towns, but which consist each only of a few houses. The government

vernment of St. Vincent is the same as that of Grenada ; the council consists of twelve, and the assembly of seventeen. The governor has two thousand pounds sterling per ann. half of which is paid by the exchequer of Great-Britain, and the other half raised within the island.

The military force is a regiment of infantry, and a company of artillery, sent from England, and a black corps raised in the country, but placed on the British establishment, and provided for accordingly : there are besides two regiments of militia, which serve without pay of any kind.

The number of inhabitants, according to the last return made to government, was one thousand four hundred and fifty whites, and eleven thousand eight hundred and fifty-three blacks, slaves.*

We shall close this account as of the other islands, with a table of exports, &c. but it must be remarked, that in this table is comprehended the produce of several small islands dependent on the St. Vincent government. These islands are Bequia, Union, Canouane, Mustique, Petit Martinique, Petit St. Vincent, Maillerau, and Ballescau ; the whole containing near ten thousand acres, but the four last only produce a little cotton.

* Of these negroes there are on the dependent islands about sixteen hundred.

An ACCOUNT of the Number of Vessels, their Tonnage and Men, (including their repeated Voyages) that cleared Outwards from the Island of SAINT VINCENT, &c. to all Parts of the World, between the 5th of January, 1787, and the 5th of January, 1788; with the Species, Quantities and Value of their Cargoes, according to the actual Prices in London. By the Inspector-General of Great-Britain.

Whither bound	Shipping.		Cut Sugar.	Rum.	Melassies.	Coffee.	Cotton.	Cacao.	Miscellaneous Articles, as Hydes, dying Woods, &c.	Total, according to the current Prices in London.						
	No.	Tons.									Men.	Cwt. qrs. lb.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Cwt. qrs. lb.	lb.
To Great-Britain	30	6086	463	64449	1 27	15,766	9656	632	1 5	760,380	99	2 24	2570	7 6	175,571	9 6
American States	21	2587	174	579	0 0	51,300	—	2	0 0	1500	43	2 0	16	0 0	9019	1 8
Foreign West-Indies	71	3963	332	—	—	21,200	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	3 6	1860	3 6
	122	12,636	969	65,128	1 27	88,266	9656	634	1 5	761,880	143	0 24	2591	11 0	186,450	14 8

N E V I S.

NEVIS lies about seven leagues north of Montserrat, and is separated from St. Christopher's by a narrow channel: it makes a beautiful appearance from the sea, being a large conical mountain covered with fine trees, of an easy ascent on every side, and entirely cultivated. The circumference is about twenty-one miles, with a considerable tract of level ground all around. The climate in the lower part is reckoned to be warmer than Barbadoes, but it is more temperate towards the summit. The soil is very fine in the lower part, but grows coarser as we ascend. The productions are nearly the same with those of St. Christopher's, and the average quantity of sugar is four thousand hogsheads of sixteen hundred weight each. The island is divided into five parishes, and it has three pretty good roads or bays, with small towns in their vicinity; Charleston, the seat of government, Moreton bay, and Newcastle. This pleasant island was settled under the auspices of Sir Thomas Warner from St. Christopher's, in the year 1628. His successor, Governor Lake, was considered as the Solon of this little country, in which he disposed of every thing with such prudence, wisdom and justice, as procured him an high reputation with the French as well as English. In the Dutch war they met with some disturbance from the French, but by being covered by an English Squadron, the enemy were obliged to desist from their intended invasion, after a smart engagement in fight of the island. Sir William Stapleton sometimes resided here, and Sir Nathaniel Johnson constantly, at which time the inhabitants of Nevis were computed at thirty thousand. In the war immediately after the revolution they exerted themselves gallantly, and had two regiments of three hundred men each. In that of Queen Anne they behaved equally well, though they were less fortunate; for the French landing with a superior force, and having inveigled most of their slaves, they were forced to capitulate. About four thousand of these slaves the French carried away and sold to the Spaniards, to work in their mines. The parliament, after making

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due inquiry into the losses they had sustained, voted them about a third part of the sum in which they had suffered. These losses by war, an epidemic disease, and repeated hurricanes, exceedingly diminished the number of the people. They now, according to Mr. Edwards, do not exceed sixteen hundred whites and ten thousand blacks. All the white men, not exempt by age and other infirmities, are formed into a militia for its defence, from which there is a troop of fifty horse well mounted; but they have no troops on the British establishment. The principal fortification is at Charleston, and is called Charles fort, the governor of which is appointed by the crown, and paid by the inhabitants. There is here a lieutenant-governor, with a council of members, and an assembly composed of three members from each of the five parishes into which the island is divided. The administering of justice is under a chief justice and two assistant judges. The commodities are chiefly cotton and sugar; and about twenty sail of ships are annually employed in this trade.

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MONTSERRAT.

MONTSERRAT is a very small but very pleasant island, so called by Columbus from its resemblance to the famous mountain near Barcelona in Catalonia. It lies in west longitude $61^{\circ} 0'$, north latitude $16^{\circ} 15'$, having Antigua to the north-east, St. Christopher's and Nevis to the north-west, and Guadaloupe lying south south-east at the distance of about nine leagues. In its figure it is nearly round, about nine miles in extent every way, twenty-seven in circumference, and is supposed to contain about forty or fifty thousand acres. The climate is warm, but less so than in Antigua, and is esteemed very healthy. The soil is mountainous, but with pleasant valleys, rich and fertile, between them; the hills are covered with cedars and other fine trees. Here are all the animals as well as vegetables and fruits, that are to be found in the other islands, and not at all inferior to them in quality. The inhabitants raised formerly a considerable quantity of indigo, which was none of the best, but which they cut four times a year. The present product is cotton, rum and sugar. There is no good harbour, but three tolerable roads, at Plymouth, Old harbour, and Ker's bay, where they ship the produce of the island. Public affairs are administered here as in the other isles, by a lieutenant-governor, a council of six, and an assembly, composed of no more than eight members, two from each of the four districts into which it is divided. Its civil history contains nothing particular except its invasion by the French in 1712, and its capture by them again in the late war, at the conclusion of which it was restored to Great-Britain. The wonderful effects of industry and experience, in meliorating the gifts of Nature, have been no where more conspicuous than in these islands, and particularly in this, by gradually improving their produce, more especially of late years, since the art of planting has been reduced to a regular system, and almost all the defects of soil so thoroughly removed by proper management and manure, that, except from the failure of seasons, or the want of hands, there is seldom any fear of a crop.

As far back as 1770, there were exported from this island to Great-Britain one hundred and sixty-seven bags of cotton, seven hundred and forty hogsheads of rum; to Ireland one hundred and thirty-three ditto, four thousand three hundred and thirty-eight hogsheads, two hundred and thirty-two tierces, two hundred and two barrels of sugar; the whole valued at eighty-nine thousand nine hundred and seven pounds: and exports to North-America valued at twelve thousand six hundred and thirty-three pounds. There are a few ships employed in trading to this island from London and from Bristol, and the average of its trade will be seen in the tables annexed. As to the number of inhabitants, according to the most probable accounts, they consist of between twelve and fourteen hundred whites, and about ten thousand negroes, though some say not so many.

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BARBUDA AND ANGUILLA.

BARBUDA, which belongs entirely to the Codrington family, and the circumference of which is six or seven leagues, hath dangerous coasts. It is, perhaps, the most even of all the American islands. The trees which cover it are weak, and not very high, because there are never more than six or seven inches of earth upon a layer of lime-stone. Nature hath placed great plenty of turtles here; and caprice hath occasioned the sending thither of deer and several kinds of game; chance hath filled the woods with pintados and other fowls, escaped from the vessels after some shipwreck. Upon this soil are fed oxen, horses and mules; for the labours of the neighbouring settlements. No other culture is known there, except that of the kind of corn which is necessary for the feeding of the numerous herds in those seasons when the pasture fails. Its population is reduced to three hundred and fifty slaves, and to the small number of free men who are appointed to overlook them. This private property pays no tribute to the nation, though it be subject to the tribunals of Antigua. The air here is very pure and very wholesome. Formerly, the sickly people of the other English islands went to breathe it, in order to stop the progress of their diseases, or to recover their strength. This custom hath ceased, since some of them indulged themselves in parties of destructive chase.

Must men then be suffered to perish, in order that animals should be preserved? How is it possible, that so atrocious a custom, which draws down the imprecation of almost all Europe upon the sovereigns and upon the lords of its countries, should be suffered, and should even be established beyond the seas? We have asked this question, and we have been answered, that the island belonged to the Codringtons, and that they had a right to dispose of their property at their pleasure. We now ask, whether this right of property, which is undoubtedly sacred, hath not its limits? Whether this right, in a variety of circumstances, be not sacrificed to public good? Whether the man who is in possession of a fountain can refuse

water to him who is dying with thirst? Whether any of the Codrington family would partake of one of those precious pintados, that had cost his countryman or his fellow-creature his life? Whether the man who should be convicted of having suffered a sick person to die at his door, would be sufficiently punished by the general execration? And whether he would not deserve to be dragged before the tribunals of justice as an assassin?

Anguilla is seven or eight leagues in length, and is very unequal in its breadth, which never exceeds two leagues. Neither mountains; nor woods, nor rivers, are found upon it, and its soil is nothing more than chalk.

Some wandering Englishmen settled upon this porous and friable rock towards the year 1650. After an obstinate labour, they at length succeeded in obtaining from this kind of turf a little cotton, a small quantity of millet seed, and some potatoes. Six veins of vegetating earth, which were in process of time discovered, received sugar-canes, which, in the best harvest, yield no more than fifty thousand weight of sugar, and sometimes only five or six thousand. Whatever else comes out of the colony hath been introduced into it clandestinely from Santa Cruz, where the inhabitants of Anguilla have formed several plantations.

In seasons of drought, which are but too frequent, the island hath no other resource but in a lake, the salt of which is sold to the people of New-England; and in the sale of sheep and goats, which thrive better in this dry climate, and upon these arid plains, than in the rest of America.

Anguilla reckons no more than two hundred free inhabitants, and five hundred slaves: nevertheless it hath an assembly of its own, and even a chief, who is always chosen by the inhabitants, and confirmed by the governor of Antigua. A foreigner, who should be sent to govern this feeble settlement, would infallibly be driven away, by men who have preserved something of the independent manners, and of the rather savage character of their ancestors.

The coast of this island affords but two harbours, and even in these very small vessels only can anchor: they are both defended by four pieces of cannon, which, for half a century past, have been entirely unfit for service.

BERMUDAS, OR SOMMER'S ISLANDS.

THIS cluster of islands lies almost in the form of a shepherd's crook, in west longitude 65° , north latitude $32^{\circ} 30'$, between two and three hundred leagues distant from the nearest place of the continent of America, or of any of the other West-India islands. The whole number of the Bermudas islands is said to be about four hundred, but very few of them are habitable. The principal is St. George's, which is not above sixteen miles long, and three at most in breadth. It is universally agreed, that the nature of this and the other Bermudas islands has undergone a surprizing alteration for the worse, since they were first discovered; the air being much more inclement, and the soil much more barren than formerly: this is ascribed to the cutting down those fine spreading cedar trees for which the islands were famous, and which sheltered them from the blasts of the north wind, at the same time that it protected the undergrowth of the delicate plants and herbs. In short, the Summer islands are now far from being desirable spots; and their natural productions are but just sufficient for the support of the inhabitants, who chiefly, for that reason perhaps, are temperate and lively even to a proverb. At first tobacco was raised upon these islands, but being of a worse quality than that growing on the continent, the trade is now almost at an end. Large quantities of ambergris were also originally found upon the coasts, and afforded a valuable commerce; but that trade is also reduced, as likewise their whale trade, though the perquisites upon the latter form part of the governor's revenue, he having ten pounds for every whale that is caught. The Bermudas islands, however, might still produce some valuable commodities, were they properly cultivated. There is here found, about three or four feet below the surface, a white chalk stone which is easily chiselled, and is exported for building gentlemen's houses in the West-Indies. Their palmetto leaves, if properly manufac-

tured, might turn to excellent account in making women's hats; and their oranges are still valuable. Their soil is also said to be excellent for the cultivation of vines, and it has been thought that silk and cochineal might be produced; but none of these things have yet been attempted. The chief resource of the inhabitants for subsistence is in the remains of their cedar-wood, of which they fabricate small sloops, with the assistance of the New-England pine, and sell many of them to the American colonies, where they are much admired. Their turtle-catching trade is also of service; and they are still able to rear great variety of tame-fowl, and have wild ones abounding in vast plenty. All the attempts to establish a regular whale fishery on these islands have hitherto proved unsuccessful; they have no cattle, and even the black hog breed, which was probably left by the Spaniards, is greatly decreased. The water on the islands, except that which falls from the clouds, is brackish; and at present the same diseases reign there as in the Caribbee islands. They have seldom any snow, or even much rain; but when it does fall, it is generally with great violence, and the north or north-east wind renders the air very cold. The storms generally come with the new moon; and if there is a halo or circle about it, it is a sure sign of a tempest, which is generally attended with dreadful thunder and lightning. The inhabited parts of the Bermudas islands are divided into nine districts, called tribes. 1. St. George. 2. Hamilton. 3. Ireland. 4. Devonshire. 5. Pembroke. 6. Pagets. 7. Warwick. 8. Southampton. 9. Sandys. There are but two places on the large island where a ship can safely come near the shore, and these are so well covered with high rocks, that few will chuse to enter in without a pilot; and they are so well defended by forts, that they have no occasion to dread an enemy. St. George's town is at the bottom of the principal haven, and is defended by nine forts, on which are mounted seventy pieces of cannon that command the entrance. The town has a handsome church, a fine library, and a noble town-house, where the governor, council, &c. assemble. The tribes of Southampton and Devonshire have each a parish church and library, and the former has a harbour of the same name; there are also scattered houses and hamlets over many of the islands, where particular plantations require them. The inhabitants are clothed chiefly with British manufactures, and all their implements for tilling the ground and building are made in Britain.

It is uncertain who were the first discoverers of the Bermudas islands. John Bermudas, a Spaniard, is commonly said to have discovered them in 1527; but this is disputed, and the discovery attributed to Henry May, an Englishman. As the islands were without the reach of the Indian navigation, the Bermudas were absolutely uninhabited when first discovered by the Europeans. May above-mentioned was shipwrecked upon St. George's, and with the cedar which they felled there, assisted by the wreck of their own ship, he and his companions built another which carried them to Europe, where they published their accounts of the islands. When Lord Delawar was governor of Virginia, Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Summers, and Captain Newport, were appointed to be his deputy-governors; but their ship being separated by a storm from the rest of the squadron, was in the year 1609 wrecked on the Bermudas, and the governors disagreeing among themselves, built each of them a new ship of the cedar they found there, in which they severally sailed to Virginia. On their arrival there, the colony was in such distress, that Lord Delawar, upon the report which his deputy-governors made him of the plenty they found at the Bermudas, dispatched Sir George Summers to bring provisions from thence to Virginia, in the same ship which brought him from Bermudas, and which had not an ounce of iron about it except one bolt in the keel. Sir George, after a tedious voyage, at last reached the place of his destination, where, soon after his arrival, he died, leaving his name to the islands, and his orders to the crew to return with black hogs to the colony of Virginia. This part of his will, however, the sailors did not chuse to execute, but setting sail in their cedar ship for England, landed safely at Whitchurch in Dorsetshire.

Notwithstanding this dereliction of the island, however, it was not without English inhabitants. Two sailors, Carter and Waters, being apprehensive of punishment for their crimes, had secreted themselves from their fellows when Sir George was wrecked upon the island, and had ever since lived upon the natural productions of the soil. Upon the second arrival of Sir George, they enticed one Chard to remain with them; but differing about the sovereignty of the island, Chard and Waters were on the point of cutting one another's throats, when they were prevented by the prudence of Carter. Soon after, they had the good fortune to find a great piece of ambergris weighing about eighty pounds, besides other pieces, which in those days were sufficient, if properly disposed of, to have made each of them

them master of a large estate. Where they were, this ambergris was useless, and therefore they came to the desperate resolution of carrying themselves and it in an open boat to Virginia or to Newfoundland, where they hoped to dispose of their treasure to advantage. In the mean time, however, the Virginia company claimed the property of the Bermudas islands, and accordingly sold it to one hundred and twenty persons of their own society, who obtained a charter from King James for possessing it. This new Bermudas company, as it was called, fitted out a ship with sixty planters on board to settle on the Bermudas, under the command of one Mr. Richard Moor, by profession a carpenter. The new colony arrived upon the island just at the time the three sailors were about to depart with their ambergris; which Moor having discovered, he immediately seized and disposed of it for the benefit of the company. So valuable a booty gave vast spirit to the new company; and the adventurers settled themselves upon St. George's island, where they raised cabins. As to Mr. Moor, he was indefatigable in his duty, and carried on the fortifying and planting the island with incredible diligence; for we are told, that he not only built eight or nine forts, or rather blockhouses, but inured the settlers to martial discipline. Before the first year of his government was expired, Mr. Moor received a supply of provisions and planters from England, and he planned out the town of St. George as it now stands. The fame of this settlement soon awakened the jealousy of the Spaniards, who appeared off St. George's with some vessels; but being fired upon by the forts, they sheered off, though the English at that time were so ill provided for a defence, that they had scarce a single barrel of gunpowder on the island. During Moor's government, the Bermudas were plagued with rats, which had been imported into them by the English ships. This vermin multiplied so fast in St. George's island, that they even covered the ground, and had nests in the trees. They destroyed all the fruits and corn within doors; nay, they increased to such a degree, that St. George's island was at last unable to maintain them, and they swam over to the neighbouring islands, where they made as great havoc. This calamity lasted five years, though probably not in the same degree, and at last it ceased all of a sudden.

On the expiration of Moor's government, he was succeeded by Captain Daniel Tucker, who improved all his predecessor's schemes for the benefit of the island, and particularly encouraged the culture

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of tobacco. Being a severe disciplinarian, he held all under him so rigidly to duty, that five of his subjects planned as bold an enterprise for liberty as was perhaps ever put in execution. Their names were Barker, who is said to have been a gentleman; another Barker, a joiner; Goodwin, a ship-carpenter; Paet, a sailor; and Saunders, who planned the enterprise. Their management was as artful as their design was bold. Understanding that the governor was deterred from taking the pleasure of fishing in an open boat, on account of the dangers attending it, they proposed to build him one of a particular construction, which accordingly they did in a secret part of the island; but when the governor came to view his boat, he understood that the builders had put to sea in it. The intelligence was true; for the adventurers having provided themselves with the few necessaries they wanted, sailed for England; and notwithstanding the storms they encountered, their being plundered by a French privateer, and the incredible miseries they underwent, they landed in forty-two days time at Corke in Ireland, where they were generously relieved and entertained by the Earl of Thomond.

In 1619, Captain Tucker resigned his government to Captain Butler. By this time the high character which the Summer islands bore in England, rendered it fashionable for men of the highest rank to encourage their settlement; and several of the first nobility of England had purchased plantations among them. Captain Butler brought over with him five hundred passengers, who became planters on the islands, and raised a monument to the memory of Sir George Summers. The island was now so populous, for it contained about a thousand whites, that Captain Butler applied himself to give it a new constitution of government, by introducing an assembly, the government till this time being administered only in the name of the governor and council. A body of laws was likewise drawn up, as agreeable to the laws of England as the situation of the island would admit of. One Mr. Barnard succeeded Captain Butler as governor, but died in six weeks after his arrival on the island; upon which the council made choice of Mr. Harrison to be governor till a new one should be appointed. No fewer than three thousand English were now settled in the Bermudas, and several persons of distinction had curiosity enough to visit it from England. Among these was Mr. Waller the poet, a man of fortune, who being embroiled with the parliament and commonwealth of England, spent some months in the Summer islands, which he has celebrated in one of his poems as the

most delightful place in the world. The dangers attending the navigation, and the untowardly situation of these islands, through their distance from the American continent, seem to be the reason why the Bermudas did not now become the best peopled islands belonging to England; as we are told that at one period they were inhabited by no fewer than ten thousand whites. The inhabitants, however, never showed any great spirit for commerce, and thus they never could become rich. This, together with the gradual alteration of the soil and climate, already taken notice of, soon caused them to dwindle in their population; and it is computed that they do not now contain above half the number of inhabitants they once did, and even these seem much more inclined to remove to some other place than to stay where they are; so that unless some beneficial branch of commerce be found out, or some useful manufacture established, the state of the Bermudas must daily grow worse and worse.

The following account we have extracted from Mr. Morse, as he professes to have given it on the authority of a gentleman who resided many years on the spot:

“The parish of St. George’s is an island to the eastward of the main land, on which stands the town of St. George’s, containing about five hundred houses. Contiguous to this is the island of St. David’s, which supplies the town with butter, milk, vegetables, poultry, and fresh meat. In the bosom of the crook lie a vast number of small islands, uninhabited. The island is rocky, and the ground hilly. In the main road a sulky may pass; and even there, in many places, with difficulty; but turn to the right or left, and it is passable only on horseback. The air is healthy; a continual spring prevails: cedars, mantled in green, always adorn the hills: the pasture ground is ever verdant; the gardens ever in bloom. Most of the productions of the West-Indies might be here cultivated. The houses are built of a soft stone, which is sawn like timber; when exposed to the weather, and washed with lime, it becomes hard. The houses are white as snow, which, beheld from an eminence, contrasted with the greenness of the cedars and pasture ground, and the multitude of islands, full in view, realize what the poets have feigned concerning the Elyfian fields. The inhabitants are numerous; the whole island is a continued village; no less, perhaps, than fifteen or twenty thousand are collected on this small spot, of whom the blacks constitute two thirds. Happy for the country, were the colour unknown among them! The Bermudians are chiefly seafaring people; few of
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the men are ever at home ; three or four hundred go annually to Turk's island to rake salt, which is carried to America for provisions, or sold to such as may call at Turk's island, for cash. However industrious the men are abroad, at home they are indolent ; much given, particularly of late, to gambling and luxury. The women are generally handsome and comely ; they love their husbands, their children, and their dress. Dancing is their favourite amusement. The men must be equipped in taste when they appear in company, should they not have a dollar in the pound to pay their creditors ; the women must array themselves like the belles of Paris, should they not have a morsel of bread to preserve their blooming complexion. They are thoroughly acquainted with one another's families, and from their tea table, as from their atmosphere, arises constant gusts of scandal and detraction. To strangers they are kind, but among themselves are quarrelsome : their friendly intercourse is too much confined within a narrow circle, bounded by cousins or second cousins.

“ The common food of the Bermudians is coffee, fish of different kinds, a sweet potatoe, Indian corn, and American flour. Their water is rain preserved in cisterns ; the general drink is grog. Fishing is the favourite amusement of the men. The government is conducted under a governor named by the crown of England, a council, and general assembly. The established religion is Episcopacy. There are nine churches ; three clergymen have the charge of these nine : there is one Presbyterian church. A regard for religion is not the characteristic of the Bermudians ; they seldom go to church, except it be to attend a funeral, or to get their children baptized, or to hear a stranger.”

We shall close this account of the Bermudas with the following extract from the report of the privy council on the slave trade :

“ Nothing can better shew the state of slavery in Bermudas than the behaviour of the blacks in the late war. There were at one time between fifteen and twenty privateers fitted out from hence, which were partly manned by negro slaves, who behaved both as sailors and marines irreproachably ; and whenever they were captured, always returned, if it was in their power. There were several instances wherein they had been condemned with the vessel and fold, and afterwards found means to escape ; and through many difficulties and hardships returned to their masters service. In the ship *Regulator*,

a privateer, there were seventy slaves. She was taken and carried into Boston; sixty of them returned in a flag of truce directly to Bermudas; nine others returned by the way of New-York; one only was missing, who died in the cruize, or in captivity."

LUCAY'S, OR BAHAMA ISLANDS.

The Bahamas are situated between 22° and 27° degrees north latitude, and 73° and $81'$ degrees west longitude. They extend along the coast of Florida quite down to Cuba, and are said to be five hundred in number, some of them only rocks, but twelve of them are large and fertile; all are, however, uninhabited, except Providence, which is two hundred miles east of the Floridas; though some others are larger and more fertile, and on which the English have plantations.

These islands were the first fruits of Columbus's discoveries; but they were not known to the English till 1667. The isle of Providence became an 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 the inhabitants, as well as others, gain by the prizes condemned there, and at all times by the wrecks which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and shelves. The Spaniards and Americans captured these islands during the last war, but they were retaken on the 7th of April, 1783.

BESIDES the above enumerated, Great-Britain possesses part of a cluster of islands called the Virgin Islands, of which there is but little authentic intelligence extant. Mr. Edwards observes respecting them, that if his inquiries were not neglected, his expectations were not answered. They were discovered and named by Columbus, but

the Spaniards of those days deemed them unworthy of their attention. They are about forty in number, whereof the English hold Tortola, Virgin Gorda, or Peniston, Jofvan Dykes, Guanaife, Beef and Thatch islands, Anegada, Nechar, Prickly Pear, Camana's, Ginger, Cooper's, Salt, and Peter's island, with some other of no value. Tortola is the principal, it was originally peopled by Dutch buccaneers, who were afterwards driven from thence by a party of Englishmen of the same description. The chief merit of its improvement rests with a party of English settlers from Anguilla, who about the year 1690, embarked from thence and took up their residence in these islands; here they formed themselves into a society, their wants were few and their government simple and unexpensive; a council chosen from among themselves, with a president, exercised both a legislative and judicial authority, determining all questions and appeals, without expense to either party. Taxes there were none, when money was wanting it was raised by voluntary contribution. Lured by the prospects of European intercourse, they, however, purchased in 1773, the *privilege* of being the *SUBJECTS of the king of Great-Britain*, at the price of four and a half per cent. on all their produce, and four hundred pounds currency per annum toward the salary of the governor-general of the Leeward islands. Thus does man, unacquainted with his native rights and privileges, under the power of prejudice, purchase of his fellow creature the right to enjoy what God and Nature had made his own. Posterity, however, better acquainted with the rights of man, will perhaps not only dispute the validity of acts of this kind, but cancel contracts which their forefathers had no right to make.

The number of inhabitants on these islands at the period above referred to, was about fifteen hundred whites, and seven thousand blacks. It is supposed the white inhabitants do not exceed one thousand, while the blacks are at least ten thousand. In 1787, there was exported from these islands, in forty ships of six thousand five hundred and sixteen tons, seventy-nine thousand two hundred and three, hundred weight of sugar; twenty-one thousand four hundred and seventeen gallons of rum; two thousand and eleven gallons of molasses; two hundred and eighty-nine thousand and seventy-four pounds of cotton; dying goods to the value of six thousand six hundred and fifty-one pounds two shillings and six-pence, and other miscellaneous articles to the value of two thousand three hundred and forty

forty pounds eighteen shillings and five-pence. But these, like most of the other islands, are on the decline.

With the following tables, which we conceive will afford a comprehensive view of the West-India trade, we shall close our account of the British islands.

BRITISH

ACCOUNT of the Number of Vessels, &c. that have cleared outwards from the Islands of St. CHRISTOPHER'S and
ANTIGUA, between the 5th of January, 1787, and the 5th of January, 1788; together with an Account of
and the Value thereof

ACCOUNT of the Number of Vessels, &c. that have cleared outwards from the Islands of St. CHRISTOPHER'S and ANTIGUA, between the 5th of January, 1787, and the 5th of January, 1788; together with an Account of their Cargoes, and the Value thereof.

SAINT CHRISTOPHER'S.

Whither bound.	Shipping.			Sugar.	Rum.	Molaf- ices.	Indigo.	Cotton.	Dying Woods, in Value.	Miscellaneous Articles, in- Value.			Total.												
	No.	Tons.	Men.							Cwt.	qrs.	lb.		Gallons.	lb.	lb.	£.	s.	d.						
																				£.	s.	d.			
To Great-Britain	53	11,992	764	231,397	2	12	78,299	8154	318	484,640	5824	1	6	33,195	16	10	480,178	15	5						
Ireland	3	350	30	3,099	0	0	8,500	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	20	11	0	6,935	6	0			
American States	21	2,457	140	386	0	0	167,740	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	186	10	0	15,512	15	0			
British Colonies in America	19	1,201	110	646	0	0	65,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	19	0	0	6,788	10	0			
Foreign West-Indies	104	7,155	546	—	—	—	15,070	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	105	0	0	15	1	6	1,498	14	0
Total from St. Christopher's	200	23,155	1,590	235,528	2	12	334,609	8154	318	484,640	5989	1	6	33,436	19	4	510,014	0	5						

ANTIGUA.

To Great-Britain	65	13,806	901	254,575	1	18	128,936	3510	26	131,010	1742	6	6	46,466	18	3	484,483	19	6			
Ireland	16	1,909	159	22,293	0	0	97,400	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	43	0	0	50,768	16	8
American States	71	8,281	552	6,779	0	0	375,150	1700	—	29,500	2400	0	—	—	—	—	407	5	0	44,679	19	2
British Colonies in America	34	2,127	177	844	0	0	109,350	700	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	14	7	0	11,031	15	4
Foreign West-Indies	47	2,540	259	33	0	0	5710	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,075	0	0	1,632	5	0
Total from Antigua	233	28,663	2,048	284,526	1	18	6,546	5910	26	10,510	4142	6	6	48,006	10	3	592,596	15	8			

An ACCOUNT of the Number of Vessels, &c. that have cleared outwards from the Islands of MONTERRAT, NEVIS, and the VIRGIN ISLANDS, between the 5th of January, 1787, and the 5th of January, 1788; together with an Account of their Cargoes, and the Value thereof.

MONTERRAT AND NEVIS.

Whither bound.	Shipping.		Sugar.	Rum.	Molafes.	Indigo.	Cotton.	Dying Woods, in Value.	Miscellaneous Articles, in Value.	Total.						
	No.	Tons								Men.	£.	s.	d.			
To Great-Britain	23	5371	341	108,325	0	21	4,406	1313	140	91,972	1162	3	2	185,709	10	11
American States	20	1850	138	1,895	0	0	122,710	—	—	—	70	10	0	13,981	12	6
British Colonies in America	7	379	40	64	0	0	21,300	—	—	500	41	6	3	2,053	14	3
Foreign West-Indies	71	3085	377	—	—	—	140,660	—	—	—	89	4	0	12,296	19	0
Africa	1	102	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total from Monterrat and Nevis	122	10,787	904	110,284	0	21	289,076	1313	140	92,472	352	7	6	1363	3	5

VIRGIN ISLANDS.

To Great-Britain	25	5137	344	78,749	1	6	517	2011	—	287,577	6561	2	6	2313	18	5	164,128	17	6
American States	3	572	21	91	0	0	13,900	—	—	14,500	—	—	—	6	4	0	1,499	9	0
British Colonies in America	4	226	20	303	0	0	7,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	5	0	1,230	15	0
Foreign West-Indies	8	581	51	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	90	0	0	10	11	0	100	11	0
Total from the Virgin Islands	40	6,516	436	79,203	1	6	21,417	2011	—	289,077	6651	2	6	2340	18	5	166,959	12	6

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SPANISH WEST-INDIES

C U B A.

CUBA is a large and very valuable island, and by far the most important of all the Spanish West-Indies. On the east side it begins at $20^{\circ} 21'$ north latitude, touches the tropic of Cancer on the north, and extends from 74° to $85^{\circ} 15'$ west longitude. It lies sixty miles to the west of Hispaniola, twenty-five leagues north of Jamaica, one hundred miles to the east of Yucatan, and as many to the south of cape Florida, and commands the entrance of the gulphs both of Mexico and Florida, as also the windward passages. By this situation it may be called the key of the West-Indies. It was discovered by Columbus in 1492, who gave it the name of Ferdinando, in honour of king Ferdinand of Spain, but it quickly after recovered its ancient name of Cuba. The natives did not regard Columbus with a very favourable eye at his landing, and the weather proving very tempestuous, he soon left this island, and sailed to Hayta, now called Hispaniola, where he was better received. The Spaniards, however, soon became masters of it. By the year 1511, it was totally conquered, and in that time they had destroyed, according to their own accounts, several millions of people. But the possession of Cuba was far from answering the expectations of the Spanish adventurers, whose avarice could be satiated with nothing but gold. These monsters finding that there was gold upon the island, concluded that it must come from mines, and therefore tortured the few inhabitants they had left, in order to extort from them a discovery of the places where these mines lay. The miseries endured by these poor creatures

American States	3	572	21	91 0 0	137,000	—	—	—	10 5 0	1,230 15 0
British Colonies in America	4	226	20	363 0 0	7,000	—	—	10 11 0	100 11 0	—
Foreign West-Indies	8	581	51	—	—	—	90 0 0	—	—	—
Total from the Virgin Islands	40	6,576	436	79,203 1 6	21,417	2011	6651 2 6	2340 18 5	—	166,959 12 6
							289,077			

tures were such, that they almost unanimously resolved to put an end to their own lives, but were prevented by one of the Spanish tyrants called Vasco Porcellos. This wretch threatened to hang himself along with them, that he might have the pleasure, as he said, of tormenting them in the next world worse than he had done in this; and so much were they afraid of the Spaniards, that this threat diverted these poor savages from their desperate resolution. In 1511, the town of Havannah was built, now the principal place on the island. The houses were at first built only of wood, and the town itself was for a long time so inconsiderable, that in 1536 it was taken by a French pirate, who obliged the inhabitants to pay seven hundred ducats to save it from being burnt. The very day after the pirate's departure, three Spanish ships arrived from Mexico, and having unloaded their cargoes, sailed in pursuit of the pirate ship. But such was the cowardice of the officers, that the pirate took all the three ships, and returning to the Havannah, obliged the inhabitants to pay seven hundred ducats more. To prevent misfortunes of this kind, the inhabitants built their houses of stone, and the place has since been strongly fortified.

According to Abbé Raynal, the Spanish settlement at Cuba is very important, on three accounts: 1. The produce of the country, which is considerable. 2. As being the staple of a great trade; and, 3. As being the key to the West-Indies. The principal produce of this island is cotton; the commodity, however, through neglect, is now become so scarce, that sometimes several years pass without any of it being brought into Europe. In the place of cotton, coffee has been cultivated, but by a similar negligence, that is produced in no great quantity, the whole produced not exceeding thirty or thirty-five thousand weight, one-third of which is exported to Vera Cruz, and the rest to Madrid. The cultivation of coffee naturally leads to that of sugar; and this, which is the most valuable production of America, would of itself be sufficient to give Cuba that state of prosperity for which it seems designed by nature. Although the surface of the island is in general uneven and mountainous, yet it has plains sufficiently extensive, and well enough watered, to supply the consumption of the greatest part of Europe with sugar. The incredible fertility of its new lands, if properly managed, would enable it to surpass every other nation, however they may have now got the start of it; yet such is the indolence of the Spaniards, that to this day they have but few plantations, where with the finest canes, they make but a
small

small quantity of coarse sugar at a great expense. This serves partly for the Mexican market, and partly for the mother country, while the indolent inhabitants are content to import sugar for themselves at the expense of near two hundred and twenty thousand pounds annually. It has been expected, with probability, that the tobacco imported from Cuba would compensate this loss, for after furnishing Mexico and Peru, there was sufficient, with the little brought from Caracca and Buenos Ayres, to supply all Spain. But this trade, too, has declined through the negligence of the court of Madrid, in not gratifying the general taste for tobacco from the Havannah. The Spanish colonies have an universal trade in skins, and Cuba supplies annually about ten or twelve thousand. The number might easily be increased in a country abounding with wild cattle, where some gentlemen possess large tracts of ground, that for want of population can scarce be applied to any other purpose than that of breeding cattle. The hundredth part of this island is not yet cleared; the true plantations are all confined to the beautiful plains of the Havannah, and even those are not what they might be; all these plantations together may employ about twenty-five thousand male and female slaves. The number of whites, mestees, mulattoes, and free negroes upon the whole island, amounts to about thirty thousand. The food of these different species consists of excellent pork, very bad beef, and cassava bread. The colony would be more flourishing if its productions had not been made the property of a company, whose exclusive privilege operates as a constant and invariable principle of discouragement. If any thing could supply the want of an open trade, and atone for the grievances occasioned by this monopoly at Cuba, it would be the advantage which this island has for such a long time enjoyed, in being the rendezvous of almost all the Spanish vessels that sail to the new world; this practice commenced almost with the colony itself. Ponce de Leon having made an attempt upon Florida in 1512, became acquainted with the new canal of Bahama; it was immediately discovered that this was the best route the ships bound from Mexico to Europe could possibly take, and to this the wealth of the island is principally, if not altogether, owing.

HISPANIOLA, OR ST. DOMINGO.

Hispaniola, called also St. Domingo, is the largest of the Caribbee islands, extending about four hundred and twenty miles from east to west, and one hundred and twenty in breadth from north to

south, lying between $17^{\circ} 37'$ and 20° of north latitude, and between $67^{\circ} 35'$ and $74^{\circ} 15'$ west longitude. The climate is hot, but not reckoned unwholesome, and some of the inhabitants are said to arrive at the age of one hundred and twenty. It is sometimes refreshed by breezes and rains, and its salubrity is likewise in a great measure owing to the beautiful variety of hills and valleys, woods and rivers, which every where present themselves. It is indeed reckoned by far the finest and most pleasant island of the Antilles, as being the best accommodated to all the purposes of life when duly cultivated.

This island, famous for being the earliest settlement of the Spaniards in the new world, was at first in high estimation for the quantity of gold it supplied; this wealth diminished with the inhabitants of the country, whom they obliged to dig it out of the bowels of the earth; and the source of it was entirely dried up, when they were exterminated, which was quickly done, by a series of the most shocking barbarities that ever disgraced the history of any nation. Benzoni relates, that of two millions of inhabitants contained in the island when discovered by Columbus in 1492, scarce one hundred and fifty-three were alive in 1545. A vehement desire of opening again this source of wealth, inspired the thought of getting slaves from Africa; but, besides that these were found unfit for the labours they were destined to, the multitude of mines which then began to be wrought on the continent, made those of Hispaniola no longer of any importance. An idea now suggested itself, that their negroes which were healthy, strong, and patient, might be usefully employed in husbandry; and they adopted, through necessity, a wise resolution, which, had they known their own interest, they would have embraced by choice.

The produce of their industry was at first extremely small, because the labourers were few. Charles V. who, like most sovereigns, preferred his favourites to every thing, had granted an exclusive right of the slave trade to a Flemish nobleman, who made over his privilege to the Genoese, who conducted this infamous commerce as all monopolies are conducted; they resolved to sell dear, and they sold but few. When time and competition had fixed the natural and necessary price of slaves, the number of them increased. It may easily be imagined that the Spaniards, who had been accustomed to treat the Indians as beasts, did not entertain a higher opinion of these negro Africans, whom they substituted in their place. Degraded still farther in their eyes by the price they had paid for them, they aggravated

vated the weight of their servitude, it became intolerable, and these wretched slaves made an effort to recover the unalienable rights of mankind; their attempt proved unsuccessful, but they reaped this benefit from their despair, that they were afterwards treated with less inhumanity.

This moderation, if tyranny cramped by the apprehension of revolt can deserve that name, was attended with some good consequences. Cultivation was pursued with some degree of success. Soon after the middle of the 16th century, Spain drew annually from this colony ten millions weight of sugar, a large quantity of wood for drying, tobacco, cocoa, cassia, ginger, cotton, and peltry in abundance. One might imagine that such favourable beginnings would give both the desire and the means of carrying them farther; but a train of events more fatal each than the other, ruined these hopes.

The first misfortune arose from the depopulation of the island; the Spanish conquests on the continent should naturally have contributed to promote the success of an island, which nature seemed to have formed to be the center of that vast dominion arising around it, to be the staple of the different colonies. But it fell out quite otherwise; on a view of the immense fortunes raising in Mexico, and other parts, the richest inhabitants of Hispaniola began to despise their settlements, and quitted the true source of riches, which is on the surface of the earth, to go and ransack the bowels of it for veins of gold, which are quickly exhausted. The government endeavoured in vain to put a stop to this emigration; the laws were always either artfully eluded, or openly violated.

The weakness, which was a necessary consequence of such a conduct, leaving the coasts without defence, encouraged the enemies of Spain to ravage them. Even the capital of this island was taken and pillaged by that celebrated English sailor, Sir Francis Drake. The cruizers of less consequence contented themselves with intercepting vessels in their passage through those latitudes, the best known at that time of any in the new world. To complete these misfortunes, the Castilians themselves commenced pirates; they attacked no ships but those of their own nation, which were more rich, worse provided, and worse defended than any others. The custom they had of fitting out ships clandestinely, in order to procure slaves, prevented them from being known, and the assistance they purchased from

the ships of war, commissioned to protect the trade, insured to them impunity.

The foreign trade of the colony was its only resource in this distress, and that was illicit; but as it continued to be carried on, notwithstanding the vigilance of the governors, or, perhaps, by their connivance, the policy of an exasperated and short-sighted court exerted itself in demolishing most of the sea ports, and driving the miserable inhabitants into the inland country. This act of violence threw them into a state of dejection, which the incursions and settlement of the French on the island afterwards carried to the utmost pitch. The latter, after having made some unsuccessful attempts to settle on the island, had part of it yielded to them in 1697, and now enjoy by far the best share.

Spain, totally taken up with that vast empire which she had formed on the continent, used no pains to dissipate this lethargy; she even refused to listen to the solicitations of her Flemish subjects, who earnestly pressed that they might have permission to clear those fertile lands. Rather than run the risk of seeing them carry on a contraband trade on the coasts, she chose to bury in oblivion a settlement which had been of consequence, and was likely to become so again.

This colony, which had no longer any intercourse with Spain but by a single ship, of no great burden, that arrived from thence every third year, consisted, in 1717, of eighteen thousand four hundred and ten inhabitants, including Spaniards, mestees, negroes or mulattoes. The complexion and character of these people differed according to the different proportions of American, European and African blood they had received from that natural and transient union which restores all races and conditions to the same level. These demi-savages, plunged in the extreme of sloth, lived upon fruits and roots, dwelt in cottages without furniture, and most of them without clothes. The few among them, in whom indolence had not totally suppressed the sense of decency and taste for the conveniencies of life, purchased clothes of their neighbours the French in return for their cattle, and the money sent to them for the maintenance of two hundred soldiers, the priests and the government. It doth not appear that the company, formed at Barcelona in 1757, with exclusive privileges for the re-establishment of St. Domingo, hath as yet made any considerable progress. They send out only two small vessels annually, which are freighted back with six thousand hides, and some other commodities of little value.

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Domingo, the capital of the island, is seated in that part belonging to the Spaniards on the south side of the island, and has a commodious harbour. The town is built in the Spanish manner, with a great square in the middle of it, about which are the cathedral and other public buildings. From this square run the principal streets in a direct line, they being crossed by others at right angles, so that the form of the town is almost square. The country on the north and east side is pleasant and fruitful; and there is a large navigable river on the west, with the ocean on the south. It is the see of an archbishop, an ancient royal audience, and the seat of the governor. It has several fine churches and monasteries, and is so well fortified; that a fleet and army sent by Oliver Cromwell, in 1654, could not take it. The inhabitants are Spaniards, negroes, mulattoes, mestees, and Albatraces, of whom about a sixth part may be Spaniards. It had formerly about two thousand houses, but it is much declined of late years. The river on which it is seated is called Ozama. West longitude $69^{\circ} 30'$, north latitude $18^{\circ} 25'$.

PORTO RICO.

This island is situated between 64° and 67° west longitude, and 18° north latitude, lying between Hispaniola and St. Christopher's. It is one hundred miles in length and forty in breadth.

Although this island had been discovered and visited by Columbus in 1493, the Spaniards neglected it till 1509, when the thirst of gold brought them thither from St. Domingo, under the command of Ponce de Leon, to make a conquest, which afterwards cost them dear.

Porto Rico hath thirty-six leagues in length, eighteen in breadth, and one hundred in circumference. We may venture to affirm, that it is one of the best, if not entirely the best, of the islands of the new world, in proportion to its extent. The air is wholesome, and tolerably temperate, and it is watered by the pure streams of a considerable number of small rivulets. Its mountains are covered with either useful or valuable trees, and its vallies have a degree of fertility seldom to be met with elsewhere. All the productions peculiar to America thrive upon this deep soil. A safe port, commodious harbours, and coasts of easy access, are added to these several advantages.

On this territory, deprived of its savage inhabitants by ferocious deeds, the memory of which more than three centuries have not
been

been able to obliterate, was successively formed a population of forty-four thousand eight hundred and eighty-three men, either white or of a mixed race: most of them were naked: their habitations were nothing more than huts. Nature, with little or no assistance, supplied them with subsistence. The linens, and some other things of little value, which they clandestinely obtained from the neighbouring or from foreign islands, were paid for by the colony with tobacco, cattle, and with the money which was sent by government for the support of the civil, religious and military establishment. They received from Spain annually only one small vessel, the cargo of which did not amount to more than ten thousand crowns, and which returned to Europe laden with hides.

Such was Porto Rico, when, in 1765, the court of Madrid carried their attention to St. John, an excellent harbour, even for the royal navy, and which only wants a little more extent. The town which commands it was surrounded with fortifications. The works were made particularly strong towards a narrow and marshy neck of land, the only place by which the town can be attacked on the land side. Two battalions and one company of artillery crossed the sea for its defence.

At this period, a possession which had annually received from the treasury no more than three hundred and seventy-eight thousand livres, cost them two millions six hundred and thirty-four thousand four hundred and thirty-three livres, which sum was regularly brought from Mexico. This increase of specie stimulated the colonists to undertake some labours: at the same time the island, which till then had been under the yoke of monopoly, was allowed to receive all Spanish navigators. These two circumstances united, imparted some degree of animation to a settlement, the languishing state of which astonished all nations. Its tithes, which before 1765 did not yield more than eighty-one thousand livres, have increased to two hundred and thirty thousand four hundred and eighteen livres.

On the first of January, 1778, the population of Porto Rico amounted to fourscore thousand six hundred and sixty inhabitants, of which number only six thousand five hundred and thirty were slaves. The inhabitants reckoned seventy-seven thousand three hundred and eighty-four head of horned cattle, twenty-three thousand one hundred and ninety-five horses, fifteen hundred and fifteen mules, and forty-nine thousand fifty-eight head of small cattle.

The plantations, the number of which were five thousand six hundred and eighty-one, produced two thousand seven hundred and thirty-seven quintals of sugar; eleven hundred and fourteen quintals of cotton; eleven thousand one hundred and sixty-three quintals of coffee; nineteen thousand five hundred and fifty-six quintals of rice; fifteen thousand two hundred and sixteen quintals of maize; seven thousand four hundred and fifty-eight quintals of tobacco; and nine thousand eight hundred and sixty quintals of molasses.

The cattle in the several pasture grounds, which were two hundred and thirty-four in number, produced annually eleven thousand three hundred and sixty-four oxen; four thousand three hundred and thirty-four horses; nine hundred and fifty-two mules; thirty-one thousand two hundred and fifty-four head of small cattle.

Till the year 1778, no one citizen of Porto Rico was in reality master of his possessions. The commanders who had succeeded each other had only granted the income of them. This inconceivable defect hath at length been remedied: the proprietors have been confirmed in their possessions by a law, upon condition of paying annually one real and a quarter, or sixteen sols six deniers, for every portion of ground of twenty-five thousand seven hundred and eight toises, which they employed in cultures; and three quarters of a real, or ten sols one denier and a half, for that part of the soil that is reserved for pasture ground. This easy tribute is to serve for the clothing of the militia, composed of one thousand nine hundred infantry, and two hundred and fifty cavalry. The remainder of the island is distributed on the same conditions to those who have little or no property. These last, who are distinguished by the name of Agregés, are seven thousand eight hundred and thirty-five in number.

TRINIDAD AND MARGARETTA.

Trinidad is situated between 59° and 62° west longitude, and 10° north latitude; it was discovered by Columbus, who landed on it in 1498; but it was not till 1535 that the court of Madrid took possession of it.

It is said to comprehend three hundred and eighteen square leagues. It hath never experienced any hurricane, and its climate is wholesome. The rains are very abundant there from the middle of May to the end of October; and the dryness that prevails throughout the

rest of the year is not attended with any inconvenience, because the country, though destitute of navigable rivers, is very well watered. The earthquakes are more frequent than dangerous. In the interior part of the island there are four groups of mountains, which, together with some others formed by Nature upon the shores of the ocean, occupy a third part of the territory: the rest is in general susceptible of the richest cultures.

The form of the island is a long square. To the north is a coast of twenty-two leagues in extent, too much elevated and too much divided ever to be of any use. The eastern coast is only nineteen leagues in extent, but in all parts as convenient as one could wish it to be. The southern coast hath five-and-twenty leagues, is a little exalted, and adapted for the successful cultivation of coffee and cacao. The land on the western side is separated from the rest of the colony, to the south by the Soldier's canal, and to the north by the Dragon's mouth, and forms, by means of a recess, a harbour of twenty leagues in breadth, and thirty in depth. It offers, in all seasons, a secure asylum to the navigators, who, during the greatest part of the year, would find it difficult to anchor any where else, except at the place called the Galiole.

In this part are the Spanish settlements: they consist only of the port of Spain, upon which there are seventy-eight thatched huts; and of St. Joseph, situated three leagues farther up the country, where eighty-eight families, still more wretched than the former, are computed.

The cacao was formerly cultivated near these two villages; its excellence made it be preferred even to that of Caraccas. In order to secure it, the merchants used to pay for it beforehand. The tree that produced it perished all in 1727, and have not been re-planted since. The monks attributed this disaster to the colonists having refused to pay the tithes. Those who were not blinded by interest or superstition, ascribed it to the north winds, which have too frequently occasioned the same kind of calamity in other parts. Since this period, Trinidad hath not been much more frequented than Cubagua; still, however, it produces sugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, and a variety of fruits, with some cotton trees and Indian corn which render it of some importance.

Cubagua is a little island, at the distance of four leagues only from the continent, was discovered, and neglected by Columbus, in 1492. The Spaniards, being afterwards informed that its shores contain

great treasures, repaired to it in multitudes in 1509, and gave it the name of Pearl Island.

The pearl bank was soon exhausted, and the colony was transferred, in 1524, to Margarettta, where the regretted riches were found, and from whence they disappeared almost as soon.

Yet this last settlement, which is fifteen leagues in length and five in breadth, was not abandoned. It is almost continually covered with thick fogs, although nature hath not bestowed upon it any current waters. There is no village in it except Mon Padre, which is defended by a small fort: its soil would be fruitful if it were cultivated.

It was almost generally supposed, that the court of Madrid, in preserving Margarettta and Trinidad, meant rather to keep off rival nations from this continent than to derive any advantage from them: at present we are induced to think otherwise: convinced that the Archipelago of America was full of inhabitants loaded with debts, or who possessed but a small quantity of indifferent land, the council of Charles III. offered great concessions, in these two islands, to those who should embrace their faith. The freedom of commerce with all the Spanish traders was insured to them. They were only obliged to deliver their cacao to the company of Caraccas, but at twenty-seven sols per pound, and under the condition that this company should advance them some capital. These overtures have only met with a favourable reception at Granada, from whence some Frenchmen have made their escape with a few slaves, either to screen themselves from the pursuits of their creditors, or from aversion to the sway of the English. In every other part they have had no effect, whether from aversion for an oppressive government, or whether it be that the expectations of all are at present turned towards the north of the new world.

Trinidad and Margarettta are at present inhabited only by a few Spaniards, who, with some Indian women, have formed a race of men, who, uniting the indolence of the savage to the vices of civilized nations, are sluggards, cheats and zealots. They live upon maize, upon what fish they catch, and upon bananas, which Nature, out of indulgence, as it were, to their slothfulness, produces there of a larger size, and better quality, than in any other part of the Archipelago. They have a breed of lean and tasteless cattle, with which they carry on a fraudulent traffic to the French colonies, exchanging them for camlets, black veils, linens, silk stockings, white hats, and

hardware. The number of their vessels does not exceed thirty floops, without decks,

The tame animals of these two islands have filled the woods with a breed of horned cattle, which are become wild: the inhabitants shoot them, and cut their flesh into slips of three inches in breadth and one in thickness, which they dry, after having melted the fat out of them, so that they will keep three or four months. This provision, which is called tassajo, is sold in the French settlements for twenty livres a hundred weight.

All the money which the government sends to these two islands, falls into the hands of the commandants, the officers civil and military, and the monks. The remainder of the people, who do not amount to more than sixteen hundred, live in a state of the most deplorable poverty. In time of war they furnish about two hundred men, who, for the sake of plunder, offer themselves, without distinction, to any of the colonies that happen to be fitting out cruizers for sea. Besides these, there are some other small islands claimed by the Spaniards, but to which they have paid little or no attention,

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FRENCH WEST-INDIES.

MARTINICO.

MMARTINICO is the chief of the French Caribbee islands, the middle of which is situated in west longitude $61^{\circ} 0'$, north latitude $14^{\circ} 30'$.

This island was first settled by M. Desnambuc a Frenchman, in the year 1635, with only one hundred men from St. Christopher's. He chose rather to have it peopled from thence than from Europe, as he foresaw that men tired with the fatigue of such a long voyage, would mostly perish soon after their arrival, either from the climate, or from the hardships incident to most emigrations. They completed their first settlement without any difficulty; the natives, intimidated by their fire arms, or seduced by promises, gave up the western and southern parts of the island to the new comers. In a short time, however, perceiving the number of these enterprising strangers daily increasing, they resolved to extirpate them, and therefore called in the savages of the neighbouring islands to assist them; they fell jointly upon a little fort that had been hastily erected, but were repulsed with the loss of seven or eight hundred of their best warriors, who were left dead upon the spot.

After this check, the savages for a long time disappeared entirely, but at last they returned, bringing with them presents to the French, and making excuses for what had happened; they were received in a friendly manner, and the reconciliation sealed with pots of brandy. This peaceable state of affairs, however, was of no long continuance, the French took such undue advantages of their superiority over the savages, that they soon rekindled in the others that hatred which had never been entirely subdued. The savages separated into small bands,
and

and waylaid the French as they came singly out into the woods to hunt, and waiting till the sportsman had discharged his piece, rushed upon and killed him before he could charge it again. Twenty men had been thus assassinated before any reason could be given for their sudden disappearance; but as soon as the matter was known the French took a severe and fatal revenge; the savages were pursued and massacred, with their wives and children, and the few that escaped were driven out of Martinico, to which they never returned.

The French being thus left sole masters of the island, lived quietly on those spots which best suited their inclinations. At this time they were divided into two classes; the first consisted of those who had paid their passage to the island, and these were called inhabitants, and to these the government distributed lands, which became their own, upon paying a yearly tribute. These inhabitants had under their command a multitude of disorderly people brought over from Europe at their expense, whom they called *engagés*, or bondsmen. This engagement was a kind of slavery for the term of three years, on the expiration of which they were at liberty, and became the equals of those whom they had served. They all confined themselves at first to the culture of tobacco and cotton, to which was soon added that of arnotto and indigo. The culture of sugar also was begun about the year 1650. Ten years after, one Benjamin D'Acofta, a Jew, planted some cacao trees, but his example was not followed till 1684, when chocolate was more commonly used in France. Cacao then became the principal support of the colonists, who had not a sufficient fund to undertake sugar plantations; but by the inclemency of the season in 1718, all the cacao trees were destroyed at once. Coffee was then proposed as a proper object of culture; the French ministry had received as a present from the Dutch, two of these trees, which were carefully preserved in the king's botanical garden. Two young shoots were taken from these, put on board a ship for Martinico, and entrusted to the care of one M. Desclieux; this ship happened to be straitened for want of fresh water, and the trees would have perished, had not the gentleman shared with them that quantity of water which was allowed for his own drinking. The culture of coffee was then begun, and attended with the greatest and most rapid success; about the end of the last century, however, the colony had made but small advances. In 1700 it had only six thousand five hundred and ninety-seven white inhabitants; the savages, mulattoes, and free negroes, men, women, and children, amounted to no more than

five hundred and seven; the number of slaves was but fourteen thousand five hundred and sixty-six; all these together made a population of twenty-one thousand six hundred and forty-five persons.

After the peace of Utrecht, Martinico began to emerge from that feeble state in which it had so long continued. The island then became the mart for all the windward French settlements; in its ports the neighbouring islands sold their produce, and bought the commodities of the mother country; and, in short, Martinico became famous all over Europe: their labour improved the plantations as far as was consistent with the consumption then made in Europe of American productions, and the annual exports from the island amounted to about seven hundred thousand pounds.

The connections of Martinico with the other islands entitled her to the profits of commission, and the charges of transport, as she alone was in the possession of carriages. This profit might be rated at the tenth of the produce; and the sum total must have amounted to near seven hundred and sixty-five thousand pounds: this standing debt was seldom called in, and left for the improvement of their plantations; it was increased by advances in money, slaves, and other necessary articles, so that Martinico became daily more and more a creditor to the other islands, and thus kept them in constant dependence.

The connections of this island with Cape Breton, Canada, and Louisiana, procured a market for the ordinary sugars, the inferior coffee, the molasses, and rum, which would not sell in France. In exchange the inhabitants received salt fish, dried vegetables, deals, and some flour. In the clandestine trade on the coasts of Spanish America, consisting wholly of goods manufactured by the French nation, she commonly made a profit of ninety per cent. on the value of about one hundred and seventy-five thousand pounds, sent yearly to the Caraccas, or neighbouring colonies.

Upwards of seven hundred and eighty-seven thousand pounds were constantly circulated in this island with great rapidity; and this is perhaps the only country in the world where the specie has been so considerable as to make it a matter of indifference to them whether they dealt in gold, silver, or commodities. This extensive trade brought into the ports of Martinico annually two hundred ships from France; fourteen or fifteen fitted out by the mother country for the coast of Guinea, sixty from Canada, ten or twelve from the islands of Margarettia and Trinidad, besides the English and Dutch ships that

came to carry on a smuggling trade. The private navigation from the island to the northern colonies, to the Spanish continent, and to the windward islands, employed one hundred and twenty vessels, from twenty to thirty tons burden.

The war of 1744 put a stop to this prosperity: not that the fault was in Martinico itself; its navy, constantly exercised, and accustomed to frequent engagements, which the carrying on a contraband trade required, was prepared for action. In less than six months, forty privateers, fitted out at St. Peter's, spread themselves about the latitude of the Caribbee islands; yet an entire stop was put to the navigation of the colony, both to the Spanish coast and to Canada, and they were constantly disturbed even on their own coasts. The few ships that came from France in order to compensate the hazards they were exposed to by the loss of their commodities, sold them at a very advanced price, and bought them at a very low one.

When every thing thus seemed tending to decay, the peace at last restored the freedom of trade, and with it the hopes of recovering the ancient prosperity of the island; the event, however, did not answer the pains that were taken to attain it. Two years had not elapsed after the cessation of hostilities, when the colony lost the contraband trade she carried on with the American Spaniards. This loss was not so sensibly felt by the colony as the hardships brought upon them by the mother country; an unskilful administration clogged the reciprocal and necessary connection between the islands and North-America with so many formalities, that in 1755 Martinico sent but four vessels to Canada. The direction of its colonies, now committed to the care of ignorant and avaricious clerks, it soon lost its importance, sunk into contempt, and was prostituted to venality. The war broke out afresh, and after a series of misfortunes and defeats, the island fell into the hands of the British; it was restored in July 1763, sixteen months after it had been conquered, but deprived of all the necessary means of prosperity that had made it of so much importance. The contraband trade carried on to the Spanish coasts was almost entirely lost, the cession of Canada to Great-Britain precluded all hopes of opening again a communication, which had only been interrupted by temporary mistakes. The productions of the Grenades, St. Vincent, and Dominica, which were now become British dominions, could no longer be brought into their harbours, and a new regulation of the mother country, which forbid her

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having any intercourse with Guadaloupe, left her no hopes from that quarter.

The colony, thus deprived of every thing as it were, and destitute, nevertheless contained, at the last survey, which was taken on the first of January, 1770, in the compass of twenty-eight parishes, twelve thousand four hundred and fifty white people of all ages and of both sexes; one thousand eight hundred and fourteen free blacks or mulattoes; seventy thousand five hundred and fifty-three slaves; and four hundred and forty-three fugitive negroes. The number of births in 1766, was in the proportion of one in thirty among the white people, and of one in twenty-five among the blacks.

The island is sixteen leagues in length, and forty-five in circumference, leaving out the capes, some of which extend two or three leagues into the sea; it is very uneven, and intersected in all parts by a number of hillocks, which are mostly of a conical form. Three mountains rise above these smaller eminences; the highest bears the indelible marks of a volcano; the woods with which it is covered, continually attract the clouds, which occasion noxious damps, and contribute to make it horrid and inaccessible, while the two others are in most parts cultivated. From these mountains issue the many springs that water the island; these waters, which flow in gentle streams, are changed into torrents on the slightest storm; their qualities are derived from the soil over which they flow; in some places they are excellent, in others so bad, that the inhabitants are obliged to drink the water they have collected during the rainy season.

Of all the French settlements in the West-Indies, Martinico is the most happily situated with regard to the winds which prevail in those seas. Its harbours possess the most inestimable advantage of affording a certain shelter from the hurricanes which annoy these latitudes. The harbour of Fort Royal is one of the best in all the windward islands, and so celebrated for its safety, that when it was open to the Dutch, their shipmasters had orders from the republic to take shelter there in June, July, and August, the three months in which the hurricanes are most frequent. The lands of the Lamentin, which are but a league distant, are the richest and most fertile in the whole island. The numerous streams which water this fruitful country, convey loaded canoes to a considerable distance from the sea; the protection of the fortifications secure the peaceable enjoyment of so many advantages, which, however, are balanced by a

swampy and unwholesome soil. This capital of Martinico is also the rendezvous of the men of war, which branch of the navy has always oppressed the merchantmen. On this account Fort Royal was an improper place to become the center of trade, and was therefore removed to St. Peter's. This little town, notwithstanding the fires that have four times reduced it to ashes, still contains one thousand seven hundred houses. It is situated on the western coast of the island, on a bay or inlet, which is almost circular; one part of it is built on the strand along the sea side, which is called the anchorage, and is the place destined for ships and warehouses: the other part of the town stands upon a low hill; it is called the Fort, from a small fortification that was built there in 1665, to check the seditions of the inhabitants against the tyranny of monopoly, but it now serves to protect the road from foreign enemies; these two parts of the town are separated by a rivulet.

The anchorage is at the back of a pretty high and steep hill. Shut up as it were by this hill, which intercepts the easterly winds, the most constant and most salubrious in these parts; exposed, without any refreshing breezes, to the scorching beams of the sun, reflected from the hill, from the sea, and the black sand on the beach; this place is extremely hot, and always unwholesome; besides, there is no harbour, and the ships which cannot winter safely upon this coast, are obliged to take shelter at Fort Royal. But these disadvantages are compensated by the convenience of the road of St. Peter's for loading and unloading of goods, and by its situation, which is such that ships can freely go in and out at all times, and with all winds.

GUADALOUPE.

The middle of this island is seated in about north latitude $16^{\circ} 36'$, west longitude $61^{\circ} 20'$; it is of an irregular figure, may be about eighty leagues in circumference, and is divided into two parts by a small arm of the sea, which is not above two leagues long, and from fifteen to forty fathoms broad. This canal, known by the name of the Salt river, is navigable, but will only carry vessels of fifty tons burden.

That part of the island which gives its name to the whole colony, is, towards the center, full of craggy rocks, where the cold is so intense, that nothing will grow upon them but fern, and some useless shrubs covered with moss. On the top of these rocks, a mountain called la Souphriere, or the Brimstone mountain, rises to an im-

enfe height ; it exhales, through various openings, a thick black smoke, intermixed with sparks that are vifible by night. From all thefe hills flow numberlefs fprings, which fertilize the plains below, and moderate the burning heat of the climate by a refreshing fream, fo celebrated, that the galleons which formerly ufed to touch at the Windward iflands, had orders to renew their provifion with this pure and falubrious water : fuch is that part of the ifland properly called Guadaloupe. That which is commonly called Grand Terre, has not been fo much favoured by nature ; it is indeed lefs rugged, but it wants fprings and rivers ; the foil is not fo fertile, or the climate fo wholefome, or pleafant.

No European nation had yet taken poffeffion of this ifland, when five hundred and fifty Frenchmen, led on by two gentlemen named Loline and Dupleffis, arrived there from Dieppe on the 28th of June 1635. They had been very imprudent in their preparations ; their provifions were fo ill chofen, that they were fpoiled in the paffage, and they had fhipped fo few, that they were exhausted in two months : they were fupplied with more from the mother country. St. Christopher's, whether from fcarcity or defign, refufed to fpare them any, and the firft attempts in husbandry they made in the country, could not as yet afford any thing. No refource was left for the colony but from the favages, but the fuperfluities of a people who cultivate but little, and therefore had never laid up any ftores, could not be very confiderable. The new comers, not content with what the favages might freely and voluntarily bring, came to a refolution to plunder them, and hofilities commenced on the fixteenth of January, 1636.

A dreadful famine was the confequence of this kind of war ; the colonifts were reduced to graze in the fields, to eat their own excrements, and to dig up dead bodies for their fubfiftence. Many who had been flaves at Algiers, held in abhorrence the hands that had broken their fetters, and all of them curfed their exiftence. It was in this manner that they atoned for the crime of their invafion, till the government of Aubert brought a peace with the favages at the end of the year 1640.

The few inhabitants, who had efaped the calamities they had drawn upon themfelves, were foon joined by fome difcontented colonifts from St. Christopher's, by Europeans fond of novelty, by failors tired of navigation, and by fome fea captains, who prudently chofe to commit to the care of a grateful foil the treafures they

had saved from the dangers of the sea. But still the prosperity of Guadaloupe was stopped or impeded by obstacles arising from its situation.

The facility with which the pirates from the neighbouring islands could carry off their cattle, their slaves, their very crops, frequently brought them into a desperate situation. Intestine broils, arising from jealousies of authority, often disturbed the quiet of the planters. The adventurers who went over to the Windward islands, disdaining a land that was fitter for agriculture than for naval expedition, were easily drawn to Martinico by the convenient roads it abounds with. The protection of those intrepid pirates brought to that island, all the traders who flattered themselves that they might buy up the spoils of the enemy at a low price, and all the planters who thought they might safely give themselves up to peaceful labours. This quick population could not fail of introducing the civil and military government of the Caribbee islands into Martinico. From that time the French ministry attended more seriously to this than to the other colonies, which were not so immediately under their direction, and hearing chiefly of this island, they turned all their encouragement that way.

It was in consequence of this preference, that in 1700, the number of inhabitants in Guadaloupe amounted only to three thousand eight hundred and twenty-five white people; three hundred and twenty-five savages, free negroes, mulattoes; and six thousand seven hundred and twenty-five slaves, many of whom were Caribs.

At the end of the year 1755, the colony was peopled with nine thousand six hundred and forty-three whites, forty-one thousand one hundred and forty slaves of all ages and of both sexes. Her saleable commodities were the produce of three hundred and thirty-four sugar plantations; fifteen plots of indigo; forty-six thousand eight hundred and forty stems of cacao; eleven thousand seven hundred of tobacco; two million two hundred and fifty seven thousand seven hundred and twenty-five of coffee; twelve million seven hundred and forty-eight thousand four hundred and forty-seven of cotton. For her provisions she had twenty-nine squares of rice or maize, and one thousand two hundred and nineteen of potatoes or yams; two million and twenty-eight thousand five hundred and twenty banana trees, and thirty-two million five hundred and seventy-seven thousand nine hundred and fifty trenches of cassava. The cattle of Guadaloupe

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consisted of four thousand nine hundred and forty-six horses; two thousand nine hundred and twenty-four mules; one hundred and twenty-five asses; thirteen thousand seven hundred and sixteen head of horned cattle; eleven thousand one hundred and sixty-two sheep or goats, and two thousand four hundred and forty-four hogs. Such was the state of Guadaloupe when it was conquered by the British in the month of April, 1759.

The colony, with its dependencies, was restored to France by the treaty of peace in July, 1763.

By a survey taken in 1767, this island, including the smaller islands, Deseada, St. Bartholomew, Marigalante, and the Saints, dependent upon it, contained eleven thousand eight hundred and sixty-three white people of all ages and of both sexes; seven hundred and fifty-two free blacks and mulattoes; seventy-two thousand seven hundred and sixty-one slaves; which makes in all a population of eighty-five thousand three hundred and seventy-six souls. The cattle consisted of five thousand and sixty horses; four thousand eight hundred and fifty-four mules; one hundred and eleven asses; seventeen thousand three hundred and seventy-eight head of horned cattle; fourteen thousand eight hundred and ninety-five sheep or goats, and two thousand six hundred and sixty-nine hogs. The provision was thirty million four hundred and seventy-six thousand two hundred and eighteen trenches of cassava; two million eight hundred and nineteen thousand two hundred and sixty-two banana trees; two thousand one hundred and eighteen squares of land planted with yams and potatoes. The plantations contained seventy-two arnotto trees; three hundred and twenty-seven of cassia; thirteen thousand two hundred and ninety-two of cacao; five million eight hundred and eighty-one thousand one hundred and seventy-six of coffee; twelve million one hundred and fifty-six thousand seven hundred and sixty-nine of cotton; twenty-one thousand four hundred and seventy-four squares of land planted with sugar-canes. The woods occupied twenty-two thousand and ninety-seven squares of land; there were twenty thousand two hundred and forty-seven in meadows, and six thousand four hundred and five uncultivated or forsaken. Only one thousand five hundred and eighty-two plantations grew cotton, coffee and provisions. Sugar was made but in four hundred and one. These sugar works employed one hundred and forty water-mills, two hundred and sixty-three turned by oxen, and eleven wind-mills.

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The produce of Guadalupe, including what is poured in from the small islands under her dominion, ought to be very considerable; but in 1768, it yielded to the mother country no more than one hundred and forty thousand four hundred and eighteen quintals of fine sugar; twenty-three thousand six hundred and three quintals of raw sugar; thirty-four thousand two hundred and five quintals of coffee; eleven thousand nine hundred and fifty-five quintals of cotton; four hundred and fifty-six quintals of cacao; one thousand eight hundred and eighty-four quintals of ginger; two thousand five hundred and twenty-nine quintals of logwood; twenty-four chests of sweetmeats; one hundred and sixty-five chests of liquors; thirty-four casks of rum, and twelve hundred and two undressed skins. All these commodities were sold in the colony only for three hundred and ten thousand seven hundred and ninety-two pounds, eighteen shillings and three pence; and the merchandize it received from France has cost but one hundred and ninety-seven thousand nine hundred and nineteen pounds, eighteen shillings and six-pence; but from that period it considerably increased till the late troubles.

SAINT LUCIA.

Saint Lucia is about twenty-two miles long and eleven broad, the middle of it lying in north latitude $39^{\circ} 14'$, west longitude $27^{\circ} 0'$. It was first settled by the French in 1650, but was reduced by the English in 1664, who evacuated it in 1666. The French immediately resettled the island, but were again driven away by the Caribs. As soon as the savages were gone the former inhabitants returned, but only for a short time; for being afraid of falling a prey to the first privateer that should visit their coasts, they removed either to other French settlements that were stronger, or which they might expect to be better defended. There was then no regular culture or colony at St. Lucia, it was only frequented by the inhabitants of Martinico, who came thither to cut wood and to build canoes, and who had considerable docks on the island. In 1718 it was again settled by the French; but four years after, it was given by the court of London to the duke of Montague, who was sent to take possession of it. This occasioned some disturbance between the two courts; which was settled, however, by an agreement made in 1731, that, till the respective claims should be finally adjusted, the island should be evacuated by both nations, but that both should wood and water

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there. This precarious agreement furnished an opportunity for private interest to exert itself. The English no longer molested the French in their habitations, but employed them as their assistants in carrying on with richer colonies a smuggling trade, which the subjects of both governments thought equally advantageous to them. This trade was more or less considerable till the treaty of 1763, when the property of St. Lucia was secured to the crown of France. After that time the colony flourished considerably. In the beginning of the year 1772, the number of white people amounted to two thousand and eighteen, men, women and children; that of the blacks to six hundred and sixty-three freemen, and twelve thousand seven hundred and ninety-five slaves. There were seven hundred and six dwelling places. The annual revenue at that time was about one hundred and seventy-five thousand pounds, which, according to the Abbé Raynal, must have increased one-eighth yearly for some time. It was taken by the British fleet under admirals Byron and Barrington in the year 1778, but was restored to France at the peace of 1783.

The soil of St. Lucia is tolerably good, even at the sea side; and is much better the farther one advances into the country. The whole of it is capable of cultivation, except some high and craggy mountains, which bear evident marks of old volcanoes. In one deep valley there are still eight or ten ponds, the water of which boils up in a dreadful manner, and retains some of its heat at the distance of six thousand toises from its reservoirs. The air in the inland parts, like that of all other uninhabited countries, is foul and unwholesome; but grows less noxious as the woods are cleared and the ground laid open. On some parts of the sea coast the air is still more unhealthy, on account of some small rivers which spring from the foot of the mountains, and have not sufficient slope to wash down the sands with which the influx of the ocean stops up their mouths, by which means they spread themselves into unwholesome marshes on the neighbouring grounds.

T O B A G O.

Tobago is situated in 11° odd minutes 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 so near the equator; and it is said, that it lies out of the course of those hurricanes that have sometimes proved so fatal to the other

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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 rivers are so disposed as to be very commodious for all kind of shipping. The value and importance of this island appears 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, though, by the treaty of peace in 1763, it was yielded up to Great-Britain; but, in June, 1781, it was taken by the French, and ceded to them by the treaty of 1783.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA AND MARIGALANTE,

Are three small islands lying in the neighbourhood of Antigua and St. Christopher's, and are 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 the British West-India trade. St. Bartholomew is now to be considered as belonging to the crown of Sweden, being ceded to it by France in 1785.

HISPANIOLA.

In noticing the Spanish settlements in this part of the globe, we have already taken a general view of this island; it only therefore remains to notice the French settlements thereon.

The French towns are, Cape François, the capital, containing several years ago, about eight thousand whites and blacks. Leogane, though inferior in point of size, is a good port, a place of considerable trade, and the seat of the French government in that island. They have two other towns, considerable for their trade, Petit Guaves and port Louis.

The following is said to be an exact statement of the population, product and commerce of the French colony of Hispaniola in the year 1788, and may serve to shew the immense losses sustained by the late insurrections of the negroes.

Whites, twenty-seven thousand seven hundred and seventeen; free people of colour, twenty-one thousand eight hundred and eight; slaves, four hundred and five thousand five hundred and twenty-eight.

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The plantations were, of sugar, seven hundred and ninety-two; of indigo, three thousand and ninety-seven; of cotton, seven hundred and five; of coffee, two thousand eight hundred and ten. The manufactories were, distilleries, one hundred and seventy-three; of brick and potter's ware, sixty-three; of cacao, sixty-nine, and three tanners.

Its productions exported to France were, seventy millions two hundred and twenty-seven thousand seven hundred and nine pounds of white sugar; ninety-three millions one hundred and seventy-seven thousand five hundred and eighteen ditto of brut ditto; sixty-eight millions one hundred and fifty-one thousand one hundred and eighty-one ditto of coffee; nine hundred and thirty thousand and sixteen pounds of indigo; six millions two hundred and eighty-six thousand one hundred and twenty-six ditto of cotton; and twelve thousand nine hundred and ninety-five dressed skins.

Sold to American, English and Dutch smugglers; twenty-five millions of pounds of brut sugars; twelve millions ditto of coffee; and three millions ditto of cotton.

The molasses exported in American bottoms, valued at one million of dollars; valuable wood, exported in French ships, two hundred thousand dollars.

Its trade employed five hundred and eighty large ships, carrying one hundred and eighty-nine thousand six hundred and seventy-nine tons, in which the imports amounted to twelve millions of dollars, of which more than eight millions of dollars were in manufactured goods of France, and the other four millions in French produce.

The Spanish ships exported in French goods, or money, one million four hundred thousand dollars, for mules imported by them into the colony.

Ninety-eight French ships, carrying forty thousand one hundred and thirty tons, imported twenty-nine thousand five hundred and six negroes, which sold for eight millions of dollars.

The negroes in the French division of this island have, for several years past, been in a state of insurrection. In the progress of these disturbances, which have not yet subsided, the planters and others have sustained immense losses. As this unhappy affair has engaged much of the attention of the public, we are happy in being able to give a summary statement of the causes of this insurrection.*

* From a pamphlet published in 1792, entitled, "An Inquiry into the Causes of the Insurrection of the Negroes, in the Island of St. Domingo."

The situation of the French colonies early attracted the attention of the Constituent Assembly. At this time all was as tranquil *as such a state of oppression would permit*. Political health can only be attributed to a country with a free constitution. The situation of the island is that of a paralytic; one part is torpid, whilst the other is affected with the frantic motions of St. Vitus's dance.

The first interference of the National Assembly in the affairs of the colonies, was by a decree of the 8th of March, 1790, which declared, That all free persons, who were proprietors and residents of two years standing, and who contributed to the exigencies of the state, should exercise the rights of voting, which constitute the quality of French citizens.

This decree, though in fact it gave no new rights to the people of colour, was regarded with a jealous eye by the white planters, who evidently saw that the generality of the qualification included all descriptions of proprietors; they affected, however, to impose a different construction upon it. The people of colour appealed to common justice and common sense: it was to no purpose, the whites repelled them from their assemblies; some commotions ensued, in which they mutually fell a sacrifice to their pride and resentment.

These disturbances again excited the vigilance of the National Assembly; a decree was passed on the 12th of October, 1790, by which the Assembly declared, as a constitutional article, "That they would establish no regulations respecting the internal government of the colonies, without the precise and formal request of the colonial assemblies."

Peace, however, was not the consequence of this decree. The proprietors, it is true, had obtained a *legal* right of TYRANNIZING, but the unfortunate question still recurred, Who should be permitted to exercise that right? On this head the decree was silent. New dissensions arose; each of the parties covered, under a factious patriotism, the most atrocious designs. Assassination and revolt became frequent. Maudit, a French officer of rank, lost his life by the hands of his own countrymen. At length the unfortunate Oge, a planter of colour, who had exerted himself in France in the cause of his brethren, resolved to support by force their just pretensions. He landed in the Spanish territory of St. Domingo, where he assembled about six hundred mulattoes. Before he proceeded to hostilities he wrote to the French general, that his desire was for peace, provided the laws were enforced. His letter was absurdly considered as a decla-

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nation of war. Being attacked and vanquished, he took refuge amongst the Spaniards, who delivered him up to his adversaries. The horrors of his death were the harbingers of future crimes. These disturbances still increasing, the National Assembly found it necessary at length to decide between the contending parties.

On the 15th of May, 1791, a decree was made, consisting of two articles, by the first of which the Assembly confirmed that of the 12th of October, so far as respected the slaves in their islands. It is true, that the word slave was cautiously omitted in this document, and they are only characterised by the negative description of "men not free," as if right and wrong depended on a play of words, or a mode of expression.

This part of the decree met with but little opposition, though it passed not without severe reprehension from a few enlightened members. The second article, respecting the people of colour, was strongly contested: those who were before known by the appellation of patriots divided upon it. It was, however, determined in the result, that the people of colour, born of free parents, should be considered as active citizens, and be eligible to the offices of government in the islands.

This second article, which decided upon a right that the people of colour had been entitled to for upwards of a century, instead of restoring peace, has been the pretext for all the subsequent evils that the colony of St. Domingo has sustained. They arose not indeed from its execution, but from its counteraction by the white colonists. Had they, after the awful warnings they had already experienced, obeyed the ordinances of an Assembly they pretended to revere; had they imbibed one drop of the true spirit of that constitution to which they had avowed an inviolable attachment; had they even suppressed the dictates of pride in the suggestions of prudence, the storm that threatened them had been averted, and in their obedience to the parent state they had displayed an act of patriotism, and preserved themselves from all possibility of danger.

But the equalization of the people of colour stung the irritable nerves of the white colonists. *The descendants of slaves may lose the resentments of their fathers; but the hatred of a despot is hereditary.* The European maxim allows, "That they never pardon who have done the wrong;" but in the colonies this perversity attains a more monstrous growth, and the aversion to African blood descends from generation to generation. No sooner had the decree passed, than the

deputies from the islands to the National Assembly withdrew their attendance: the colonial committee, always under the influence of the planters, suspended their labours. Its arrival in the island struck the whites with consternation: they vowed to sacrifice their lives rather than suffer the execution of the decree. Their rage originating in despotism and phrenzy carried them so far that they proposed to imprison the French merchants then in the island, to tear down the national flag, and hoist the *British standard* in its place, whilst the joy of the mulattoes was mingled with apprehensions and with fears. St. Domingo re-echoed with the cries of the whites, with their menaces and blasphemies against the constitution. A motion was made in the streets to fire upon the people of colour, who fled from the city, and took refuge in the plantations of their friends and in the woods: they were at length recalled by proclamation; but it was only to swear subordination to the whites, and to be witnesses of fresh enormities. Amidst these agitations the slaves had remained in their accustomed subordination; nor was it till the month of August, 1791, that the symptoms of the insurrection appeared amongst them.

A considerable number, both of whites and people of colour, had lost their lives in these commotions before the slaves had given indications of disaffection; they were not, however, insensible of the opportunities of revolt afforded by the dissensions of their masters; they had learnt that no alleviation of their miseries was ever to be expected from Europe; that in the struggle for colonial dominion, their humble interests had been equally sacrificed or forgotten by all parties. They felt their curb relaxed by the disarming and dispersion of their mulatto masters, who had been accustomed to keep them under rigorous discipline. Hopeless of relief from any quarter, they rose in different parts, and spread desolation over the island. If the cold cruelties of despotism have no bounds, what shall be expected from the paroxysms of despair?

On the 11th of September, 1791, a convention took place, which produced the agreement called the Concordat, by which the white planters stipulated, that they would no longer oppose the law of the 15th of May, which gave political rights to the people of colour. The colonial Assembly even promised to meliorate the situation of the people of colour, born of parents not free, and to whom the decree of the 15th of May did not extend. An union was formed between the planters, which, if it had sooner taken place, had prevented the insurrection.

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rection. The insurgents were every where dispirited, repulsed, and dispersed; and the colony itself preserved from total destruction.

By a decree of the National Assembly, the 24th of September, the people of colour were virtually excluded from all right of colonial legislation, and expressly placed in the power of the white colonists.

If the decree of the 15th of May could instigate the white colonists to the frantic acts of violence before described, what shall we suppose were the feelings of the people of colour on that of the 24th of September, which again blasted those hopes they had justly founded on the constitutional law of the parent state, and the solemn ratification of the white colonists? No sooner was it known in the islands, than those dissensions which the revolt of the negroes had for a while appeased, broke out with fresh violence. The apprehensions entertained from the slaves had been allayed by the effects of the Concordat; but the whites no sooner found themselves relieved from the terrors of immediate destruction, than they availed themselves of the decree of the 24th of September; they formally revoked the Concordat, and treacherously refused to comply with an engagement to which they owed their very existence. The people of colour were in arms; they attacked the whites in the southern provinces; they possessed themselves of Fort St. Louis, and defeated their opponents in several engagements. A powerful body surrounded Port au Prince, the capital of the island, and claimed the execution of the Concordat. At three different times did the whites assent to the requisition, and as often broke their engagement. Gratiſied with the predilection for monarchy and aristocracy, which the Constituent Assembly had in its dotage avowed, they affected the appellation of patriots, and had the address to transfer the popular odium to the people of colour, who were contending for their INDISPUTABLE RIGHTS, and to the few white colonists who had virtue enough to espouse their cause. Under this pretext, the municipality of Port au Prince required M. Grimoard, the captain of the Boreas, a French line of battle ship, to bring his guns to bear upon, and to cannonade the people of colour assembled near the town: he at first refused, but the crew, deluded by the cry of patriotism, enforced his compliance. No sooner was this measure adopted, than the people of colour gave a loose to their indignation; they spread over the country, and set fire indiscriminately to all the plantations; the greatest part of the town of Port au Prince soon after shared the same fate. Nothing seemed to remain for the white inhabitants but to seek their safety in quitting the colony.

In the northern parts the people of colour adopted a more magnanimous and perhaps a more prudent conduct. "They begun," says Mr. Verniaud, "by offering their blood to the whites. "We shall wait," said they, "till we have saved you, before we assert our own claims." They accordingly opposed themselves to the revolted negroes with unexampled courage, and endeavoured to soothe them by attending to their reasonable requisitions.

After this recital of authentic and indisputable facts, it is not difficult to trace the causes of the insurrection. The effects we leave to be described by the professed historian; but the prudent measures of the French government we flatter ourselves will ultimately succeed in extending peace and liberty to every inhabitant of this, and all the other islands under their dominion; and may the godlike plan for the liberation and happiness of the African, be speedily imitated by those governments in Europe who have not had sufficient virtue to set the example.*

* In this account of the French West-India islands it will no doubt be remarked, that we have taken no notice of the conquest of some of them by Great-Britain during the present war. The very great probability that they will soon acknowledge their former dependency on France, and perhaps join in extending her victories over some of the British islands, must be our excuse; but if this is not deemed sufficient, we have only to remark, that the common practice of surrendering, as the price of peace, what has been purchased during a war by a torrent of human blood, render it impossible to say what will, in a few months, belong to England or France.

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DUTCH WEST-INDIES.

ST. EUSTATIUS,

SITUATED in $17^{\circ} 29'$ north latitude, and $63^{\circ} 10'$ west longitude, and three leagues north-west of St. Christopher's, is 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 have made it turn to very good account; and it is said to contain five thousand whites, and fifteen thousand negroes. The sides of the mountains are laid out in very pretty settlements, but they have neither springs or rivers. They raise here sugar and tobacco; and this island, as well as Curassou, is engaged in the Spanish contraband trade, for which, however, it is not so well situated; and it has drawn the same advantage from its constant neutrality. 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, surrendered at discretion, on the 17th of February, 1781. The private property of the inhabitants was confiscated, with a degree of rigour very uncommon among civilized nations, and very inconsistent with the humanity and generosity by which the English nation used to be characterised. The reason assigned was, that the inhabitants of St. Eustatius had assisted the United States 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 Bouille, though their force consisted of only three frigates, some small craft, and about five hundred men.

CURASSOU.

CURASSOU.

This island is situated in twelve degrees north latitude, nine or ten leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is thirty miles long, and ten 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 the island is not only barren, and dependent on 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 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 at this island for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spanish coasts for trade, which they force with a strong hand, it being very difficult for the Spanish 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 cloth, laces, silks, ribands, iron utensils, naval and military stores, brandy, the spices of the Moluccas, and the calicoes of India.

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dia, white and painted. Hither the Dutch West-India, which is also their 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, and every thing that is grown unfashionable and unsaleable in Europe, go off here extremely well; every thing being sufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and silver, coined or in bars, cocoa, vanilla, jesuits bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

The trade of Curassou, even in times of peace, is said to be annually worth to the Dutch no less than five hundred thousand pounds; but in 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 to destroy one another. 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 are brought from the continent of North-America, or 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 licenses; 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 island of Saba, situated at no great distance from St. Eustatius, is small and hardly deserves to be mentioned.

DANISH WEST-INDIES.

ST. THOMAS.

AN inconsiderable member of the Caribbees, situated in sixty-four degrees west longitude, and eighteen degrees north latitude, about fifteen miles in circumference, and has a safe and commodious harbour.

ST. 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, as well as this, has been so greatly improved, that it is said to produce upwards of three thousand hogheads of sugar, of one thousand weight each, and other of the West-India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for sale; and a great many vessels trade from hence along the Spanish main, and return with money in specie or bars, and valuable merchandise. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect desert a few years since, it is beginning to settle fast; several persons from the English islands, some of them of great wealth, have gone to settle there, and have received very great encouragement to do so.

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The Dutch and the Danes hardly deserve to be mentioned among the proprietors of America; their possessions there are comparatively nothing. But notwithstanding they appear extremely worthy of the attention of these powers, as the share of the Dutch only is worth to them at least six hundred thousand pounds a year.

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HISTORY OF AMERICAN QUADRUPEDS.

IN a former part of this work * we have had occasion to offer some observations on the animals of America; by that account, for which we are indebted to the Abbé Clavigero, M. Buffon, and the ingenious Mr. Jefferson, it appears, that the continent of America contains nearly one-half of the known species of quadrupeds, some of them common to North-America, and to the European and Asiatic parts of the eastern continent, and others peculiar to America: of these the greater part have not been accurately examined: it however appears, that those common to both continents are such as may be supposed to have migrated from one to the other. Comparing individuals of the same species inhabiting the different continents, some are found perfectly similar; between others there is often found some trivial difference in size, colour, or other circumstances; in some instances the European animal is larger than the American, in others the reverse is true. A similar variety is often found among the same species in different parts of the same continent; this evidently arises from the temperature of the climate, quantity of food furnished in the parts they inhabit, and the degree of safety and quiet possessed; the latter effect is evident on those animals hunted for their flesh or fur, such as the moose deer, beaver, &c. which have gradually diminished in their size wherever they have thus been disturbed; but as we have neither a complete description nor complete catalogue extant, we are not warranted in making many observations. It is very probable, that many of the American quadrupeds are still utterly unknown, and others known only by common report from hunters and others, and the information, therefore, to be received with caution; from this latter cause has sprung that multiplication and misapplication of names, which has produced numberless contradictions in the different writers on

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this subject. Our account will be little more than a catalogue, with a few remarks on those in particular which constitute that important branch of commerce, the fur trade, or are in other respects peculiarly useful or curious.

The Lama.—The lama is the camel of Peru and Chili; and, before the conquest of those countries by the Spaniards, was the only beast of burden known to the Indians; its disposition is mild, gentle, and tractable.

Before the introduction of mules, these animals were used by the natives to plough the land, and now serve to carry burdens. They march slowly, and seldom accomplish journies of more than four or five leagues a day; but what they want in speed is made up by perseverance and industry. They travel long journies in countries impassable to most other animals, are very sure-footed, and are much employed in transporting the rich ores, dug out of the mines of Potosi, over the rugged hills and narrow paths of the Andes. They lie down to be loaded, and, when weary, no blows can excite them to quicken their pace. They neither defend themselves with their feet nor their teeth; when angry, they have no other method of revenging injuries but by spitting; they can throw out their saliva to the distance of ten paces; and if it fall on the skin, it raises an itching, accompanied with a slight inflammation. Their flesh is eaten, and said to be as good as mutton; and of the hair of the wild sort the Indians make cloth.

Like the camel, they have the faculty of abtaining long from water, and, like that animal, their food is coarse and trifling; they are neither allowed corn nor hay, green herbage, of which they eat very moderately, being sufficient for their nourishment.

The wild lamas, called guanacos, are stronger and more active than the domestic kind; they live in herds, and inhabit the highest regions of the Cordelieres, and they run with great swiftness in places of difficult access, where dogs cannot easily follow them.

The lama resembles the camel in the form of its body, but is without the dorsal hunch; its head is small and well shaped, its neck long, and very protuberant near its junction with the body; in its domestic state its hair is short and smooth, when wild it is coarse and long, of a yellowish colour; a black line runs along the top of the back, from the head to the tail. The tamed ones vary in colour; some of them are white, others black, others of a mixed colour—white, grey and russet, dispersed in spots: its tail is short, its
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ears are four inches long, its feet are cloven like those of the ox, and are armed behind with a spur, by which the animal is enabled to support itself on rugged and difficult ground. The height of the lama is about four feet; and its length, from the neck to the tail, six feet.

Tapiir.—The tapiir is the hippopotamus of the new world, and has by some authors been mistaken for that animal; it inhabits the woods and rivers on the eastern side of South-America, from the isthmus of Darien to the river of the Amazons. It is a solitary animal, sleeps during the day, and goes out in the night in search of food; lives on grass, sugar-canes and fruits. If disturbed it takes to the water, swims with great ease, or plunges to the bottom, and, like the hippopotamus, walks there as on dry ground.

It is about the size of a small cow, its nose is long and slender, and extends far beyond the lower jaw, forming a kind of proboscis, which it can contract or extend at pleasure; each jaw is furnished with ten cutting teeth, and as many grinders; its ears are small and erect; its body formed like that of a hog; its back arched; legs short; and hoofs, of which it has four upon each foot, small, black and hollow; its tail is very small; its hair short, and of a dusky brown colour. It is mild and inoffensive, avoids all hostilities with other animals, and flies from every appearance of danger. Its skin, of which the Indians make bucklers, is very thick; and when dried, is so hard as to resist the impression of an arrow. The natives eat its flesh, which is said to be very good.

ANIMALS OF THE OX KIND.

Of this genus, different writers have given an account of three distinct species in America besides the common domesticated animal, viz. the BUFFALO, the MUSK, and the BISON; though it is doubtful whether the former of these is any other than the bison, and whether the variation between the neat cattle and the bison is any thing more than the effect of domestication; we shall, however, describe each of them.

Buffalo.—Though there is the most striking resemblance between this animal and the common ox, both in regard to form and nature, their habits and propensities being nearly similar, are both equally submissive to the yoke, and may be employed in the same domestic services; yet it is certain, from experience, that no two animals can, in reality, be more distinct: the cow refuses to breed with the buffalo,

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while it is known to propagate with the bison, to which it bears, in point of form, a much more distant similitude.

Mr. Umphreville, who states this animal to be a native of Hudson's bay, gives the following account of the manner in which the Indians take it: "The Indians have various ways of killing the buffalo; one of which is by cautiously approaching them when feeding. The hunter, upon this occasion, lies on his belly, and will sometimes fire his gun forty or fifty times without raising the herd. They also pursue them on horseback, and shoot them with arrows and guns. But the means by which the greatest numbers are taken is by making a pound, which is constructed in the following manner:—"They are either of a circular or square form, and differ according to the manner of the nation by whom they are made. The square ones are composed of trees laid on one another, to the height of about five feet, and about fifty on each side of the square. On that side at which the animals are intended to enter a quantity of earth is laid, to the height of the construction, so as to form a hill of an easy ascent of about twenty feet. This done, a number of branches of trees are placed, from each side of the front, in a strait line from the raised hill, for about one hundred feet in length, continually increasing in width, so that though the inward ends of these lines of branches are no more than fifty feet asunder, the exterior end will exceed two hundred feet. After this, a number of poles, nearly fifteen feet long each, are placed at about twelve feet distance from each other, with a piece of buffalo dung on the top, and in a strait line from the boughs above mentioned: At the foot of each pole a man lies concealed in a buffalo skin, to keep the animals in a strait direction to the pound. These poles are placed alike on each side, always increasing in breadth from one side to the other, and decreasing in the same proportion as the animals approach the pound. Every preparation being now made, three or four men set off on foot to find a herd of cows, for the bulls they think not worth their trouble; these they drive easily along, till they arrive within the vicinity of the pound, when one man is dispatched to give notice to the other Indians, who immediately assemble on horseback on each side the herd, keeping a proper distance, for fear of frightening the animals. By this means they are conducted within the exterior line of poles. It frequently happens that they will endeavour to go out; to prevent which, the men who are placed at the foot of each pole shake their skins, which drives the herd to the opposite side, where the others

others do the same; so that at last they arrive at the pound, and fall in headlong one upon another, some breaking their necks, backs, &c. And now the confusion becomes so great within, that though the height of the building shall not exceed five feet, none will make their escape. To elucidate this description of the buffalo pound, we have annexed a representation.

Musk.—The musk bull inhabits the interior parts of North-America, on the west side of Hudson's bay, between Churchill and Seal rivers. They are very numerous in those parts, and live in herds of twenty or thirty. The Indians eat their flesh, and make coverings of their skins. They are brought down in sledges to supply the forts during the winter. Notwithstanding the flesh is said to have a strong flavour of musk, it is reckoned very good and wholesome.

It is somewhat lower than a deer, but more bulky; its legs are short, and it has a small hump on its shoulder; its hair is of a dusky red colour, very fine, and so long as to reach to the ground: beneath the hair its body is covered with wool of an ash colour, which is exquisitely fine, and might be converted into various articles of useful manufacture—Mr. Jeremie says, that stockings made of it are finer than silk; its tail is only three inches long, and is covered with long hairs, of which the Esquimaux Indians make caps, which are so contrived, that the long hair, falling round their faces, defends them from the bites of the musquitoes. Its horns are close at the base, and bend downwards, turning out at the points; they are two feet long, and two feet round at the base; some of them will weigh sixty pounds.

These animals delight chiefly in rocky and mountainous countries; they run nimbly, and are very active in climbing steep ascents.

Bison.—This animal, often called, though improperly, the buffalo, is by some supposed to be the same species as the common domesticated animal. Compared with the neat cattle, however, the bison is considerably larger, especially about the fore parts of his body. On his shoulders arises a large fleshy or grizzly substance, which extends along the back. The hair on his head, neck and shoulders, is long and woolly, and all of it is fit to be spun or wrought into hats. Calves from the domestic cow and wild bull are sometimes raised; but when they grow up, they become so wild that no common fence will confine them.

These animals were once exceedingly numerous in the western parts of Virginia and Pennsylvania; and so late as the year 1766,

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herds of four hundred were frequently seen in Kentucky, and from thence to the Mississippi: they are likewise common in some parts of Hudson's bay.

ANIMALS OF THE DEER KIND.

Of this genus the American forests abound with almost all the varieties known, and in the greatest plenty; to elucidate this fact, we have only to consider the vast quantities of their skins annually imported into Europe: it will, however, be unnecessary to describe the varieties of the different species; we shall, therefore, only notice a few of the most particular.

Great Stag, or round horned Elk.—Of this animal there never has yet been a good description; the figure we have given of it in the preceding plate is from a representation professed to be taken from a living one brought from the interior of North-America: it appears to have been drawn at the time it had shed its horns, and at about five years old; it is however asserted, that it does not attain its full growth under twenty years. The description given of the above is as follows:

At the age of five years, the length of this creature was nine feet, from the end of the muzzle to the insertion of the tail, the head and neck being extended in a line with the body; its height at the shoulder was four feet six inches; length of the head one foot six inches; breadth over the forehead seven inches; length of the fore legs two feet five inches; length of the neck two feet six; its ears nine inches; and tail three. Its horns, which it had just shed, are not palmated like those of the moose; they are large, and, when full grown, measure above six feet from tip to tip. The antlers are round and pointed at the ends, the lowermost antler forms a curve downward over each eye, to which it appears a defence. Its hair was long, of a dark dun colour on the back and sides; on the head and legs dark brown; its eyes full and lively; and below each eye there is a deep slit, about two inches in length, the use of which we are unable to discover.

It was very lively and active, of great strength of body and limbs; its hoofs short, and like those of a calf; the division between them is less than in those of the rein-deer, and, when the animal is in motion, they do not make a rattling noise: it has no mane, but the hair under its neck is longer than that on any other part of the body."

Moose.—Of these there are two kinds, the black and the grey. The black are said to have been from eight to twelve feet high; at present they are very rarely seen. The grey moose are generally as tall as a horse, and some are much taller; both have spreading palmated horns, weighing from thirty to forty pounds; these are shed annually, in the month of February. They never run, but trot with amazing speed. In summer they feed on wild grasses, and the leaves of the most mucilaginous shrubs. In winter they form herds; and when the snow falls, by moving constantly in a small circle, they tread the snow hard, and form what is called a pen. While the snow is deep, and will not bear them, they are confined within this pen, and eat all the bark and twigs within their reach. They are considered as of the same species with the elk of the eastern continent. They are found in New-England, Canada, Hudson's bay, Nova-Scotia, and on the northern parts of the Ohio.

Caribou, or Rein Deer.—This animal is distinguished by its branching palmated horns, with brow antlers. From the tendons of this animal, as well as of the moose, the aboriginal natives made very tolerable thread. It is found in the district of Maine, and in the neighbourhood of Hudson's bay, where they are in great herds. Columns of many thousands annually pass from north to south in the months of March and April. In that season the musquitoes are very troublesome, and oblige them to quit the woods, and seek refreshment on the shore and open country. Great numbers of beasts of prey follow the herds. The wolves single out the stragglers, detach them from the flock, and hunt them down: the foxes attend at a distance, to pick up the offals left by the former. In autumn the deer, with the fawns bred during the summer, remigrate northward.

Stag, or Red Deer.—This is the most beautiful animal of the deer kind. The elegance of his form, the lightness of his motions, the flexibility of his limbs, his bold, branching horns, which are annually renewed, his grandeur, strength and swiftness, give him a decided pre-eminence over every other inhabitant of the forest.

The age of the stag is known by its horns: the first year exhibits only a short protuberance, which is covered with a hairy skin; the next year the horns are straight and single; the third year produces two antlers, the fourth three, the fifth four; and, when arrived at the sixth year, the antlers amount to six or seven on each side, but the number is not always certain.

Of this species America furnishes several varieties, one of which, found on the borders of the Ohio river, is very large, and commonly considered as a species of the elk.

Fallow Deer.—The principal difference between the stag and the fallow deer seems to be in their size and in the form of their horns, the latter being much smaller than the former, and its horns, instead of being round, like those of the stag, are broad, palmated at the ends, and better garnished with antlers: the tail is also much longer than that of the stag, and its hair is brighter; in other respects they nearly resemble each other.

The horns of the fallow deer are shed annually, like those of the stag, but they fall off later, and are renewed nearly at the same time.

They associate in herds, which sometimes divide into two parties, and maintain obstinate battles for the possession of some favourite part of the park: each party has its leader, which is always the oldest and strongest of the flock: they attack in regular order of battle; they fight with courage, and mutually support each other; they retire, they rally, and seldom give up after one defeat: the combat is frequently renewed for several days together; till, after several defeats, the weaker party is obliged to give way, and leave the conquerors in possession of the object of their contention.

In the United States these animals are larger than in Europe, of a different colour, and supposed by some to be a different species: they are found in plenty from Canada over all parts of North-America to Mexico.

Roe.—The roe is the smallest of all the deer kind, being only three feet four inches long, and somewhat more than two feet in height: the horns are from eight to nine inches long, upright, round, and divided into three branches: the body is covered with long hair; the lower part of each hair is ash colour, near the end is a narrow bar of black, and the point is yellow; the hairs on the face are black, tipped with ash colour; the ears are long, their insides of a pale yellow, and covered with long hair; the chest, belly, legs, and inside of the thighs, are of a yellowish white; the rump is of a pure white, and the tail very short.

The form of the roebuck is elegant, and its motions light and easy. It bounds seemingly without effort, and runs with great swiftness. When hunted, it endeavours to elude its pursuers by the most subtle artifices; it repeatedly returns upon its former steps, till, by various windings, it has entirely confounded the scent. The cunning

ning animal then, by a sudden spring, bounds to one side; and, lying close down upon its belly, permits the hounds to pass by, without offering to stir.

They do not keep together in herds, like other deer, but live in separate families: the sire, the dam, and the young ones, associate together, and seldom mix with others.

In America the roe deer is more common than in Europe, and in Louisiana it is much larger.

The description of the two following animals are taken from Umphreville's History of Hudson's Bay, and are given in his own words:

"*Jumping Deer*.—This animal, though not half the size of the red deer, is not the smallest of the species. The one under description receives its name from the singular manner of its course; this is by a continual succession of jumps, which they perform with amazing celerity, springing at the distance of fifteen or sixteen feet at a jump. It is a small, clean-made animal, exceeding lively and gay, and is of a brown colour intermixed with grey hairs; its food consists of grass, of the fallen leaves of the poplar, the young branches of different kinds of trees, and the moss adhering to the pines. The horns are about two feet long, and resemble those of the red deer, except in size; they fall off in the month of April. This handsome animal ruts in November, brings forth in May, and has one and sometimes two at a birth. It is needless to add that the flesh is delicious. There are two other kinds of the jumping deer, one of which has a very short tail like the rest of the species, whereas the other kind has a tail about a foot long, and covered with red hairs.

"*Apis-to-chik-o-bisib*.—I am not sufficiently conversant in the science of zoology to give this beautiful animal its proper name in the English language; perhaps it has never yet been described in natural history. The French people resident in these parts call it the *Cas Blanc*, from a white mark on its rump. A more beautiful creature is not to be found in this or perhaps any other country; extreme delicacy of make, and exact similarity of proportion, are observable in all its parts; no animal here is so swift of foot, not the fleetest horse or dog can approach it. They herd together in large droves, but sometimes three or four only are found in a place. Its horns are not ossified like the other species, nor are they branched; both male and female have them, but they never fall off; they resemble more the horns of the goat than those of the deer species. They feed

upon most kinds of grafs, and the tender twigs of trees. The whole length may be about four feet and a half; the legs are white and slender; the rest of the body a light red, with a white space on the rump."

ANIMALS OF THE BEAR KIND.

Brown Bear.—There are two principal varieties of the bear, the brown and the black; the former is found in almost every climate, the black bear, chiefly in the forests of the northern regions of Europe and America.

The brown bear is sometimes carnivorous, but its general food is roots, fruits, and vegetables.

It is a savage and solitary animal, lives in desert and unfrequented places, and chuses its den in the most gloomy and retired parts of the forest, or in the most dangerous and inaccessible precipices of unfrequented mountains. In America it is chiefly found to the north-west of Hudson's bay, and the western side of the continent. It is likewise found about Nootka sound, and the Andes of Peru. It retires alone to its den about the end of autumn, at which time it is exceedingly fat, and lives for several weeks in a state of total inactivity and abstinence from food. During this time the female brings forth her young and suckles them; she chuses her retreat for that purpose in the most retired places, apart from the male, lest he should devour them; she makes a warm bed for her young, and attends them with unremitting care during four months, and in all that time scarcely allows herself any nourishment. She brings forth two, and sometimes three young at a time. The cubs are round and shapeless, with pointed muzzles: at first they do not exceed eight inches in length; they are blind during the first four weeks, are of a pale yellow colour, and have scarcely any resemblance of the creature when arrived at maturity. The time of gestation in these animals is about six months, and they bring forth in the beginning of January.

In the spring, the old bears, attended by their young, come out from their retreats, lean, and almost famished by their long confinement. They then ransack every quarter in search of food; they frequently climb trees, and devour the fruit in great quantities, particularly the date plum tree, of which they are exceedingly fond; they ascend these trees with surprising agility, keep themselves firm on the branches with one paw, and with the other collect the fruit.

The

The bear is remarkably fond of honey, which it will encounter great difficulties to obtain, and seeks for with great cunning and avidity.

It enjoys in a superior degree the senses of hearing, smelling, and touching. Its ears are short and rounded, and its eyes small, but lively and penetrating, and defended by a nictating membrane: from the peculiar formation of the internal parts of its nose, its sense of smelling is exceedingly exquisite; the legs and thighs are strong and muscular; it has five toes on each foot, and uses its fore feet as a hand, although the toes are not separated as in most animals that do so; the largest finger is on the outside.

The voice of the bear is a deep and furly kind of growl, which it frequently exerts without the least cause. It is very easily irritated, and at that time its resentment is furious, and often capriciously exerted.

When tamed, it appears mild and obedient to its master, but it is not to be trusted without the utmost caution. It may be taught to walk upright, to dance, to lay hold of a poll with its paws, and perform various tricks. But to give the bear this kind of education, it must be taken when young, and accustomed early to restraint and discipline: an old bear will suffer neither without discovering the most furious resentment; neither the voice nor the menaces of his keeper have any effect upon him; he equally growls at the hand that is held out to feed, as at that which is raised to correct him.

Black Bear.—Of this animal there are two sorts found in the northern States; both are black, but different in their forms and habits. One has short legs, a thick, clumsy body, is generally fat, and is very fond of sweet vegetable food, such as sweet apples, Indian corn in the milk, berries, grapes, honey, &c. Probably he is not carnivorous. As soon as the first snow falls, he betakes himself to his den, which is a hole in a cleft of rocks, a hollow tree, or some such place; here he gradually becomes torpid, and dozes away the winter, sucking his paws, and expending the stock of fat which he had previously acquired.

The other sort is distinguished by the name of the Ranging bear, and seems to be a grade between the preceding and the wolf. His legs are longer, and his body more lean and gaunt. He is carnivorous, frequently destroying calves, sheep, and pigs, and sometimes children. In winter he migrates to the southward. The former ap-

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pears to be the common black bear of Europe; the latter corresponds to the brown bear of the Alps, and is found in all parts of America.

Polar, or Great White Bear.—This animal differs greatly from the common bear in the length of its head and neck, and grows to above twice the size. Some of them are thirteen feet long; its limbs are of great size and strength; its hair long, harsh, and disagreeable to the touch, and of a yellowish white colour; its ears are short and rounded, and its teeth large.

It inhabits only the coldest parts of the globe, and has been found above latitude eighty, as far as navigators have penetrated northwards. These inhospitable regions seem adapted to its fullen nature.

It has been seldom seen farther south than Newfoundland, but abounds chiefly on the shores of Hudson's bay, Greenland, and Spitzbergen, on one side, and those of Nova Zembla on the other. It has been sometimes found in the intermediate countries of Norway and Iceland; but such as have appeared in those parts have always been driven thither upon floating sheets of ice, so that those countries are only acquainted with them by accident.

Wolverene—called in Canada the *Carcajou*, and by hunters, the *Beaver Eater*, seems to be a grade between the bear and the woodchuck. He agrees nearly with the badger of Europe. His length is one foot and a half and upwards; his circumference nearly two feet; his head and ears resemble a woodchuck's; his legs short; feet and paws large and strong; tail about seven inches long, black, and very bushy or shaggy; hair about two inches long, and very coarse; his head fallow grey; back, almost black; breast, spotted with white; belly, dark brown; sides and rump, light reddish brown. This animal lives in holes, cannot run fast, and has a clumsy appearance. He is very mischievous to hunters, following them when setting their traps, destroying their game, particularly the beaver; found as far north as the Copper river; and south, as the country between lake Hudson and lake Superior; and on the western side of North-America, in Canada, and the northern States they are very numerous.

Raccoon—This animal is found in all the temperate parts of North-America. It is found also in the mountains of Jamaica, from whence great numbers of them frequently descend into the plantations, and make great havoc among the sugar canes, of which they are particularly fond. The planters consider these animals as their greatest enemies, as they frequently do infinite mischief in one night's excursion: they have contrived various methods of destroying them, yet still they

they propagate in such numbers, that neither traps nor fire arms can repel them.

The raccoon is somewhat less than the badger: its head resembles that of a fox, but its ears are round and much shorter, and its upper jaw very pointed, and longer than the lower: its eyes, which are large, are surrounded with two broad patches of black; its body is thick and short, covered with long hair, black at the points, and grey underneath; its tail is long and bushy, and marked with alternate rings of black and white; its feet and toes are black.

The raccoon is very active and nimble: its claws, which are extremely sharp, enable it to climb trees with great facility. It moves forward chiefly by bounding, and though it proceeds in an oblique direction, runs very swiftly.

ANIMALS OF THE DOG KIND.

Wolf.—Of this animal, which is of the dog kind, or rather the dog himself in his savage state, there are in America great numbers, and a considerable variety in size and colour. The dimensions of a skin, measured for writing this account, were as follows: length of the body five feet; the fore legs eighteen inches; of the hind legs fifteen inches; of the tail eighteen inches. The circumference of the body was from two feet and a half to three feet. The colour of these animals in the northern States is generally a light dirty fallow, with a list of black along their back. In some, the black is extended down their sides, and sometimes forms waving streaks; others are said to be spotted: some of them, particularly in the southern States, are entirely black, and considerably smaller. The Indians are said to have so far tamed some of these animals before their acquaintance with the Europeans, as to have used them in hunting. They next made use of European dogs, and afterwards of mongrels, the offspring of the wolf and dog, as being more docile than the former, and more eager in the chase than the latter. The appearance of many of the dogs, in the newly-settled parts of the United States, indicate their relation to the wolf. They are found from Hudson's bay to the most southern parts of North-America, and in most of the southern States they are numerous.

Fox.—Of the foxes, there are in America a great variety; such as the Silver Fox,* Red Fox, Grey Fox, Cross Fox, Brant Fox, and

* M. Buffon is of opinion that this is the *Itatis*, or Arctic dog.

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several others. Naturalists have generally supposed that there is more than one species of foxes, but they differ very much in their mode of arranging them. It is highly probable, however, that there is but one species of these animals, as they are found in all their varieties of size, and of shades variously intermixed, in different parts of the United States. Foxes and other animals furnished with fur, in the northern parts, are larger than those of the southern.

ANIMALS OF THE CAT KIND.

Catamount.—This animal, the most dreaded by hunters of any of the inhabitants of the forests, is rarely seen, which is probably the reason why no account of him has ever been published, to our knowledge, except what is contained in a letter of Mr. Colinson's to M. de Buffon. The dimensions of one, killed a few years ago, in New-Hampshire, as nearly as could be ascertained by the skin, were as follows: the length of his body, including the head, six feet; circumference of his body two feet and a half; length of his tail three feet, and of his legs about one foot. The colour, along his back, is nearly black; on his sides, a dark reddish brown; his feet black. He seems not calculated for running, but leaps with surprising agility. His favourite food is blood, which, like other animals of the cat kind, he takes from the jugular vessels of cattle, deer, &c. leaving the carcase. Smaller prey he takes to his den; and he has been known to carry off a child. He seems to be allured by fire, which terrifies all other carnivorous animals, and betrays no fear of either man or beast. He is found in the northern and middle States, and most probably in Hudson's bay.

Jaguar.—The Jaguar is the most formidable animal of the new continent, rather larger than the panther, with hair of a bright tawny colour. The top of the back is marked with long stripes of black, the sides beautifully variegated with irregular oblong spots, open in the middle; the tail not so long as that of the ounce, and irregularly marked with large black spots.

It is found in the hottest parts of South-America, is very fierce, and when pressed with hunger, will sometimes venture to seize a man.

The Indians are much afraid of it, and think it prefers them to the white inhabitants, who, perhaps, are better prepared to repel its attacks. In travelling through the deserts of Guiana, they light great fires in the night, of which these animals are much afraid.

They howl dreadfully; their cry, which is expressive of the two monosyllables, *hou, hou*, is somewhat plaintive, grave, and strong, like that of an ox.

The ant eater, though it has no teeth to defend itself with, is the most cruel enemy the jaguar has to encounter. As soon as the jaguar attacks this little animal, it lies down on its back, and with its long claws seizes and suffocates him.

Couguar.--This animal is called by some the *Puma*, or *American Lion*, but differs so much from that noble animal, as not to admit of any comparison. Its head is small, it has no mane, its length, from nose to tail, is five feet three inches, the tail two feet. The predominant colour is a lively red, mixed with black, especially on the back, where it is darkest: its chin, its throat, and all the inferior parts of the body, are whitish: its legs are long, claws white, and the outer claw of the fore feet much longer than the others.

It is found in many parts of North-America, from Canada to Florida: it is also common in Guiana, Brazil, and Mexico.

It is fierce and ravenous in the extreme, and will swim rivers to attack cattle, even in their inclosures. In North-America, its fury seems to be subdued by the rigour of the climate, for it will fly from a dog in company with its master, and take shelter by running up a tree.

It is very destructive to domestic animals, particularly to hogs. It preys also upon the moose and other deer; lies lurking upon the branch of a tree till some of these animals pass underneath, when it drops down upon one of them, and never quits its hold till it has drunk its blood. It will even attack beasts of prey.

The Cougar of Pennsylvania.--This is another species of cougar, found in the temperate climates of North-America, as on the mountains of Carolina, Georgia, Pennsylvania, and the adjacent provinces. It differs much from the cougar above described: his limbs are shorter, his body much longer, and his tail is also three or four inches longer. But in the colour of the hair, and the form of the head and ears, they have a perfect resemblance to each other. The cougar of Pennsylvania, says Mr. Colinson, is an animal remarkable for thinness and length of body, shortness of legs, and length of tail. The length of the body, from the muzzle to the anus, is five feet four inches, and that of the tail is two feet six inches: the fore legs are one foot long, and the hind legs one foot three inches: the height of the body before is one foot nine inches, and one foot ten

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Black Cougar.---This animal differs from the first we have described, chiefly in the colour, which is dusky, sometimes spotted with black, but generally plain. The throat, belly, and insides of the legs, are of a pale ash colour, the upper lip white, covered with long whiskers: above each eye it has very long hairs, and at the corner of the mouth a black spot: its paws are white, and its ears sharp and pointed.

It grows to the size of a heifer of a year old, and has great strength in its limbs.

It inhabits Brasil and Guiana, is a cruel and fierce animal, much dreaded by the Indians; but fortunately the species is not numerous.

Ocelot.---The skin of the male ocelot is extremely beautiful, and most elegantly variegated. Its general colour is that of a bright tawny; a black stripe extends along the top of the back from head to tail; its forehead is spotted with black, as are also its legs; its shoulders, sides, and rump, are beautifully marbled with long stripes of black, forming oval figures, filled in the middle with small black spots; its tail is irregularly marked with large spots, and black at the end. The colours of the female are not so vivid as those of the male, neither is it so beautifully marked.

The ocelot very much resembles the common cat in the form of its body, although it is a great deal larger. Buffon makes its height two feet and a half, and about four feet in length.

It is a native of South-America, inhabits Mexico and Brasil, is very voracious, but timid, and seldom attacks men; it is afraid of dogs, and when pursued, flies to the woods.

It lives chiefly in the mountains, and conceals itself amongst the leaves of trees, from whence it darts upon such animals as come within its reach. It sometimes extends itself along the boughs, as if it were dead, till the monkeys, tempted by their natural curiosity, approach within its reach. It is said to prefer the blood of animals to their flesh.

Margay.---This is another beautiful animal of the spotted tribe, and known in many places by the name of the *Tiger Cat*. The ground colour of the body is tawny; the face is striped with black; the body is marked with stripes and large spots of black; the breast and inside of the legs are white, spotted with black; the tail is long, marked with alternate spots of black, tawny, and grey.

* The margay is smaller than the ocelot, and about the size of the wild cat, which it resembles in disposition and habit, living on small animals, birds, &c.—It is very wild, and cannot easily be brought under subjection.

Its colours vary, though they are generally such as have been described.

It is common in Guiana, Brazil, and various parts of South and North-America.

It is called the *Cayenne Cat*, and is not so frequent in temperate as in warm climates.

Lynx.—This animal differs greatly from every animal of the cat kind we have hitherto described. Its ears are long and erect, tufted at the end with long black hairs, by which this species of animals is peculiarly distinguished: the hair of the body is long and soft, of a red-ash colour, marked with dusky spots, which differ according to the age of the creature; sometimes they are scarcely visible: its legs and feet are very thick and strong; its tail short, and black at the extremity; its eyes are of a pale-yellow colour; and its aspect softer and less ferocious than that of the panther or the ounce. The skin of the male is more spotted than that of the female.

The fur is valuable for its softness and warmth, and is imported in great quantities from America and the north of Europe. In the United States there are three kinds of the lynx, each probably forming a distinct species. The *first* (*Lupus Cervarius*, Linn. 3d edit.) is called by the French and English Americans, *Loup Cervier*.* He is from two and a half to three feet in length; his tail is about five inches. His hair is long, of a light grey colour, forming, in some places, small, irregular, dark shades; the end of his tail is black; his fur is fine and thick. He is the lynx of Siberia and some of the northern parts of Europe. A few may be found in the north-eastern parts of the district of Maine; but in the higher latitudes they are more numerous.

The *second*, (*Catus Cervarius*, Linn.) is called by the French Americans, *Chat Cervier*; and in New England, the wild cat. He is considerably less than the former, or the *Loup Cervier*. He is from two to two feet and a half long; his tail is proportionably shorter, about three inches long, and wants the tuft of black hair on the end of it. His hair is shorter, particularly on his legs and feet; is of a

* Pronounced *Loocervier*.

darker colour, brown, dark fallow and grey, variously intermixed. His ear is said to be of a very different quality; his ears are shorter, and he has very little of the pencil of black hairs on the tips of them, which is so remarkable in the former kind. This animal destroyed many of the cattle of the first settlers of New England.

The *third* species is about the size of a common cat. The colour of the male is a bright brown or bay, with black spots on his legs. His tail is about four inches long, and encircled by eight white rings: the female is of a reddish grey.—Found in the middle and southern States.

To the above list of animals of the cat kind we must add the *Kincajou*.—This animal, Mr. Morse observes, belongs to the family of cats; at least, he very much resembles them. He is about as large as a common cat, and is better formed for agility and speed than for strength. His tail gradually tapers to the end, and is as long as his whole body. His colour is yellow. Between him and the fox there is perpetual war. He hunts in the same manner as do other animals of that class; but being able to suspend himself by twining the end of his tail round the limb of a tree, or the like, he can pursue his prey where other cats cannot; and when he attacks a large animal, his tail enables him to secure his hold till he can open the blood vessels of the neck. In some parts of Canada these animals are very numerous, and make great havoc among the deer, and do not spare even the neat cattle: but we have heard of none in the United States, except a few in the northern parts of New Hampshire.

Beaver.—The beaver is the most industrious of all animals. Its labours seem the result of a social compact, formed for mutual convenience, preservation and support; and as, in all well-regulated societies, a due subordination is necessary for the well-ordering and conducting each individual effort to the advantage of the whole; so, amongst these curious animals, we find that, in forming their habitations, all have their proper part of the work assigned to them, that, by dividing their labours, safety, stability and expedition, may be the general effect. To this purpose, a community of two or three hundred assemble together: an overseer is chosen, whose orders are punctually obeyed; and, by striking the water smartly with his tail, gives the signal where the united force of numbers is necessary to be applied, in order to strengthen or support the fabric; or, at the approach of an enemy, to apprise the society of their danger. As soon as a convenient place is chosen for the erection of their building,

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which is generally a level piece of ground with a small rivulet running through it, they divide into companies: some are employed in cutting down trees of great size, which is done by gnawing them with their teeth: these they lay across the dam with surprising labour and perseverance, or form into piles, which others roll down to the water, where they make holes at the bottom for receiving the ends, and placing them upright, secure them in that position; whilst another party is engaged in collecting twigs, interweaving and twisting them with the piles, and thereby strengthening the work: some collect large quantities of earth, stones, clay and other solid materials, which they dispose of on the upper side of the piles next the stream, forming a mound ten or twelve feet thick at the bottom, tapering gradually upwards, and capable of sustaining a considerable weight of water. The length of the dam, occasioned by this means, is sometimes not less than one hundred feet.—Having completed the mole, their next care is to erect their apartments, which are built on piles: they are of a circular form, and generally consist of two stories, about eight feet high above the water; the first lies below the level of the dam, and is generally full of water; the other above it. The walls are two feet in thickness, neatly plastered with clay on the inside, which is arched like an oven, and at the top resembles a dome.—In each house there are two openings, one towards the water, to which the animal has always access, in case of surprise; the other towards the land, by which it goes out in quest of food.—The number of houses in one of these dams is from ten to twenty-five, some of them large enough to contain a family of twenty or thirty beavers. Each beaver forms its bed of moss; and each family lays in its magazine of winter provision, which consists of bark and boughs of trees: they pile up the latter with great ingenuity and regularity, and draw it out to their apartments as their wants require. They are said to be fondest of the sassafras, ash, and sweet gum. During summer, they feed on leaves, fruits and sometimes crabs or cray-fish; but fish is not their favourite food. Their time of building is early in the summer. In winter, they never go farther than to their provision stores, and, during that season, are very fat.

They breed once a year, and bring forth two or three at a birth.

Beavers are found chiefly in the northern parts of Europe, Asia and America; particularly the latter, from whence many thousands

of their skins are annually brought into Europe. They vary in colour; the most valuable are black with a deep fur; but the general colour is a chestnut brown, more or less dark. Some have been found entirely white, others spotted; but both these kinds are very rare.

The beaver is remarkable for the size and strength of its cutting teeth, which enable it to gnaw down trees of great magnitude with ease. Its ears are short, and almost hid in the fur; its nose blunt, tail broad and flat, nearly of an oval form, and covered with scales; it serves not only as a rudder to direct its motions in the water, but as a most useful instrument for laying on the clay, pressing it into the crevices, and smoothing the outward covering; its fore feet are small, and not unlike those of a rat; the hind feet are large and strong, with membranes between each toe; its length, from nose to tail, is about three feet; the tail is eleven inches long, and three broad.

The castor produced from these animals is found in a liquid state, in bags near the anus, about the size of an egg. When taken off, the matter dries, and is reducible to a powder, which is oily, of a sharp bitter taste, and a strong disagreeable smell. These bags are found indifferently in males and females, and were formerly supposed to be the animal's testicles; which, when pursued, it was said to bite off, and by that means escape with its life.

The Otter.—Although the otter is not considered by naturalists as wholly amphibious, it is nevertheless capable of remaining a considerable time under water, and can pursue and take its prey in that element with great facility.

Its legs are very short, but remarkably strong, broad and muscular; on each foot are five toes, connected by strong membranes, like those of water fowl; its head is broad, of an oval form, and flat on the upper part; the body is long and round, and the tail tapers to a point; the eyes are brilliant, and placed in such a manner, that the animal can see every object that is above it, which gives it a singular aspect, very much resembling an eel or an asp: the ears are short and their orifice narrow.

The colour of the otter is of a deep brown, with two small light spots on each side of the nose, and another under the chin.

This animal makes its nest in some retired spot by the side of a lake or river, under a bank, where it has an easy and secure access to the water, to which it immediately flies upon the least alarm; and,

and, as it swims with great rapidity, generally escapes from its pursuers.

It destroys great quantities of fish, and, in pursuit of its prey, has been observed commonly to swim against the stream.

As soon as the otter has caught a fish, it immediately drags it to the shore, devours a part as far as the vent, and, unless pressed by extreme hunger, always leaves the remainder, and takes to the water in quest of more.

Otters are generally taken in traps placed near their landing places, where they are carefully concealed in the sand. When hunted with dogs, the old ones defend themselves with great obstinacy; they bite severely, and do not readily quit their hold where they have once fastened. An old otter will never give up while it has life, nor make the least complaint though wounded ever so much by the dogs, nor even when transfixed with a spear.

Otters are found in most parts of the world, with no great variation. They are numerous in North-America, and are common in Guiana, frequenting the rivers and marshes of that country. They are sometimes seen in great numbers together, and are so fierce, that it is dangerous to come near them. They live in holes, which they make in the banks of the rivers.

The otters of Cayenne are very large, weighing from ninety to one hundred pounds. They frequent the large rivers of that country; their cry is loud, and may be heard at a great distance; they are of a dark brown colour; their fur is shorter than that of the beaver, and very soft.

Beside these there is an animal called *The Sea Otter*.---Vast numbers of these animals inhabit the coast of Kamtschatka, and the numerous islands contiguous to it, as well as the opposite coasts of America; they are also found in some of the larger rivers of South-America.

Their skins are of great value, and have long formed a considerable article of export from Russia. They dispose of them to the Chinese at the rate of seventy or a hundred rubles each, and receive in return some of their most valuable commodities.

The fur of the sea otter is thick and long, of a beautiful shining black colour, but sometimes of a silvery hue; the legs are thick and short; the toes joined by a web; the hind feet like those of a seal; length, from nose to tail, four feet two inches; tail thirteen,

flat.

flat and pointed at the end: the largest of them weigh from seventy to eighty pounds.

The sea otter is remarkably harmless, and most affectionately fond of its young; it will pine to death for its loss, and die on the very spot where it has been taken away. Before its young can swim, it will carry it in its paws, and support it in the water, laying upon its back. It swims in various positions, on its back, sides, and even in a perpendicular posture, and in the water is very sportive. Two of them are sometimes seen embracing each other. It frequents shallow places abounding with sea weed, and feeds on lobsters, crabs, and other shell fish.

It breeds but once a year, and produces one young at a time, which it suckles and carefully attends almost a year.

The flesh of a young otter is reckoned delicate eating, and not easily distinguished from that of a lamb.

The Weasel is about nine inches in length; his body is remarkably round and slender; his tail long and well furnished with hair; his legs very short, and his toes armed with sharp claws. His hair is short and thick, and of a pale yellowish colour, except about the breast, where it is white. This is a very sprightly animal; notwithstanding the shortness of its legs, it seems to dart rather than to run. He kills and eats rats, striped squirrels, and other small quadrupeds: he likewise kills fowls, sucks their blood, and esteems their eggs a delicacy. He is found at Hudson's bay, Newfoundland, and as far as South Carolina.

Stoat, or Ermine.---It does not differ materially from the weasel in size, form or habits; even his colour is the same in summer, except that the end of his tail is black, and the edges of his ears and toes are white. In winter he is entirely white, except the tip of the tail. He is generally considered as forming a species distinct from the weasel; but Linnæus makes them the same. They are said to be found in the same places as the former, and Mr. Belknap mentions, that a few have been seen in New-Hampshire.

In addition to the preceding, America has another variety of this family, which appears to differ from the weasel in no respect except in its colour, which is perfectly white, both in summer and winter.

Martin.---This animal is called the martin (*Marte*) by M. de Buffon; in England the pine martin, fir martin, yellow-breasted martin, pine weasel, and yellow-breasted weasel; in New-England the fable; and by the Indians Wauppanaugh. He is formed like the

weasel; is generally about sixteen inches long, and is of a fallow colour; but his size, and the shades of his colour, vary in different parts of the country. Some have spots of yellow on the breast, others of white, and others have none. He keeps in forests chiefly on trees, and lives by hunting. He is found in the northern parts of North-America quite to the South sea; his skin is exceeding valuable.

Mink.---The mink is about as large as a martin, and of the same form. The hair on its tail is shorter; its colour is generally black, and its fur coarser; some have a white spot under their throats, others have none. They burrow in the ground, and pursue their prey both in fresh and salt water. Those which frequent the salt water are of a larger size, lighter colour, and have inferior fur. They are found in considerable numbers both in the southern and northern States, and in general wherever the martin is found.

Fisher.---In Canada he is called pekan, and in the American States frequently the black cat, but improperly, as he does not belong to the class of cats. He has a general resemblance to the martin, but is considerably larger, being from twenty to twenty-four inches in length, and twelve in circumference. His tail is a little more than half its length; its hair long and bushy; his fore legs about four inches and a half long, his hinder legs six inches; his ears short and round. His colour is black, except the head, neck and shoulders, which are a dark grey. He lives by hunting, and occasionally pursues his prey in the water. Found in the northern States, Canada, and Hudson's bay. Of each of the animals we have mentioned under this division, there are several varieties which have obtained different names, as the pekan, vison, &c.

Skunk.---This animal is about a foot and a half long, of a moderate height and size. His tail is long and bushy; his hair long and chiefly black; but on his head, neck and back, is found more or less of white, without any regularity or uniformity. He appears to see but indifferently when the sun shines, and therefore in the daytime keeps close to his burrow. As soon as the twilight commences he goes in quest of his food, which is principally beetles and other insects; he is also very fond of eggs and young chickens. His flesh is said to be tolerably good, and his fat is sometimes used as an emollient. But what renders this animal remarkable is, his being furnished with organs for secreting and retaining a liquor, volatile and foetid beyond any thing known, and which he has the power

of emitting to the distance of a rod or more, when necessary for his defence. When this ammunition is expended he is quite harmless.* This volatile fœtor is a powerful antispasmodic. This animal is found in all parts of America from Hudson's bay to Peru.

There are three or four varieties mentioned by M. Buffon under the name of the *Stinking Polecats*, all of which possess this wonderful quality of annoying their enemies from the same quarter.

Some turn their tail to their pursuers, and emit a most horrible stench, which keeps both dogs and men at a considerable distance. Others eject their urine to the distance of several feet, and it is of so virulent a quality, as almost to occasion blindness, if any of it should happen to fall into the eyes. Clothes infected with it retain the smell for many days; no washing can make them sweet, but they must be even buried in fresh soil before they can be thoroughly cleansed. Dogs that are not properly bred turn back as soon as they perceive the smell; those that have been accustomed to it will kill the animal, but are obliged to relieve themselves by thrusting their noses into the ground.

* Concerning the American skunk, Dr. Mitchell, in a letter to Dr. Post, 1788, writes thus: "Not long since I had an opportunity to dissect the American skunk, (*Ferra putorius*, Linn.) The most remarkable appearances, on examination, were the following: the skin was exceedingly lax, inasmuch that when pulled away from the subjacent membrane, the hairs, in many places drawn through it, were left rooted in the fat; the urine possessed no more fœtor than is common to that excrementitious fluid in many other animals: but the peculiar odoriferous substance, which the creature emits when pursued, proceeds from two sacks, each capable of containing about half an ounce, situated at the extremity of the *intestinum rectum*, and surrounded by large and strong circular muscles, which contracting by a voluntary exertion, force out the thick yellowish liquor through two ducts, opening near the verge of the anus. As the animal is neither swift nor strong, this seems to have been given it as a defence against its enemies, on whose approach the volatile matter is discharged with considerable force, and to no small distance. From its analogy to musk, ambergris, civet and castor, I am strongly inclined to think it might be with advantage ranked among the antispasmodics of the *Materia Medica*, or classed with drugs in the shops of perfumers.

"A similar substance, although not so abundant and fragrant, I have likewise found in bags of the same kind, when I dissected the common weasel, (*Mustela vulpina*) which, in all probability, will be found to possess virtues not much differing from the spicinar, or liquor of the viverra, or the American skunk.

"The musquash, (*Castor muscatus*) which I have also dissected, has no sacks of this kind, and therefore I am forcibly led to suspect that its odour resides in the cuticular exhalans and perspired matter."

The *Stifling*, or *Squash*, which is the second variety, is nearly of the same size with the skunk; its hair is long and of a deep brown colour; it lives in holes and clefts of rocks, where the female brings forth her young: it is a native of Mexico, and feeds on beetles, worms and small birds: it destroys poultry, of which it only eats the brains. When afraid or irritated it voids the same offensive kind of odour, which no creature dare venture to approach. Professor Kalm was in danger of being suffocated by one that was pursued into a house where he slept; and it affected the cattle so much, that they bellowed through pain. Another, which was killed by a maid-servant in a cellar, so affected her with its stench, that she lay ill for several days: all the provisions that were in the places were so tainted with the smell, as to be utterly unfit for use. This is the coaste of Buffon, of which we have given the figure.

Another variety is called the *Concate*; it is somewhat smaller, and differs chiefly from the squash in being marked with five parallel white lines, which run along its back and sides from head to tail.

It is a native of North-America. When attacked it bristles up its hair, throws itself into a round form, and emits an odour which no creature can support.

The last of this pestiferous family which we shall mention is the *Zorilla*.—This animal is a native of New-Spain, where it is called the mariputa: it is found on the banks of the river Oronoque; and, although extremely beautiful, is at the same time the most offensive of all creatures. Its body is beautifully marked with white stripes upon a black ground, running from the head to the middle of the back; from whence they are crossed with other white bands, which cover the lower part of the back and flanks: its tail is long and bushy, black as far as the middle, and white to its extremity: it is an active and mischievous little animal; its stench is said to extend to a considerable distance, and is so powerful as to overcome even the panther of America, which is one of its greatest enemies.

Notwithstanding this offensive quality in these animals, they are frequently tamed, and will follow their master. They do not emit their odour, unless when beaten or irritated. They are frequently killed by the native Indians, who immediately cut away the noxious glands, thereby preventing the flesh, which is good eating, from being infected. Its taste is said nearly to resemble the flavour of a young pig. The savage Indians make purses of their skins.

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The *Coati*, or *Brazilian Weasel*.---This animal has some resemblance to the bear, in the length of its hind legs, in the form of its feet, in the bushiness of its hair, and in the structure of its paws. It is small; its tail is long, and variegated with different colours; its upper jaw is much longer than the lower, and very pliant; its ears are rounded: its hair is smooth, soft and glossy, of a bright bay colour; and its breast is whitish.

It inhabits Brasil and Guiana, runs up trees very nimbly, eats like a dog, and holds its food between its fore legs like a bear.

The *Coati* stands with ease on its hind feet. It is said to gnaw its own tail, which it generally carries erect, and sweeps it about from side to side.

ANIMALS OF THE BADGER KIND.

The common European badger is the only one found in America; for the animal of this genus, described as a different species, and called the American badger, is nothing more than a variation of the former. It is found in the neighbourhood of Hudson's bay and Canada, as likewise in some of the United States, but does not appear to be numerous.

ANIMALS OF THE OPOSSUM KIND.

Virginian Opossum.---This animal has a long sharp-pointed nose; large, round, naked, and very thin ears, black, edged with pure white, small, black, lively eyes; long stiff hairs each side the nose, and behind the eyes; face covered with short soft white hairs; space round the eyes dusky; neck very short, its sides of a dirty yellow; hind part of the neck and the back covered with hair above two inches long, soft but uneven, the bottoms of a yellowish white, middle part black, ends whitish; sides covered with dirty and dusky hairs, belly with soft, woolly, dirty white hair; legs and thighs black; feet dusky; claws white; base of the tail clothed with long hairs like those on the back; rest of the tail covered with small scales, the half next the body black, the rest white; it has a disagreeable appearance, looking like the body of a snake, and has the same prehensile quality as that of some monkeys; body round and very thick; legs short; on the lower part of the belly of the female is a large pouch, in which the teats are lodged, and where the young shelter as soon as they are born.

The usual length of the animal is, from the tip of the nose to the base of the tail, about twenty inches; of the tail twelve inches.

Inhabits

Inhabits Virginia, Louisiana, Mexico, Brazil and Peru; is very destructive to poultry, and sucks the blood without eating the flesh; feeds also on roots and wild fruits; is very active in climbing trees, will hang suspended from the branches by its tail, and, by swinging its body, sling itself among the boughs of the neighbouring trees; continues frequently hanging with its head downwards; hunts eagerly after birds and their nests; walks very slow; when pursued and overtaken will feign itself dead; not easily killed, being as tenacious of life as a cat; when the female is about to bring forth, she makes a thick nest of dry grass in some close bush at the foot of a tree, and brings four, five or six young at a time.

As soon as the young are brought forth they take shelter in the pouch, or false belly, and fasten so closely to the teats, as not to be separated without difficulty; they are blind, naked, and very small when new-born, and resemble *fœtuses*; it is therefore necessary that they should continue there till they attain a perfect shape, strength, sight and hair, and are prepared to undergo what may be called a second birth; after which they run into this pouch as into an asylum in time of danger, and the parent carries them about with her. During the time of this second gestation, the female shews an excessive attachment to her young, and will suffer any torture rather than permit this receptacle to be opened, for she has power of opening or closing it by the assistance of some very strong muscles.

The flesh of the old animals is very good, like that of a sucking pig; the hair is dyed by the Indian women, and wove into garters and girdles; the skin is very foetid.

Murine Opposum.—This animal has long broad ears, rounded at the end, thin and naked; eyes encompassed with black; face, head, and upper part of the body, of a tawny colour; the belly yellowish white; the feet covered with short whitish hair; toes formed like those of the Virginian; tail slender, covered with minute scales, from the tip to within two inches of the base, which are clothed with hair. Length, from nose to tail, about eight inches; tail of the same length: the female wants the false belly of the former, but, on the lower part, the skin forms on each side a fold, between which the teats are lodged.

This species varies in colour. It inhabits the hot parts of South-America, agrees with the others in its food, manners, and the prehensile powers of its tail: it brings from ten to fourteen young at a

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time; at least, in some species, there are that number of teats: the young affix themselves to the teats as soon as they are born, and remain attached, like so many inanimate things, till they attain growth and vigour, to shift a little for themselves.

Mexican Opposum has large, angular, naked and transparent ears; nose thicker than that of the former kind; whiskers very large; a flight border of black surrounds the eyes; face of a dirty white, with a dark line running down the middle; the hairs on the head, and upper part of the body, ash-coloured at the roots, of a deep tawny brown at the tips; legs dusky; claws white; belly dull cinereous; tail long and pretty thick, varied with brown and yellow, is hairy near an inch from its origin, the rest naked; length, from nose to tail, about nine inches; the tail the length of the body and head.

Inhabits the mountains of Mexico, lives in trees, where it brings forth its young; when in any fright they embrace their parent closely; the tail is prehensile, and serves instead of a hand.

Cayenne Opposum.—It has a long slender face; ears erect, pointed and short; the coat woolly, mixed with very coarse hairs, three inches long, of a dirty white from the roots to the middle, from thence to the ends of a deep brown; sides and belly of a pale yellow; legs of a dusky brown; thumb on each foot distinct; on the toes of the fore feet and thumb of the hind are nails, on the toes of the hind feet crooked claws; tail very long, taper, naked and scaly. Length seventeen French inches; of the tail fifteen and a half: the subject measured was young.

Inhabits Cayenne, very active in climbing trees, on which it lives the whole day: in marshy places feeds on crabs, which, when it cannot draw out of their holes with its feet, hooks them by means of its long tail; if the crab pinches its tail the animal sets up a loud cry, which may be heard afar; its common voice is a grunt like a young pig: it is well furnished with teeth, and will defend itself stoutly against dogs; brings forth four or five young, which it secures in some hollow tree. The natives eat these animals, and say their flesh resembles a hare. They are easily tamed, and will then refuse no kind of food.

PECCARY OR MEXICAN HOG.

This animal, called the Mexican hog, inhabits the hottest parts of South-America, where the species is very numerous; herds consisting

sisting of two or three hundred are sometimes to be seen together. It is very fierce, and will fight stoutly with beasts of prey when attacked by them. The jaguar is its mortal enemy, and frequently loses its life in engaging a number of these animals, for they assist each other whenever attacked.

They live chiefly in mountainous places, and are not fond of wallowing in the mire like the common hog. They feed on fruits, roots and seeds; they likewise eat serpents, toads and lizards, and are very dexterous in first taking off the skin with their fore feet and teeth.

It is somewhat smaller than the common hog; its body is covered with long bristles, which, when the creature is irritated, rise up like the prickles of a hedgehog, and are nearly as strong, they are of a dusky colour, with alternate rings of white; across the shoulders to the breast there is a band of white; its head is short and thick; it has two tusks in each jaw; its ears are small and erect; and instead of a tail it has a small fleshy protuberance, which does not cover its posteriors. It differs most essentially from the hog, in having a small orifice on the lower part of the back, from whence a thin watry humour, of a most disagreeable smell, flows very copiously.

Like the common hog, the peccary is very prolific. The young ones, if taken at first, are easily tamed, and soon lose all their natural ferocity, but can never be brought to discover any signs of attachment to those that feed them.

Their flesh is drier and leaner than that of our hog, but is by no means disagreeable, and may be greatly improved by castration.

Although the European hog is common in America, and in many parts has become wild, the peccary has never been known to breed with it. They frequently go together, and feed in the same woods; but hitherto no intermediate breed has been known to arise from their intercourse.

ANIMALS OF THE CAVY KIND.

Guinea-Pig, or Restless Cavy.—This little animal is a native of Brazil, but lives and propagates in temperate and even in cold climates, when protected from the inclemency of the seasons. Great numbers are kept in a domestic state, and therefore we conceive any further observations are unnecessary.

Cabiai.

Fasai.—This is a native of South-America, and lives on the banks of great rivers, such as the Oronoque, Amazons, and Rio de la Plata; swims and dives remarkably well, and is very dexterous in catching fish, upon which it chiefly subsists: it likewise eats grain, fruits and sugar-canes; feeds mostly in the night, and commits great ravages in the gardens. They generally keep in large herds, and make a noise not much unlike the braying of an ass.

Its flesh is fat and tender, but, like that of the otter, has an oily and fishy taste. It is about the size of a small hog, and, by some naturalists, has been classed with that animal.

Its fore hoofs are divided into four, the hind ones into three; its head is large and thick, and on the nose there are long whiskers; its ears are small and rounded, and its eyes large and black; there are two large cutting-teeth and eight grinders in each jaw, and each of these grinders forms on its surface what appears to be three teeth, flat at their ends; the legs are short, the toes long, and connected at the bottom with a small web; the end of each toe is guarded by a small hoof; it has no tail; the hair on the body is short, rough, and of a brown colour.

It is a gentle animal, easily tamed, and will follow those who feed it and treat it kindly.

As it runs badly, on account of the peculiar construction of its feet, its safety consists not in flight; Nature has provided it with other means of preservation; when in danger it plunges into the water and dives to a great distance.

Paca, or Spotted Cavy.—This animal is about the size of a hare; but its body is much thicker, plumper and fatter. The colour of the hair on the back is dark brown or liver-coloured; it is lighter on the sides, which are beautifully marked with lines of white spots, running in parallel directions from its throat to its rump; those on the upper part of the body are perfectly distinct; the belly is white. Its head is large; its ears short and naked; its eyes full and placed high in its head near the ears; in the lower part of each jaw, immediately under the eye, it has a remarkably deep slit or furrow, which seems like the termination of the jaw, and has the appearance of an opening of the mouth; its upper jaw projects beyond the under; it has two strong yellow cutting-teeth in each jaw; its mouth is small, and its upper lip is divided; it has long whiskers on its lips, and on each side of its head under the ears; its legs are short; it has four toes on the fore feet, and three on the hind; it has no

tail. It is a native of South-America, and lives on the banks of rivers in warm and moist places. It digs holes in the ground, secretes itself during the day, and goes out at night in quest of food.

It is a cleanly animal, and will not bear the smallest degree of dirtiness in its apartment. When pursued it takes to the water, and escapes by diving. If attacked by dogs it makes a vigorous defence. Its flesh is esteemed a great delicacy by the natives of Brasil.

We think this animal might be easily naturalised in this country, and added to our stock of useful animals. It is not much afraid of cold, and being accustomed to burrow, it would by that means defend itself against the rigours of our winter.

There are several varieties of them, some of which weigh from fourteen to twenty, and even thirty pounds.

Agouti, or Long-nosed Cavy.—This animal is about the size of a hare; its nose is long, upper lip divided, skin sleek and shining, of a brown colour mixed with red, tail short, legs slender and almost naked; has four toes on the fore feet and three on the hind; grunts like a pig, sits on its hind legs, and feeds itself with its paws; and when satiated with food it conceals the remainder. It eats fruits, roots, nuts, and almost every kind of vegetable; is hunted with dogs, runs fast, and its motions are like those of a hare. Its flesh, which resembles that of a rabbit, is eaten by the inhabitants of South-America.

Great numbers of them are found in Guiana and Brasil. They live in woods, hedges and hollow trees.

The female brings forth at all times of the year, and produces three, four, and sometimes five at a time.

Akoutbi.—This seems to be a variety of the agouti, and, though somewhat less, is nearly of the same form, but its tail is longer. It inhabits the same countries, is of an olive colour; its flesh is white, delicate, and has the flavour of a young rabbit; is much esteemed by the natives, who hunt it with dogs, and reckon it among the finest game of South-America.

Rock Cavy.—This is likewise found in Brasil, is about twelve inches in length; the colour of the upper part of its body resembles that of the hare; its belly is white; the upper lip divided; the ears short and rounded like those of a rat, and has no tail. It moves like the hare, its fore legs being shorter than the hind. It has four toes on the fore feet, and only three on the hind. Its flesh

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is like that of the rabbit, and its manner of living is also very similar.

ANIMALS OF THE HARE KIND.

American Hare.—This animal is not much more than half the size of the European hare; its ears are tipped with grey, the neck and body mixed with cinereous, rust colour, and black; the upper part of the tail black and the lower part white; the legs are of a pale ferruginous, and the belly white. This animal is found in all parts of North-America, South of New-Jersey: it retains its colour all the year; but to the northward, in New-England, Canada and Hudson's bay, it changes at the approach of winter; its summer coat for one, long, soft and silvery, the edges of its ears only preserving their colour. Its flesh is good, and is exceeding useful to those who winter at Hudson's bay, where they are taken in abundance.

Varying Hare.—This animal in summer is grey, with a slight mixture of black and tawny; tail white, and the feet closely and warmly covered with fur: in winter it changes to a snowy white, except the tips and edges of the ears, which remain black: this change not only takes place in the cold bleak regions of the north, but when kept tame in stove-warmed rooms. They are in America chiefly found about Hudson's bay and Cook's river.

Brazilian Hare.—This animal has very large ears, a white ring round its neck, in every other respect the same as the common hare. It is found in Brazil and Mexico, and is very good for food.

Mr. Morfe mentions another species found in all the United States, which burrows like a rabbit; this he thinks to be peculiar to America. The rabbit, though it thrives well, particularly in South-America, was never found wild in any part of the American continent.

SLOTH.

Of all animals this is the most sluggish and inactive; and, if we were to judge from outward appearance, would seem the most helpless and wretched. All its motions seem to be the effect of the most painful exertion, which hunger alone is capable of exciting.

It lives chiefly in trees; and having ascended one with infinite labour and difficulty, it remains there till it has entirely stripped it of all its verdure, sparing neither fruit, blossom nor leaf; after which it is said to devour even the bark. Being unable to descend, it throws itself on the ground, and continues at the bottom of the tree till hunger again compels it to renew its toils in search of subsistence.

Its motions are accompanied with a most piteous and lamentable cry, which terrifies even beasts of prey, and proves its best defence.

Though slow, aukward, and almost incapable of motion, the sloth is strong, remarkably tenacious of life, and capable of enduring a long abstinence from food. We are told of one that, having fastened itself by its feet to a pole, remained in that situation forty days without the least sustenance. The strength in its legs and feet is so great, that, having seized any thing, it is almost impossible to oblige it to quit its hold.

There are two kinds of sloths, which are principally distinguished by the number of their claws: the one called the *ai* is about the size of a fox, and has three long claws on each foot; its legs are clumsy and aukwardly placed; and the fore legs being longer than the hind, add greatly to the difficulty of its progressive motion: its whole body is covered with a rough coat of long hair, of a lightish-brown colour, mixed with white, not unlike that of a badger, and has a black line down the middle of the back; its face is naked, and of a dirty white colour; tail short, eyes small, black and heavy. It is found only in South-America.

The *Unau* has only two claws on each foot; its head is short and round, somewhat like that of a monkey; its ears are short, and it has no tail. It is found in South-America, and also in the island of Ceylon.

The flesh of both kinds is eaten. They have several stomachs, and are said to belong to the tribe of ruminating animals.

ANT-EATERS.

There are several animals distinguished by the common name of ant-eaters, which differ greatly in form. They are divided into three classes, viz. the Great, the Middle, and the Lesser Ant-eater.

The *Great Ant-eater* is nearly four feet in length, exclusive of its tail, which is two and a half. It is remarkable for the great length of its snout, which is of a cylindrical form, and serves as a sheath to its long and slender tongue, which always lies folded double in its mouth, and is the chief instrument by which it finds subsistence.

This creature is a native of Brazil and Guiana, runs slowly, frequently swims over rivers, lives wholly on ants, which it collects by thrusting its tongue into their holes, and having penetrated into every part of the nest, withdraws it into its mouth loaded with prey.

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Its legs are so strong, that few animals can extricate themselves from its gripe. It is said to be formidable even to the panthers of America, and sometimes fixes itself upon them in such a manner, that both of them fall and perish together; for its obstinacy is so great, that it will not extricate itself from its adversary even after he is dead.

The flesh has a strong disagreeable taste, but it is eaten by the Indians.

The Middle Ant-eater is about one foot seven inches from nose to tail; it inhabits the same countries, and procures its food in the same manner as the last. Its tail is ten inches long, with which it secures its hold in climbing trees by twisting it round the branches.

Both these animals have four strong claws on the fore feet, and five on the hind.

The Lesser Ant-eater has a sharp-pointed nose, inclining a little downwards; its ears are small, and hid in the fur; it has two strong hooked claws on the fore feet, the outward one being much the largest, and four on the hind feet; its fur is long, soft and silky, of a yellowish-brown colour; its length, from nose to tail, is seven inches and a half, tail above eight, thick at the base, and taper to the end. It inhabits Guiana; climbs trees in quest of a species of ants which build their nests among the branches.

ANIMALS OF THE PORCUPINE KIND.

Brazilian Porcupine.—This animal is very different from that known in general under the name of porcupine; indeed it can scarcely be said to bear any relation to it, except in its being covered with spines about three inches in length; they are white, very sharp, and have a bar of black near the points. The breast, belly, and lower part of the legs, are covered with strong bristly hairs of a brown colour; its tail is long and slender, and almost naked at the end; the animal uses it in descending trees by twisting it round the branches.

It inhabits Mexico and Brazil, lives in woods, and feeds on fruits and small birds; it preys by night and sleeps in the day. It makes a noise like the grunting of a swine, and grows very fat. Its flesh is white and esteemed good to eat.

Coendou.—This animal inhabits the same countries with the last, and its habits and mode of living are similar; but, in respect to its figure, it seems to be a very different animal. Its ears are short and

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hid in the hair: its head, body, and upper part of its tail, are covered with long soft hair, in which are interspersed a number of strong sharp spines; its tail is shorter than that of the preceding species, and it uses it in the same manner in descending trees, frequently suspending itself from the branches.

Urson.—The urchin, or urson, is about two feet in length, and when fat, the same in circumference. He is commonly called hedgehog or porcupine, but differs from both those animals in every characteristic mark, excepting his being armed with quills on his back and sides; these quills are nearly as large as a wheat straw, from three to four inches long, and, unless erected, nearly covered by the animal's hair; their points are very hard and filled with innumerable very small barbs or scales, whose points are raised from the body of the quill. When the urchin is attacked by a dog, wolf, or other beast of prey, he throws himself into a posture of defence, by shortening his body, elevating his back, and erecting his quills. The assailant soon finds some of those weapons stuck into his mouth, or other parts of his body, and every effort which he makes to free himself causes them to penetrate the farther; they have been known to bury themselves entirely in a few minutes. Sometimes they prove fatal, at other times they make their way out again through the skin from various parts of the body. If not molested it is an inoffensive animal. He finds a hole or hollow which he makes his residence, and feeds on the barks and roots of vegetables. His flesh, in the opinion of hunters, is equal to that of a sucking pig. Is found in the northern States.

ARMADILLO.

This animal is found only in South-America, where there are several varieties of them. They are all covered with a strong crust or shell, and are distinguished from each other by the number of the flexible bands of which it is composed.

It is a harmless, inoffensive animal, feeds on roots, fruits and other vegetables, grows very fat, and is greatly esteemed for the delicacy of its flesh.

The Indians hunt it with small dogs trained for that purpose. When surprised it runs to its hole, or attempts to make a new one, which it does with great expedition, having strong claws on its fore feet, with which it adheres so firmly to the ground, that if it should be caught by the tail whilst making its way into the earth, its resistance is so great, that it will sometimes leave it in the hands of its
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pursuers: to avoid this the hunter has recourse to artifice, and by tickling it with a stick it gives up its hold, and suffers itself to be taken alive. If no other means of escape be left, it rolls itself up within its covering by drawing in its head and legs, and bringing its tail round them as a band to connect them more forcibly together: in this situation it sometimes escapes by rolling itself over the edge of a precipice, and generally falls to the bottom unhurt.

The most successful method of catching armadillos is by snares laid for them by the sides of rivers or other places where they frequent. They all burrow very deep in the ground, and seldom stir out except during the night, whilst they are in search of food.

To give a minute description of the shells or coverings of the armadillos would be extremely difficult, as they are all composed of a number of parts, differing greatly from each other in the order and disposition of the figures with which they are distinguished: but it may be necessary to observe, that in general there are two large pieces that cover the shoulders and the rump, between which lie the bands, which are more or less in number in different kinds. These bands are not unlike those in the tail of a lobster, and, being flexible, give way to the motions of the animal. The first we shall mention is the

Three-banded Armadillo.—Its shell is about twelve inches long, with three bands in the middle; the crust on the head, back and rump, is divided into a number of elegant raised figures, with five angles or sides; its tail is not more than two inches long; it has neither cutting nor canine teeth, and has five toes on each foot.

Six-banded Armadillo.—Is about the size of a young pig. Between the folds of the bands there are a few scattered hairs; its tail is long, thick at the base, and tapers to a point. It is found in Brazil and Guiana.

Eight-banded Armadillo.—Its ears are long and upright, eyes small and black; it has four toes on the fore feet and five on the hind; its length, from nose to tail, is about ten inches, the tail nine. It inhabits Brazil, and is reckoned more delicious eating than the others.

Nine-banded Armadillo has a tenth band, moveable half way up on each side; the shell on the shoulders and rump is marked with hexangular figures; the breast and belly are covered with long hairs; its tail is long and taper, and the whole animal three feet in length.

One of this kind was brought to England a few years ago from

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the Musquito shore, and lived some time. It was fed with raw beef and milk, but refused to eat our fruits and grain.

The Kabassou is furnished with twelve bands, and is the largest of all the armadillos, being almost three feet long from nose to tail; the figures on the shoulders are of an oblong form, those on the rump hexangular. It is seldom eaten.

Weasel-beaded Armadillo, so called from the form of its head, which is slender, has eighteen bands from its shoulder to its tail; the shell is marked with square figures on the shoulders, those on the legs and thighs are roundish; the body is about fifteen inches long, tail five.

All these animals have the power of drawing themselves up under their shells, either for the purpose of repose or safety. They are furnished with strong lateral muscles, consisting of numberless fibres, crossing each other in the form of an X, with which they contract themselves so powerfully, that the strongest man is scarcely able to force them open. The shells of the larger armadillos are much stronger than those of the smaller kinds; their flesh is likewise harder and more unfit for the table.

ANIMALS OF THE MARMOT KIND.

Quebec Marmot.—This animal is called in the United States the woodchuck; his body is about sixteen inches long, and nearly the same in circumference; his tail is moderately long and full of hair; his colour is a mixture of fallow and grey. He digs a burrow in or near some cultivated field, and feeds on pulse, the tops of cultivated clover, &c. He is generally very fat, excepting in the spring. The young are good meat, the old are rather rank and disagreeable. In the beginning of October they retire to their burrows, and live in a torpid state about six months. In many respects he agrees with the marmot of the Alps, in others he differs, and on the whole is probably not the same.

An animal resembling the woodchuck is found in the southern States, which is supposed to form another species, it is called the Maryland Marmot.

Besides the above there are three other species of this genus found in America, the Hoary, the Tail-less, and the Ear-less Marmot; the two former are found in the northern parts of the continent, and the latter on the western side only.

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ANIMALS OF THE SQUIRREL KIND.

Fox Squirrel.—Of this animal there are several varieties, black, red and grey. It is nearly twice as large as the common grey squirrel, and is found in the southern States, and is peculiar to the American continent.

Grey Squirrel.—The grey squirrel of America does not agree exactly with that of Europe, but is generally considered as of the same species. Its name indicates its general colour; but some are black, and others black on the back and grey on the sides. They make a nest of moss in a hollow tree, and here they deposit their provision of nuts and acorns; this is the place of their residence during the winter, and here they bring forth their young. Their summer house, which is built of sticks and leaves, is placed near the top of the tree. They sometimes migrate in considerable numbers. If in their course they meet with a river, each of them takes a shingle, piece of bark, or the like, and carries it to the water: thus equipped they embark, and erect their tails to the gentle breeze, which soon wafts them over in safety; but a sudden flaw of wind sometimes produces a destructive shipwreck. The greater part of the males of this species is found castrated. They are found from New-England to Chili and Peru. A grey squirrel is found in Virginia nearly twice as large as this; whether it be the same, or a different species, is uncertain.

Red Squirrel.—This is less than the grey squirrel. It has a red list along its back, grey on its sides, and white under the belly. It differs in some respects from the common European squirrel; but M. de Buffon considers it as the same species. Its food is the same as that of the grey squirrel, except that it sometimes feeds on the seeds of the pine and other evergreens; hence it is sometimes called the pine squirrel, and is found in general farther to the northward than the grey squirrel. It spends part of its time on trees in quest of food; but considers its hole, under some rock or log, as its home.

Striped Squirrel.—This is still less than the last mentioned; its colour is red; it has a narrow stripe of black along its back; at the distance of about half an inch on each side is a stripe of white, bordered with very narrow stripes of black; its belly is white. In the males the colours are brighter and better defined than in the female. It is sometimes called a mouse squirrel and ground squirrel, from its forming a burrow in loose ground. Linnæus confounds it

with a striped mouse squirrel found in the north of Asia; but that animal is represented as in some measure resembling the mouse, whereas this is a genuine squirrel. In the summer it feeds on apples, peaches, and various kinds of fruit and seeds, and for its winter store lays up nuts, acorns and grain. It sometimes ascends trees in quest of food, but always descends on the appearance of danger; nor does it feel secure but in its hole, a stone wall, or some covert place. Found in the northern and middle States.

Flying Squirrel.—This is the most singular of the class of squirrels. A duplicature of the skin connects the fore and hinder legs together; by extending this membrane it is able to leap much farther, and to alight with more safety than other squirrels. It lives in the holes of trees and feeds on seeds. Is found in general from the southern parts of Hudson's bay to Mexico.

Besides the above, there are several other varieties of this genus, some peculiar to the whole continent, and some to particular parts, from whence they have been named, as the Hudson's bay squirrel, varied squirrel of Mexico, Mexican squirrel, Brazilian squirrel, &c.

Striped Dormouse.—Of this genus of animals, called sometimes garden squirrels, we believe there is only one species known in North-America, viz. the striped dormouse, which is exceeding plenty throughout all the forests.

ANIMALS OF THE RAT KIND.

Of this genus of animals America produces various species, two or three only of which we shall notice.

Musquash, or musk rat of Canada. This animal is about the size of a young rabbit; its head is thick and short, resembling that of a water rat; its hair soft and glossy; beneath the outward hair there is a thick fine down, very useful in the manufacture of hats; it is of a reddish brown colour; its breast and belly ash, tinged with red; its tail is long and flat, covered with scales; its eyes are large, its ears short and hairy; it has two strong cutting-teeth in each jaw, those of the under-jaw are about an inch long, but the upper ones are shorter.

This animal is a native of Canada, where it is called the Ondatra.

In many respects it very much resembles the beaver, both in form and manners. It is fond of the water, and swims well. At the approach of winter several families associate together. They build little huts, about two feet in diameter, composed of herbs and rushes.

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cemented with clay, forming a dome-like covering: from these are several passages, in different directions, by which they go out in quest of roots and other food. The hunters take them in the spring, by opening their holes, and letting in the light suddenly upon them. At that time their flesh is tolerably good, and is frequently eaten, but in the summer it acquires a scent of musk, so strong as to render it perfectly unpalatable.

Wood Rat.—This is a very curious animal; not half the size of a domestic rat; of a dark brown or black colour; their tails slender and short in proportion, and covered thinly with short hair. They are singular with respect to their ingenuity and great labour in constructing their habitations, which are conical pyramids, about three or four feet high, constructed with dry branches, which they collect with great labour and perseverance, and pile up without any apparent order; yet they are so interwoven with one another, that it would take a bear or a wild cat some time to pull one of these castles to pieces, and allow the animals sufficient time to retreat with their young.

There is likewise a ground rat, twice as large as the common rat, which burrows in the ground. *Bartram's Travels.*

Sbrew Mouse.—This is the smallest of quadrupeds, and holds nearly the same place among them as the humming bird does among the feathered race. Their head, which constitutes about one third of their whole length, has some resemblance to that of a mole; the ears are wanting; their eyes scarcely visible; the nose very long, pointed, and furnished with long hairs. In other respects these resemble the common mouse. They live in woods, and are supposed to feed on grain and insects. Different species of them are found in Brasil, Mexico, Carolina, New-England, and Hudson's bay.

Mole.—The Purple Mole is found in Virginia; the Black Mole in New-England; he lives in and about the water: they differ from one another, and both from the European. There are three other species found about New-York, viz. the Long-tailed, the Radiated, and the Brown; the former is also found in the interior of Hudson's bay.

ANIMALS OF THE MONKEY KIND.

The monkeys of America are distinguished by M. Buffon by the generic names of Sapajous and Sagoins; they have neither cheek pouches nor callosities on their buttocks, and they are distinguished from each other by characters peculiar to each. The sapajou is furnished

nished with a prehensile tail, the under part of which is generally covered with a smooth naked skin; the animal can coil it up or extend it at pleasure, suspend itself by its extremity on the branches of trees, or use it as a hand to lay hold of any thing it wants. The tails of all the sagoins, on the contrary, are longer than those of the sapa-jous, straight, flaccid, and entirely covered with hair. This difference alone is sufficient to distinguish a sapa-jou from a sagoin.

Ouarine, or Preacher.—This is the largest of all the American monkeys, being about the size of a large fox; its body is covered with long smooth hair, of a shining black colour, forming a kind of ruff round the animal's neck; its tail is long, and always twisted at the end.

Great numbers of these monkeys inhabit the woods of Brasil and Guiana, and, from the great noise they make, are called *Howling Monkeys*. Several of them assemble together, one placing himself on a higher branch, the rest placing themselves in a kind of regular order; below him the first then begins as though to harangue with a loud tone, which may be heard at a great distance; at a signal made with his hand, the rest join in a general chorus, the most dissonant and tremendous that can be conceived; on another signal they all stop, except the first, who finishes singly, and the assembly breaks up.

These monkeys are very fierce, and so wild and mischievous, that they can neither be conquered nor tamed. They feed on fruits, grain, herbs, and sometimes insects; live in trees, and leap from bough to bough with wonderful agility, catching hold with their hands and tails as they throw themselves from one branch to another.

There is a variety of this species of a ferruginous or reddish colour, which the Indians call the *Royal, or King Monkey*; it is as large and noisy as the former. This is eaten by the natives, and sometimes by the Europeans, and deemed excellent food.

Coaita.—This animal is somewhat less than the ouarine; its body and limbs are long and slender, hair black and rough, tail long, and naked on the under side near the end. It has a long flat face of a swarthy colour, its eyes sunk in its head, and its ears resembling human; it has only four fingers on the hands, being destitute of the thumb.

It is found in the neighbourhood of Carthagena, in Guiana, Brasil, and Peru. Great numbers associate together; they seldom appear on

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the ground, but live mostly in trees, and feed on fruits; when these are not to be had, they are said to eat fishes, worms and insects; are extremely dexterous in catching their prey, and make great use of their tails in seizing it.

They are very lively and active. In passing from one tree to another, they sometimes form a chain, linked to each other by their tails, and swing in that manner till the lowest catches hold of a branch, and draws up the rest. When fruits are ripe, they are generally fat, and their flesh is then said to be excellent.

There are many varieties of the coaita, which differ chiefly in colour; some are totally black, others brown, and some have white hair on the under parts of their body. They are called *Spider Monkeys* by Edwards, on account of the length and slenderness of their legs and tails.

M. Buffon supposes the *Exquima* to be another variety of this species. It is nearly of the same size, but its colour is variegated. The hair on its back is black and yellow, its throat and belly white: its manner of living is the same with that of the coaita, and it inhabits the same countries.

Sajou, or *Capuchin*.—There are two varieties of this species, the brown and the grey, which, in other respects, are perfectly similar. Their faces are of a flesh colour, thinly covered with down; tails long, full of hair on the upper side, naked below, and prehensile; hands black and naked; length of the body about twelve inches.

These animals inhabit Guiana, are extremely lively and agile, and their constitution seems better adapted to the temperate climates of Europe than most of the *sapajou* kind. M. Buffon mentions a few instances of their having been produced in France.

The *sajous* are very capricious in their attachments, being fond of particular persons, and discovering the greatest aversion to others.

Sai, or *Weeper*, inhabits Brasil, is very mild, docile, and timid; of a grave and serious aspect, has an appearance of weeping, and when irritated, makes a plaintive noise. It is about fourteen inches long, the tail longer than the body; hair on the back and sides of a deep brown colour, mixed with red on the lower parts. There is a variety with hair on the throat and breast.

Great numbers of these creatures assemble together, particularly in stormy weather, and make a great chattering; they live much in trees which bear a podded fruit as large as beans, on which they principally feed.

Saimiri, or *Orange Monkey*.—This is a most beautiful animal, but so extremely delicate, that it cannot well bear to be brought from its own climate to one less warm and temperate.

It is about the size of a squirrel; its head is round, eyes remarkably lively and brilliant, ears large, hair on the body short and fine, of a shining gold colour, feet orange, its tail is very long; its prehensile faculty is much weaker than the rest of the sapajous, and on that account it may be said to form a shade between them and the sagoins, which have long tails, entirely covered with hair, but of no use in suspending their bodies from the branches of trees or other objects.

Mico, or *Fair Monkey*.—This is the most beautiful of all this numerous race of animals. Its head is small and round; face and ears of so lively a vermilion colour, as to appear the effect of art; its body is covered with long hair, of a bright silvery whiteness, and uncommon elegance; tail long, and of a shining dark chestnut colour.

It frequents the banks of the river of Amazons, where it was discovered by M. Condamaine, who preserved one alive till almost within sight of the French coast, but it died before its arrival.

Oifiti, or *Cagwi*.—This is a small animal, its head and body not exceeding seven inches in length; its tail is long, bushy, and, like that of the macauro, marked with alternate rings of black and ash colour; its face is naked, of a swarthy flesh colour; ears large, and like the human, with two very large tufts of white hairs standing out on each side; the body beautifully marked with dusky, ash-coloured, and reddish bars; its nails are sharp, and its fingers like those of a squirrel.

The oufiti inhabits Brasil, feeds on fruits, vegetables, insects, and snails, and is fond of fish.

Saki.—Sometimes called the *Fox-tailed Monkey*, because its tail, like that of the fox, is covered with long hair. Its body is about seventeen inches in length; hair long, of a dark brown colour on the back, lighter on the under side; its face is tawny, and covered with a fine short whitish down; the forehead and sides of the face are white; its hands and feet are black, with claws instead of nails; is a native of Guiana, where it is called the saccawinkee.

Pinche, or *Red-tailed Monkey*.—This is somewhat larger than the oufiti. It is remarkable in having a great quantity of smooth white hair, which falls down from the top of its head on each side, forming a curious contrast with its face, which is black, thinly covered

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with a fine grey down; its eyes are black and lively; throat black; hair on the back and shoulders of a light reddish brown colour; breast, belly, and legs, white; the tail is long, of a red colour from the rump to the middle, from thence to the end it is black.

The pinche inhabits the woods on the banks of the river of Amazons; is a lively, beautiful little animal; has a soft whistling voice, resembling more the chirping of a bird than the cry of a quadruped. It frequently walks with its long tail over its back.

Marikina.—This is by some called the *Lion Ape*, from the quantity of hair which surrounds its face, falling backwards like a mane; its tail is also somewhat bushy at the end; its face is flat, and of a dull purple colour; its hair long, bright, and silky, from whence it is called the *Silky Monkey*; it is of a pale yellow colour on the body; the hair round the face of a bright bay, inclining to red; its hands and feet are without hair, and of the same colour as the face; its body is ten inches long, tail thirteen.

This creature is a native of Guiana, is very gentle and lively, and seems to be more hardy than the other fagoins: Buffon says, that one of them lived at Paris several years, with no other precaution than keeping it in a warm room during winter.

Tamarin.—This is the size of a squirrel; its face is naked, of a swarthy flesh colour; its upper lip somewhat divided; its ears are very large and erect, from whence it is called the *Great-eared Monkey*; its hair is soft, shaggy, and of a black colour; hands and feet covered with orange-coloured hair, very fine and smooth; its nails long and crooked; tail black, and twice the length of its body.

The tamarin inhabits the hotter parts of South-America; is a lively, pleasant animal, easily tamed, but so delicate, that it cannot bear a removal to a less temperate climate.

Most of the above genus seem to be more particularly natives of South-America, but they are likewise said to be found on the lower parts of the Mississippi.

PINNATED QUADRUPEDS.

Walrus, or Sea-horse.—There are several animals whose residence is almost constantly in the water, and which seem to partake greatly of the nature of fishes, they are nevertheless classed by naturalists under the denomination of quadrupeds; and being perfectly amphibious, living with equal ease on the water as on land, may be considered as the last step in the scale of Nature, by which we are conducted

conducted from one great division of the animal world to the other. Of these the walrus is the most considerable; it has a round head; small mouth; very thick lips, covered above and below with pellucid bristles as thick as a straw; small fiery eyes; two small orifices instead of ears; short neck; body thick in the middle, tapering towards the tail; skin thick, wrinkled, with short brownish hairs thinly dispersed; legs short, five toes on each, all connected by webs, and small nails on each; the hind feet very broad; each leg loosely articulated; the hind legs generally extended on a line with the body; tail very short; length, from nose to tail, sometimes eighteen feet, and ten or twelve round in the thickest part; the teeth have been sometimes found of the weight * of twenty pounds each.

They inhabit the coast of Spitzbergen, Nova Zembla, Hudson's bay, and the gulph of St. Lawrence, and the Icy sea, as far as cape Tschuktchi, and the islands off it, but does not extend southward as far as the mouth of the Anadyr, nor are any seen in the islands between Kamtschatka and America: they are gregarious; in some places appear in herds of hundreds; are shy animals, and avoid places which are much haunted by mankind; † are very fierce; if wounded in the water, they attempt to sink the boat, either by rising under it, or by striking their great teeth into the sides; roar very loud, and will follow the boat till it gets out of sight. Numbers of them are often seen sleeping on an island of ice; if awakened, fling themselves with great impetuosity into the sea, at which time it is dangerous to approach the ice, lest they should tumble into the boat and upset it; do not go upon the land till the coast is clear of ice. At particular times, they land in amazing numbers; the moment the first gets on shore, so as to lie dry, it will not stir till another comes and forces it forward by beating it with its great teeth; this is served in the same manner by the next, and so in succession till the whole is landed, continuing tumbling over one another, and forcing the foremost, for the sake of quiet, to remove further up.

* Teeth of this size are only found on the coast of the Icy sea, where the animals are seldom molested, and have time to attain their full growth. *Hist. Kamtschatka*, 120.

† In 1608, the crew of an English vessel killed on Cherry isle above nine hundred Walruses in seven hours time; for they lay in heaps, like hogs huddled one upon another. *Marten's Spitzberg*. 181, 182.

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They bring one, or at most two young at a time; feed on sea herbs and fish, also on shells, which they dig out of the sand with their teeth; are said also to make use of their teeth to ascend rocks or pieces of ice, fastening them to the cracks, and drawing their bodies up by that means. Besides mankind, they seem to have no other enemy than the white bear, with whom they have terrible combats, but are generally victorious.

They are killed for the sake of the oil, one animal producing about half a ton.

Seal.—Of this genus there are several species, all of which, there is no doubt, are found on some part of the coast of America.

Whale-tailed Manati.—This animal in nature so nearly approaches the cetaceous tribe, that it is merely in conformity to the systematic writers, that it is continued in this class; it scarce deserves the name of a biped; what are called feet are little more than pectoral fins; they serve only for swimming; they are never used to assist the animal in walking or landing, for it never goes ashore, nor ever attempts to climb the rocks, like the walrus and seal. It brings forth in the water, and, like the whale, suckles its young in that element; like the whale, it has no voice, and, like that animal, has an horizontal broad tail in form of a crescent, without even the rudiments of hind feet.

Inhabits the seas about Bering's and the other Aleutian islands, which intervene between Kamtschatka and America, but never appears off Kamtschatka, unless blown ashore by a tempest. Is probably the same species which is found above Mindanao, but is certainly that which inhabits near Rodriguez, vulgarly called Diego Reys, an island on the east of Mauritius, or the isle of France, near which it is likewise found.

They live perpetually in the water, and frequent the edges of the shores; and in calm weather swim in great droves near the mouths of rivers; in the time of flood they come so near the land, that a person may stroke them with his hand; if hurt, they swim out to the sea, but presently return again. They live in families, one near another; each consists of a male, a female, a half-grown young one, and a very small one. The females oblige the young to swim before them, while the other old ones surround, and, as it were, guard them on all sides. If the female is attacked, the male will defend her to the utmost, and if she is killed, will follow

her corpse to the very shore, and swim for some days near the place it has been landed at.

They copulate in the spring, in the same manner as the human kind, especially in calm weather, towards the evening. The female swims gently about; the male pursues, till, tired with wantoning, she flings herself on her back, and admits his embraces.* Steller thinks they go with young above a year; it is certain that they bring but one young at a time, which they suckle by two teats placed between the breasts.

They are vastly voracious and gluttonous, and feed not only on the fuci that grow in the sea, but such as are flung on the edges of the shore. When they are filled, they fall asleep on their backs. During their meals, they are so intent on their food, that any one may go among them and chuse which he likes best.

Their back and their sides are generally above water, and as their skin is filled with a species of louse peculiar to them, numbers of gulls are continually perching on their backs, and picking out the insects.

They continue in the Kamtschatkan and American seas the whole year; but in winter are very lean, so that you may count their ribs. They are taken by harpoons fastened to a strong cord, and after they are struck, it requires the united force of thirty men to draw them on shore. Sometimes, when they are transfix'd, they will lay hold of the rocks with their paws, and stick so fast as to leave the skin behind before they can be forced off. When a Manati is struck, its companions swim to its assistance; some will attempt to overturn the boat, by getting under it; others will press down the rope, in order to break it; and others will strike at the harpoon with their tails, with a view of getting it out, which they often succeed in. They have not any voice, but make a noise by hard breathing, like the snorting of a horse.

They are of an enormous size; some are twenty-eight feet long, and eight thousand pounds in weight; but if the mindanao species is the same with this, it decreases greatly in size as it advances southward, for the largest which Dampier saw there, weighed only six hundred pounds. The head, in proportion to the bulk of the ani-

* The leonine and ursine seals copulate in the same manner, only, after sporting in the sea for some time, they come on shore for that purpose.

mal, is small, oblong, and almost square; the nostrils are filled with short bristles; the gape, or rictus, is small; the lips are double; near the junction of the two jaws the mouth is full of white tubular bristles, which serve the same use as the laminæ in whales, to prevent the food running out with the water; the lips are also full of bristles, which serve instead of teeth to cut the strong roots of the sea plants, which floating ashore are a sign of the vicinity of these animals. In the mouth are no teeth, only two flat white bones, one in each jaw, one above, another below, with undulated surfaces, which serve instead of grinders.

The eyes are extremely small, not larger than those of a sheep; the iris black; it is destitute of ears, having only two orifices, so minute that a quill will scarcely enter them; the tongue is pointed and small; the neck is thick, and its junction with the head scarce distinguishable, and the last always hangs down. The circumference of the body near the shoulders is twelve feet, about the belly twenty, near the tail only four feet eight; the head thirty-one inches; the neck near seven feet; and from these measurements may be collected the deformity of this animal. Near the shoulders are two feet, or rather fins, which are only two feet two inches long, and have neither fingers nor nails, beneath are concave, and covered with hard bristles; the tail is thick, strong, and horizontal, ending in a stiff black fin, and like the substance of whalebone, and much split in the fore part, and slightly forked, but both ends are of equal lengths, like that of a whale.

The skin is very thick, black, and full of inequalities, like the bark of oak, and so hard as scarcely to be cut with an ax, and has no hair on it; beneath the skin is a thick blubber, which tastes like oil of almonds. The flesh is coarser than beef, and will not soon putrefy. The young ones taste like veal: the skin is used for shoes, and for covering the sides of boats.

The Russians call this animal *morikaia korowa*, or sea cow; and *kapustnik*, or eater of herbs.

Manati of Guiana.—The head of this animal hangs downward; the feet are furnished with five toes; body almost to the tail of an uniform thickness; near its junction with that part grows suddenly thin; tail flat, and in form of a spatula, thickest in the middle, growing thinner towards the edges.

Inhabits the rivers and sea of Guiana; it grows to the length of sixteen or eighteen feet; is covered with a dusky skin with a few

hairs. Those measured by Dampier were ten or twelve feet long; their tail twenty inches in length, fourteen in breadth, four or five thick in the middle, two at the edges; the largest weighed twelve hundred pounds; but they arrive at far greater magnitude.

Oronoko Manati.—This is the species to which M. de Buffon has in his supplement given the name of *Le petit Lamantia de l'Amérique*, and says it is found in the Oronoko, Oyapoc, and the rivers of Amazons. Father Gumilla had one taken in a distant lake, near the Oronoko, which was so large that twenty-seven men could not draw it out of the water: on cutting it open, he found two young ones, which weighed twenty-five pounds a-piece.

We suspect that the manati of the Amazons, &c. never visit the sea, but are perpetually resident in the fresh waters.

These animals abound in certain parts of the eastern coasts and rivers of South-America, about the bay of Honduras, some of the greater Antilles, the rivers of Oronoque, and the lakes formed by it; and lastly, in that of the Amazons, and the Guallaga, the Pastaga, and most of the others which fall into that vast river: they are found even a thousand leagues from its mouth, and seem to be stopt from making even an higher advance, only by the great cataract, the Pongo of Borja. They sometimes live in the sea, and often near the mouth of some river, into which they come once or twice in twenty-four hours, for the sake of brouzing on the marine plants which grow within their reach; they altogether delight more in brackish or sweet water, than in the salt; and in shallow water near low land, and in places secure from surges, and where the tides run gently. It is said that at times they frolic and leap to great heights out of the water. Their uses were very considerable to the privateers or buccaneers in the time of Dampier. Their flesh and fat are white, very sweet and salubrious, and the tail of a young female was particularly esteemed. A suckling was held to be most delicious, and eaten roasted, as were great pieces cut out of the belly of the old animals.

The skin cut out of the belly, for that of the back was too thick, was in great request for the purpose of fastening to the sides of canoes, and forming a place for the insertion of the oars. The thicker part of the skin, cut fresh into lengths of two or three feet, serves for whips, and become, when dried, as tough as wood.

Besides these, an animal has been discovered on the coast of America to which the name of Sea Ape has been given; but it ap-

appears to have been seen in only one solitary instance, and therefore it appears unnecessary, except in a professed history of animals, to add any account of it.

WINGED QUADRUPEDS.

Bat.---This singular animal is distinguished from every other quadruped by being furnished with wings, and seems to possess a middle nature between four-footed animals and birds: it is allied to the one by the faculty of flying only, to the other both by its external and internal structure: in each respect it has the appearance of an imperfect animal. In walking, its feet seem to be entangled with its wings, and it drags its body on the ground with extreme awkwardness. Its motions in the air do not seem to be performed with ease: it raises itself from the ground with difficulty, and its flight is laboured and ill directed; from whence it is has very significantly been called the *Flutter Mouse*. There are several varieties of the bat kind, several of which are found in different parts of the continent of America.---*See Birds.*

HISTORY

HISTORY OF THE BIRDS OF AMERICA.

IN the following account of the birds of America, nothing more is attempted than an enumeration of the species of the different genera found on that continent; the division and order of Mr. Pennant is followed, and descriptive characters of each genus, in general, attended to. As it was impossible in a work of this kind to enter into a description of the different species of each genus, we hope the method adopted will prove more acceptable and advantageous than a mere catalogue of either popular or systematic names.

DIV. I. LAND-FOWL.

ORDER I. RAPACIOUS.

Bill, straight, hooked only at the end; edges cultrated, base covered with a thin skin.—*Nostrils*, differing in different species.—*Tongue*, large and fleshy.—*Head*, cheeks, chin, and often neck, either naked or covered only with down or short hairs; the neck retractile.—*Claw*, often hanging over the breast.—*Legs and feet*, covered with great scales; the first joint of the middle toe connected to that of the outermost by a strong membrane.—*Claws*, large, little hooked, and very blunt.—*Insides* of the wing covered with down.

GEN. I. VULTUR.

Characters.—*Bill*, straight, blunt at the tip.—*Head*, featherless, covered behind with naked skin or soft down.—*Neck*, retractile.—*Legs*, covered with scales.—The first joint of the *middle toe* connected to the outermost by a strong membrane.

Of this genus there are five species in America, three of which are found in the United States, and the other two in South-America.

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GEN. 2. FALCO.

Character.—*Bill*, hooked, furnished at its base with a strong membrane or *cere*.—*Head* and *neck* covered with feathers.—*Legs* and *feet* covered with scales. *Middle toe* connected with the outmost by a strong membrane.—*Claws*, long, much hooked, that of the outmost toe the least.—*Female* larger than the *male*.

This genus admits of four divisions, of which there are in America as follows: eagles, ten species; hawks, fifteen; falcons, thirteen; kites, two; of these, some are peculiar to South-America, others to the North, and some common in both.

GEN. 3. STRIX.

Character.—*Bill*, hooked, without a *cere*.—*Nostrils*, oblong.—*Eyes*, very large and protuberant, surrounded by a circle of feathers.—*Head*, large, round, and full of feathers.—*Ears*, large and open.—*Outermost toe* versatile.

This genus contains the owls, which are ranged in two divisions, *the eared*, and *the earless*; of the former there are three species, and of the latter fourteen species known in America.

ORDER II. PIES.

GEN. 1. LANIUS.

This genus includes a class of birds that form the connecting link between the rapacious birds of the preceding order and the pies; they are called Shrieks, or Butcher birds; their *bills* are straight, hooked only at the ends.—*Tongue* jagged at the point.—*Toes* divided at the origin.—*And tail* cuneiform. Of this genus there are fourteen species known in America and the West-Indies.

GEN. 2. PSITTACUS.

This genus contains the whole race of parrots, parroquets, &c. *Bill*, hooked from the base: upper mandible moveable.—*Nostrils*, round, and placed in the base of the bill.—*Tongue*, broad and blunt at the end.—*Head*, large; crown flat.—*Legs*, short.—*Toes*, two backward and two forward. Of this there are nearly fifty species known in South-America, and we believe only one or two in North-America.

GEN. 3. RAMPHOSTOS.

The character of this genus is—*Bill*, exceeding large, hollow, convex, serrated outwards; both mandibles curved at the tip.—*Nostrils*, small and round, placed close to the head.—*Tongue*, long,
and

and feathered on the edges.—*Feet*, in most of the species, scansory. It contains the Toucans and Motmots; of the former there are nine species, and of the latter only one; they are supposed to be peculiar to South-America.

GEN. 4. CROTOPHAGUS.

The characters of this genus are—*Bill*, compressed, greatly arched, half oval, thin, cultrated at the top.—*Nostrils*, round.—*Toes*, two backward and two forward.—Ten feathers in the tail.

The only bird in this genus is the Ani, of which there are only two species; it is, we believe, peculiar to America.

GEN. 5. CORVUS.

Bill, strong, upper mandible a little convex, edges cultrated.—*Nostrils*, covered with bristles, reflected over them.—*Tongue*, divided at the end.—*Toes*, three forward and one backward, the middle joined to the outmost as far as the first joint. This genus includes the ravens, crows, rooks, jays and magpies, most of which occur in every climate. There is one species of the raven; four of the crow; four of the daw; six of the jay; and four of the magpie. Found in America and the West-Indies.

GEN. 6. CORACIAS.

Bill, straight, bending a little towards the end, edges cultrated.—*Nostrils*, narrow and naked.—*Toes*, three forward, divided to their origin; one backward. This genus contains the Boilers, of which there are two species found in South-America.

GEN. 7. ORIOLUS.

Bill, straight, conic, very sharp-pointed, edges cultrated, inclining inwards, mandibles of equal length.—*Nostrils*, small, placed at the base of the bill, and partly covered.—*Tongue*, divided at the end.—*Toes*, three forward and one backward; the middle joined near the base to the outmost one behind. The Oriolus are in general inhabitants of America; there being twenty-seven species enumerated on that continent, out of forty-five, all that are known.*

GEN.

* Of this genus the Baltimore Oriole deserves particular notice; the head, throat, neck, and upper part of the back of the male, is described to be black; the lesser coverts of the wings orange; the greater black; tip with white; the breast, belly, lower part of the back, and coverts of the tail, of a bright orange; the primaries dusky, edged with white; the two middle feathers of the tail black; the lower part of the same colour, the remaining part orange; and the legs black. The head and back of the female

GEN. 8. GRACULA.

Bill, convex, knife shaped, somewhat naked at the base.—*Tongue*, entire, somewhat enlarged and fleshy, sharp at the end.—*Nostrils*, small, near the base of the bill.—*Toes*, three forward, one backward, the middle connected at the base to the outmost.—*Claws*, hooked and sharp. Of the Gracle, which form this genus, there are about twelve species, none of which are found in Europe, and only four or five known in America.

GEN. 9. TROGON.

This genus embraces a class of South-American birds, inhabiting Cayenne and Brasil, of which there is only three species. They have the *bill* short, thick and convex.—*Nostrils*, covered with thick bristles.—*Toes*, two backward and two forward.—*Legs*, feathered down to the toes—and the *tail* consisting of twelve feathers.

GEN. 10. BUCCO.

The Tamatia, or Barbets, that constitute this genus, are likewise chiefly South-American birds; on that part of the continent there are seven species found, but none to the North. The *bill* of this bird is strong, straight, bending a little towards the point; base, covered with strong bristles, pointing downwards.—*Nostrils*, hid in the feathers.—*Toes*, two backward and two forward, divided to their origin.—*Tail*, consisting of ten weak feathers.

GEN. 11. CUCULUS.

Of the Cuckoo, which forms this class, there are five species found in North-America, and nine in the South. Characters of this genus are, *bill*, weak, a little bending.—*Nostrils*, bounded by a small rim.—*Tongue*, short and pointed.—*Toes*, two forward and two backward.—*Tail*, cuneated, consisting of ten soft feathers.

male is orange, edged with pale brown; the coverts of the wings of the same colour, marked with a single bar of white; the under side of the body and coverts of the tail yellow; the tail dusky, edged with yellow. The length both of the male and female is seven inches. This bird suspends its nest to the horizontal forks of the tulip and poplar trees, formed of the filaments of some tough plants, curiously woven, mixed with wool, and lined with hairs. It is of a pear shape, open at top, with a hole on the side through which the young discharge their excrements, and are fed. In some parts of North-America, this species, from its brilliant colour, is called the Fiery Haagneft. It is named the Baltimore bird from its colours, resembling those in the arms of the late Lord Baltimore, whose family were proprietors of Maryland.

GEN. 12. PICUS.

The characters of this genus are—*Bill*, straight, strong, angular, and cuneated at the end.—*Nostrils*, covered with bristles, and reflected down.—*Tongue*, very long, slender, cylindric, bony, hard, jagged at the end, missile.—*Toes*, two forward and two backward.—*Tail*, consisting of ten hard, stiff, sharp-pointed feathers. This genus is formed of the Woodpeckers, which may be divided into three general classes, green, black, and variegated or spotted; of the green Woodpecker, eleven species have been found in America; of the black, six; and of the variegated, twenty-one; besides two species of a small bird called Woodpecker Creepers, the *Les Pic Grimpeaux* of Buff. These latter might perhaps be with more propriety classed in the genus Yunx.

GEN. 13. ALCEDO.

Bill, long, strong, straight, and sharp pointed.—*Nostrils*, small, and hid in the feathers.—*Tongue*, short, broad, sharp pointed.—*Legs*, short, three toes forward, one backward, three lower joints of the middle toe joined closely to those of the outmost. This genus includes the King Fishers, which M. Buffon divides into three classes, the Great King Fisher, of which there are five species found in America; the Middle King Fisher, of which there are likewise five species; and the Least King Fisher, of which we believe only one species has been found on the new continent.

GEN. 14. GALEULA.

Of the Jacamars, which constitute this genus, we believe there are only three species known, and all found in South-America; they have been considered by many as a species of the King Fisher, and therefore classed by Linnæus *Alcedo Galbula*. The principal difference in character is in the *legs* being feathered before to the toes, and; the *toes* being disposed, two backward and two forward.

GEN. 15. SITTA.

The characters of this genus are—*Bill*, straight, on the lower mandible a small angle.—*Nostrils*, small, covered with feathers reflected over them.—*Tongue*, short, horny at the edge, and jagged.—*Toes*, three forward, and one backward, the middle toe joined closely at the base to both the outmost.—*Back toe* as large as the middle one. The chief birds which form this genus are the Nuthatches, of which there are five species found in America, two of which are common in the United States.

GEN. 16. TODUS.

Bill, thin, depressed, broad, base beset with bristles.—*Nostrils*, small.—*Toes*, three forward, one backward, connected like those of the King Fisher. This genus contains the Todies, of which there are eight or nine species known, all natives of the warm parts of America, or the West-India islands.

GEN. 17. MEROPS.

The *bill* of this genus is quadrangular, a little incurvated, sharp pointed.—*Nostrils*, small, placed near the base.—*Tongue*, slender.—*Toes*, three forward and one backward, the three lower joints of the middle toe closely joined to those of the outmost. This genus contains the Bee Eater, of which five or six species have been found in America.

GEN. 18. UPUPA.

The character of this genus is—*Bill*, arched, long, slender, convex, somewhat blunt and compressed.—*Nostrils*, minute, situated at the base of the bill.—*Tongue*, obtuse, entire, triangular, and short.—*Toes*, three forward and one backward, middle toe closely united at the base to the outmost. This genus contains the Hoopoes and the Promerops, but there are only two species of the latter found in America, and these in the southern parts.

GEN. 19. CETHIA.

Characters of this genus are—*Bills*, very slender, weak, and incurvated.—*Nostrils*, small.—*Tongue*, not so long as the bill, hard, and sharp at the point.—*Toes*, three forward and one backward, back toe large.—*Claws*, long and hooked. This genus contains the birds commonly called Creepers, of which there are twenty species known on the American continent.

GEN. 20. TROCHILUS.

Bill, slender and weak; in some straight, in others incurvated.—*Nostrils*, minute.—*Tongue*, very long, formed of two conjoined cylindrical tubes, missile.—*Toes*, three forward, one backward,—*Tail* consists of ten feathers.

This genus comprehends the various Humming Birds, or Honey Suckers, which form a numerous class, not less than fifty-six species are found in the different parts of the new continent.

ORDER III. GALLINACEOUS.

Heavy bodies, short wings, very convex; strong, arched, short bills; the upper mandible shutting over the edges of the lower.

The flesh delicate and of excellent nutriment; strong legs; toes joined at the base, as far as the first joint, by a strong membrane. Claws broad, formed for scratching up the ground. More than twelve feathers in the tail.

Granivorous, feminivorous, insectivorous, swift runners, of short flight; often polygamous, very prolific, lay their eggs on the bare ground. Sonorous, querelous, and pugnacious.

Or, with bills slightly convex; granivorous, feminivorous, insectivorous; long legs, naked above the knees: the genus that connects the land and the water-fowl. Agreeing with the cloven-footed water-fowl in the length and nakedness of the legs, and the fewness of its eggs: disagreeing in place, food, and form of bill, and number of feathers in the tail.

GEN. 1. PHASIANUS.

This genus includes the cock and the pheasants; the former are domesticated in all the settled parts of America; of the latter there are eight species known on the continent, all natives of South-America.

Characters of the pheasant are---*Bill*, convex, short and strong---*Nostrils*, small---*Tail*, bending downwards.

GEN. 2. MELAGRIS.

This genus contains the turkey, of which but one species is known, and that, though domesticated in most countries, is a native of North-America---*Bill*, convex, short and strong---*Nostrils*, open, pointed at one end, lodged in a membrane---*Tongue*, sloped on both sides toward the end and pointed---*Head* and *Neck*, covered with a naked tuberoso flesh, with a long fleshy appendage hanging from the base of the upper mandible---*Tail*, broad, consisting of eighteen feathers extensible.

GEN. 3. CRAX.

The curaffo forms this genus as well as the PENELOPE. The characters are---*Bill*, convex, strong and thick, the base covered with a cere often mounted with a large nob---*Nostrils*, small, lodged in the cere---*Head*, sometimes adorned with a crest of feathers curling forwards---*Tail*, large and straight. There are four species of this genus, and three of the penelope found in South-America. The most essential difference in the two genuses is, that the *Bill* in those of the penelope is naked at the base.

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GEN. 4. TETRAO.

This genus includes three subdivisions: 1. The grouse and ptarmigans.--*Bill*, convex, strong and short; a naked scarlet skin above each eye.--*Nostrils*, small and hid in the feathers.--*Tongue*, pointed.--*Legs*, feathered to the toes. Of these there are seven species, found in the coldest parts of North-America.

2. The partridges and quails; these have no naked skin above the eyes.--The *Nostrils* are covered with a callous prominent rim; and the *Legs* naked, with the exception of two species. Of these there are eight species found in the temperate and warm parts of America.

3. The tinamous, which are peculiar to South-America, and of which five species are known. These birds resemble the pheasants in their habits.--*Bill*, long and blunt at the tip.--*Nostrils*, placed in the middle with a very wide gap.--*Throat*, sprinkled with feathers.--*Tail*, very short.--*Hind Toe*, curtailed and useless for running.

GEN. 5. PSOPHIA.

This genus includes two species of a bird called the trumpeter, one of which is found in Africa, and one in South-America; the latter is called the agmi or golden-breasted trumpeter, of which there is a beautiful specimen in the Leverian Museum. Character of this genus--*Bill*, short, upper mandible a little convex--*Nostrils*, oblong, sunk and pervious.--*Tongue*, cartilaginous, flat, torn or fringed at the end.--*Legs*, naked a little above the knees.--*Toes*, three before and one behind, with a round protuberance beneath the hind toe, which is at a small distance from the ground.

ORDER IV. COLUMBINE.

Bill, weak, slender, straight at the base, with a soft protuberant substance, in which the nostrils are lodged.--*Tongue*, entire.--*Legs*, short and red.--*Toes*, divided to the origin. Swift and distant flight, walking pace. Plaintive note, or *cooing*, peculiar to the order. The male inflates or swells up its breast in courtship. Female lays but two eggs at a time. Male and female sit alternately, and feed their young, ejecting the meat out of their stomachs into the mouths of the nestlings. Granivorous, seminivorous. The nest simple, in trees, or holes of rocks, or walls.

GEN. 1. COLUMBIA.

There is only one genus of this order; it is therefore needless to repeat the characters; it includes the pigeons and turtles, of which there are known in different parts of America twelve species.

ORDER

ORDER V. PASSERINE.

Bodys, from the size of a thrush to that of the golden-crested wren. The enliveners of the woods and fields; sprightly and much in motion; their nests very artificial; monogamous, baccivorous, granivorous, feminivorous, insectivorous; their usual pace hopping, of a few running. Short flyers, except on their migrations only. All have three toes before, one behind.

GEN. 1. STURNUS.

Bill, straight, depressed.—*Nostrils*, guarded above by a prominent rim.—*Tongue*, hard and cloven.—*Toes*, middle toe joined to the outmost as far as the first joint. The staves constitute this genus, of which six species only are found in America.

GEN. 2. TURDUS.

Bill, straight, obtusely corinated at top, bending a little at the point, and slightly notched near the end of the upper mandible.—*Nostrils*, oval and naked.—*Tongue*, slightly jagged at the end.—*Toes*, the middle toe joined to the outmost as far as the first joint.—*Back toe*, very large. This genus includes the thrushes and blackbirds, of which there are twenty-eight species known in America. To this genus we must also assign a race of birds chiefly found in South-America, called *ANTERS*, on account of their feeding on that insect; they are designated American and nightingale anters; of the former there are eight species known, beside varieties, of the latter only two. Latham considers the whole as different species of the thrush, and Gmelin is evidently of the same opinion, by ranging them in this genus.

GEN. 3. AMPELIS.

The character of this genus is—*Bill*, straight, a little convex above and bending towards the point; near the end of the upper mandible a small notch on each side.—*Nostrils*, hid in bristles.—*Middle toe*, closely connected at the base to the outmost. This genus comprehends the chattering or cotingas, of which there are ten species known in America.

GEN. 4. LOXIA.

The principal characters of this genus are—*Bill*, conically bunched at the base of the front rounded towards the head, under mandible inflected in its natural margin.—*Nostrils*, placed in the base of the bill, minute and rounded.—*Tongue*, entire.

The birds in America of this genus are the grosbeaks, crossbills, and bulfinches; of the two former there are about twenty species, and of the latter five, known upon the American continent.

GEN. 5. EMBERIZA.

The characters of this genus which includes the buntings are—*Bill*, strong and conic, the sides of each mandible bending inwards; in the roof of the upper a hard knob, of use to break and comminute hard seeds. There are sixteen species of this bird known in America.

GEN. 6. TANGARA.

The tangares which form this genus are almost all of them natives of America; there are only forty-six species known, forty-three of which have been found on that continent. The characters are—*Bill*, conoid, a little inclining towards the point, upper mandible slightly ridged and notched at the end.

GEN. 7. FRINGILLA.

This extensive and multifarious genus includes the finches, canaries, siskins, linnets and sparrows, all of which, the canaries excepted, are found in America, to the amount of near sixty species: the distinguishing character of this genus is the *Bill*, perfectly conic, slender towards the end, and very sharp pointed.

GEN. 8. PHYTOTOMA.

There is only one species of this genus known, which is the *rara* of South-America. Its distinguishing characters are—*Bill*, conical, straight and serrated.—*Nostrils*, oval.—*Tongue*, short and blunt; it screams with a raucous interrupted voice, crops and tears up the tender plants, and makes most destructive visits to gardens.

GEN. 9. MUSCICAPA.

The characters of this genus are—*Bill*, flattened at the base, almost triangular, notched at the end of the upper mandible, and beset with bristles.—*Toes*, divided as far as their origin. The fly-catchers constitute this genus, of which thirty-nine species are known in America.

GEN. 10. ALAUDA.

Bill, short, slender, bending a little towards the end, sharp pointed.—*Nostrils*, covered with feathers and bristles.—*Tongue*, cloven at the end.—*Toes*, divided to the origin.—*Claw* of the back toe very long. This genus is formed of the larks, of which there are, we believe, only six species yet found in America.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION

GEN. 11. MOTACILIA.

The characters of this genus are—*Bill*, awl shaped, straight, the mandibles nearly equal.—*Nostrils*, nearly oval.—*Tongue*, jagged and notched. The birds found in America which are included in this genus are, the wagtail two species; the warblers and wrens eighteen species; the fauvette or petty chaps five species; the fig-eaters twenty-eight species; the pitpits five species; the red start, yellow neck worm-eater, middle bill, Guiana red tail, &c. one or two species each.

GEN. 12. PIPRA.

This genus includes the manakins, of which there are known about twenty-six species, most of them natives of the hot parts of America. Characters—*Bill*, short, strong and hard, slightly incurvated.—*Nostrils*, naked.—*Toes*, the middle closely united with the outmost as far as the third joint.—*Tail*, short.

GEN. 13. PARUS.

Characters—*Bill*, straight, a little compressed, strong, hard, and sharp-pointed.—*Nostrils*, round and covered with bristles reflected over them.—*Tongue*, as if cut off at the end, and terminated by three or four bristles.—*Toes*, divided to their origin; back toe very large and strong. This genus is formed of the titmice, a remarkable prolific race, laying from eighteen to twenty eggs at a hatch. There appears to be about sixteen species known in America.

GEN. 14. HIRUNDO.

The characters of this genus are—*Bill*, short, broad at the base, small at the point, and a little bending.—*Nostrils*, open.—*Tongue*, short, broad and cloven.—*Legs*, short.—*Tail*, forked.—*Wings*, long. It includes the swallows, martins and swifts, of which there are eleven species known in America.

GEN. 15. CAPRIMULGUS.

Bill, short, hooked at the end, and slightly notched near the point.—*Nostrils*, tubular and a little prominent.—*Mouth*, vastly wide; on the edges of the upper part, between the bill and eyes, seven stiff bristles.—*Tongue*, small, entire at the end.—*Legs*, short, feathered before as low as the toes.—*Toes*, joined by a strong membrane as far as the first joint.—*Claw* of the middle toe broad-edged and serrated.—*Tail* consists of ten feathers, not forked. This genus includes the goat suckers, forming fifteen species, fourteen of which according to some, are natives of America, according to others, are nine only.

ORDER VI. STRUTHIOUS.

Very great and heavy bodies. Wings imperfect; very small, and useless for flight, but assistant in running. Flesh coarse and hard of digestion.

Struthious is a new coined word to express this order; for these birds could not be reduced to any of the Linnæan divisions.

This order contains but two genera, the dodo and the ostrich; of the first none have been found in America.

GEN. STRUTHIO.

The characters of this genus are--*Bill*, small, sloping, and a little depressed.--*Wings*, small, unfit for flight.--*Legs*, long, strong, and naked above the knees. It includes the ostrich tribe, being four species, one only of which, the touyou, or grey casowary, is found in America; it is six feet high, and in its habits, &c. is in many respects similar to the ostrich, to which, however, it is much inferior.

 DIV. II. WATER-FOWL.

For the most part migratory, shifting from climate to climate, from place to place, in order to lay their eggs, and bring up their young in full security; the thinly inhabited north is their principal breeding place; returning at stated periods, and, in general, yielding to mankind delicious and wholesome nutriment. All the cloven-footed, or mere waders, lay their eggs on the ground; those with pinnated feet form large nests, either in the water or near it. From the first we must except the heron and the night-heron, which build in trees.

All the web-footed fowl either lay their eggs on the ground, or on the shelves of lofty cliffs; and none perch, except the corvorant, shugg, and one or two species of ducks.

All the cloven-footed water fowl have long necks and long legs, naked above the knees, for the convenience of wading in water in search of their prey. Those that prey on fish have strong bills; those that search for minute insects, or worms that lurk in mud, have

slender weak bills, and olfactory nerves of most exquisite sense; for their food is out of sight.

As the name implies, their toes are divided, some to their origin; others have, between the middle and outmost toe, a small membrane as far as the first joint. Others have both the exterior toes connected to the middlemost in the same manner; and, in a few, those webs reach as far as the second joint; and such are called *Semipalmati*.

Of the web-footed fowl, the *Flamingo*, the *Avocetta* and *Courier*, partake of the nature of both the cloven and web-footed orders; having webbed feet, long legs, naked above the knees, and long necks. The other web-footed water-fowl being very much on the element, have short legs, placed far behind, and long necks; and, when on land (by reason of the situation of their legs) an aukward waddling gait.

The make of the cloven-footed water-fowl is light, both as to skin and bones; that of the web-footed strong.

ORDER I. CLOVEN-FOOTED.

GEN. 1. PLATELEA.

The bird which constitutes this genus is the Spoonbill, of which, according to Linnæus and Brisson, there are three species; but M. Buffon contends that there is only one, and that the other two are varieties: whether varieties or different species, two out of the three are found in South-America and the West-Indies.---The *Bill* is long, broad and thin, the end widening into a form like the bowl of a spoon, rather round at the end.---*Nostrils*, small, placed near the base.---*Tongue*, small and pointed.---*Feet*, semipalmated.

GEN. 2. PALAMEDEA.

The characters of this genus are---*Bill*, bending down at the point, with a horn or with a tuft of feathers erect near the base of the bill.---*Nostrils*, oval.---*Toes*, divided almost to their origin with a very small membrane between the bottoms of each. The bird which constitutes this genus is the screamer, of which there is only two species, found in South-America. The horned screamer has likewise on each wing two long spurs; the horn on its head is three or four inches long, and two or three lines in diameter at the base: of the spurs on the wings, which project forward, and are the apophyses

of the metacarpal bone, rising from the anterior part of these extremities, the upper spur is largest, of a triangular form, two inches long, and nine lines broad at the base, somewhat curved, and terminating in a point; the lower spur is only four lines long, and of the same breadth at its origin.

GEN. 3. MYCTERIA.

Of the Jabirou, which forms this genus, only one species is known; it is an inhabitant of South-America.---*Bill*, long and large, both mandibles bending upwards, the upper triangular.---*Nostrils*, small: according to Marcgrave, no tongue.---*Toes*, divided. The bird is as large as a swan, the neck thick, and the bill in general measures about thirteen inches.

GEN. 4. CANCROMA.

Bill, broad, flat, with a keel along the middle, like a boat reversed.---*Nostrils*, small, lodged in a furrow.---*Toes*, divided. The bird forming this genus is the Boatbill, a bird approaching by its manners the heron tribe. Linnæus mentions two species, but it appears there is only one and two varieties; it is a native of South-America.

GEN. 5. ARDEA.

The characters of this genus are--*Bill*, straight, sharp, long, flattish, with a furrow extending from the nostrils to the tip.---*Nostrils*, linear.---*Tongue*, sharp.---*Feet*, four-toed. This genus contains, the herons, storks, cranes and bitterns: they are ranged in five subdivisions; the crowned, whose bill is scarcely longer than the head; the cranes, whose head is bald; the storks, whose orbits are naked; the herons, whose mid toe is serrated inwards; and those which have the bill gaping in the middle. Of the storks there are two species found in America, and two of the crane; a figure of one of which, the *hooping crane*, we have given.* Of the herons thirty-seven

* It is as tall as our largest cranes, but of a stronger and thicker make, its bill longer, its head bigger; its neck and legs not so slender: all the plumage is white, except the great quills of the wings, which are black, and the head, which is brown; the crown is callous and covered with black hairs, fragging and delicate, under which the reddish skin appears naked; a similar skin covers the cheeks: the tuft of loose feathers in the tail is flat and pendent: the bill is furrowed above, and indented at the edges near the tip; it is brown and six inches long. Catesby has described this bird from an entire skin given him by an Indian, who told him that these birds frequent, in great numbers, the lower parts of the rivers near the sea in the beginning of

Seven species are known on that continent, and nine species of the bittern.

GEN. 6. TANTALUS.

The bird which forms this genus is the Ibis, of which two species only are found on the new continent, and both in the southern part. Characters—*Bill*, long, thick at the base, wholly incurvated.—*Eyes*, lodged in the base.—*Face*, naked.—*Nostrils*, linear.—*Tongue*, short and broad.—*Toes*, connected at the base by a membrane.

GEN. 7. SCOLOPAX.

This genus contains a variety of species, known by the names of Curlews, Whimbrels, Snipes, Woodcocks, Godwits, Red Shanks, Green Shanks and Yellow Shanks. They may all, however, be ranged under two names, Curlews and Snipes; of the former (the characters of which are—*Bill*, long, slender and incurvated.—*Face*, covered with feathers.—*Nostrils*, longitudinal near the base.—*Tongue*, short and sharp pointed.—*Toes*, connected together as far as the first joint by a strong membrane) there are eight species in America; of the latter nineteen species. Characters—*Bill*, long, slender, straight and weak.—*Nostrils*, linear, lodged in a furrow.—*Tongue*, pointed and slender.—*Toes*, divided or very slightly connected; back toe very small.

spring, and return to the mountains in summer. "This fact," says Catesby, "has been since confirmed by a white, who informed me, that these cranes are very noisy, and are seen in the Savannas at the mouth of the Altamaha, and other rivers near St. Augustine in Florida, and also in Carolina, but that they are never found further north."

Yet it is certain that they advance into the higher latitudes; for the same white cranes are found in Virginia, in Canada, and even in Hudson's bay, as Edwards remarks.—The specific character of the hooping crane, *Ardea Americana*, is, "Its top, its nape and its temples, are naked and papillous; its front, its nape, and its primary wing-quills are black; its body is white: the extreme length is five feet seven inches." We extract the following passage relating to these birds from Mr. Pennant's Arctic Zoology: "They make a remarkable hooping noise; this makes me imagine these to have been the birds, whose clamour Captain Philip Amidas (the first Englishman who ever set foot on North-America) so graphically describes, on his landing on the isle of Wokokou, off the coast of North-Carolina. 'When,' says he, 'such a flock of cranes (the most part white) arose under us with such a cry, redoubled by many echoes, as if an army of men had shouted together.' This was in the month of July, which proves, that in those early days this species bred in the then desert parts of the southern provinces, till driven away by population, as was the case with the common crane in England, which abounded in our undrained fens till cultivation forced them entirely to quit our kingdom." Vol. ii. p. 442.

GEN. 8. TRINGA.

The birds found in America in this genus are known by several popular names, as the Turnstone, Knot, Lapwing, Purres, Sandpipers, &c. They may almost all be classed under the name Sandpiper, amounting in the whole to about eleven species. Characters---*Bill*, straight, slender, about an inch and a half long.---*Nostrils*, small.---*Tongue*, slender.---*Toes*, divided, generally the two outmost connected at bottom by a small membrane.

GEN. 9. CHARADRIUS.

Of the Plover, which constitutes this genus, there are ten known species in America.---Characters---*Bill*, straight, short as the head.---*Nostrils*, linear; wants the back toe.

GEN. 10. HEMATOPUS.

A single species constitutes this genus; it is called the Oyster Catcher; common to the old and new continents.---Its *Bill* is long, compressed, and the end cuneated.---*Nostrils*, linear.---*Tongue*, scarce one-third, of the length of the bill.---*Toes*, only three, the middle one joined to the exterior by a strong membrane; by the help of the bill raises limpets from the rocks, and opens oysters, on which it feeds.

GEN. 11. PARRA.

The Jacana's constitute this genus, of which ten species are found in various parts of South-America, chiefly in Brasil.---The *Bill* is slender, sharp-pointed, base carunculated.---*Nostrils*, short, sub-ovated, placed in the middle of the bill.---*Wings*, armed on the front joint with a sharp short spur.---*Toes*, long, four on each foot, armed with very long and short sharp-pointed claws, from which circumstance it has by some been called the Surgeon.

GEN. 12. RALLUS.

Bill, slender, a little compressed and slightly incurvated.---*Nostrils*, small.---*Tongue*, rough at the end.---*Body*, much compressed.---*Tail*, very short. Of the rails, which form this genus, there are seven species found on the new continent.

GEN. 13. FULICA.

The Gallinule or Water-hen forms this genus, of which seven species are found in different parts of the new continent.---The *Bill* of this bird is thick at the base sloping to the point; the upper mandible reaching far up the forehead, and not carneous.---*Body*, compressed.---*Wings*, short and concave.---*Toes*, long and divided to the origin,

origin.---*Tail*, short, about the size of a common pullet six months old.

ORDER II. WITH PINNATED FEET.

This order contains only the Phalarope, the Coot and the Gleebe.

The PHALAROPE. This bird is classed by Linnæus in the tringa genus; but Brisson forms a new genus, under the name of Phalaropus, from the scallops on its toes. There are three species of it found in America.---*Characters*---*Bill*, straight and slender.---*Nostrils*, minute.---*Body* and *Legs* in every respect like the sandpiper.---*Toes*, furnished with scalloped membranes.

The COOT. This bird is found in America as well as in Europe; it frequents ponds and lakes, and may be considered as the beginning of the extensive tribe of true aquatic birds, as it is almost constantly on the water.---Its *Bill* is short, strong, thick at the base, sloping to the end, the base of the upper mandible rising far up the forehead, both mandibles of equal length.---*Nostrils*, inclining to oval, narrow and short.---*Body*, compressed.---*Wings*, short.---*Tail*, short.---*Toes*, long, furnished with broad scalloped membranes. The coot is classed by Linnæus in the fulica of the preceding order, but the scalloped membranes of its feet certainly removes it from that genus, however it may agree in other respects.

The GLEBE. The *Bill* of this bird is strong, slender and sharp-pointed.---*Nostrils*, linear.---*Tongue*, slightly cloven at the end.---*Body*, depressed.---*Feathers*, thick-set, compact, very smooth and glossy.---No tail.---*Wings*, short.---*Legs*, placed very far behind, very thin, or much compressed, doubly serrated behind.---*Toes*, furnished on each side with a broad plain membrane. Linnæus has classed these birds with the web-footed, by the name of Colymbi; but Brisson has separated them, and from the make of their feet, they could not with propriety be classed with them. The Gleebes are divided into two classes, the greater and the chestnut or castagnieux, of each of which there are three species on the new continent.

ORDER III. WEB-FOOTED.

GEN. I. RECURVIROSTRA.

This genus contains the Avosets, of which there are but two species, one of which is found in America. The legs of the avoset, like the flamingo, contrary to most of the web-footed birds, are very long: it has likewise another singular character, viz. the inversion of its bill, which is bent into the arc of a circle; the substance

of

of the *bill* is soft and almost membranous at its tip.—*Head, neck,* and upper part of the *body*, of a pale buff colour; the rest of the lower part of the body, white.—*Back* and *primaries* black; lesser coverts white, greater black; beneath which is a long transverse bar of white.—*Legs*, dusky colour.—*Feet*, femipalmated, the webs bordering on the sides of the toes for a considerable way. It is a native of North-America, and Mr. Pennant imagines they are sometimes found entirely white.

GEN. 2. PHOENICOPTERUS.

This genus includes but one species, the Flammant or Flamingo:—*Bill*, thick, large, bending in the middle forming a sharp angle, the higher part of the upper part carinated, the lower compressed; the edges of the upper mandible sharply denticulated, of the lower transversely fulcated.—*Nostrils*, covered above with a thin plate, pervious, linearly longitudinal.—*Tongue*, cartilaginous and pointed at the end; the middle muscular, base glandular, on the upper part aculated.—*Neck*, very long.—*Head*, large.—*Legs* and *thighs* of a great length.—*Feet*, webbed, the webs extending as far as the claws, but are deeply femilunated.—*Back toe*, very small. When this bird has attained its full growth, it is not heavier than a wild duck, and is yet five feet high.*

GEN. 3. DIOMEA.

Characters—*Bill*, strong, bending in the middle, and hooked at the end of the upper mandible; that of the lower mandible abrupt, and the lower part inclining downwards.—*Nostrils*, opening forward, and covered with a large convex guard.—No back toe. The birds in this genus are the Albatrosses. These birds, which in the bulk of their bodies are superior to all the known species of water-fowl, inhabit the shores, islands and seas within the tropics, along the coast of Chili, and the extremities of America, but it never has been seen in the seas of the northern hemisphere.

GEN. 4. ALCA.

The Auks form this genus, of which there are four species found about the new continent. Characters—*Bill*, thick, strong, convex, and compressed.—*Nostrils*, linear, placed near the edge of the mandible.—*Tongue*, almost as long as the bill.—No back toe.—Black on the back and white beneath.

* Catelby.

GEN. 5. COLYMBUS.

The web-footed birds in this genus, that can be considered as belonging to America, are only one species of the Guillemot and two of the Diver. The characters of the former are---*Bill*, slender, strong and pointed, upper mandible slightly bending towards the end; base covered with short soft feathers.---*Nostrils*, lodged in a hollow near the base.---*Tongue*, slender, almost the length of the bill.---No back toe.---*Colour*, in general, black on the back, and white on the breast. Its weight is about twenty ounces.

The *bill* of the diver is strong and pointed, upper mandible the longest, edges of each bending inwards.---*Nostrils*, linear, upper part divided by a small cutaneous appendage.---*Tongue*, long and pointed, serrated at each side near the base.---*Legs*, very thin and flat.---*Toes*, the exterior the longest, back toe small, joined to the interior by a small membrane.---*Tail*, short. This bird is about the size of a goose.

GEN. 6. RYNCHOPS.

This genus contains only a single species and a variety, both natives of North-America: it is sometimes called the Skimmer, from the manner in which it collects its food on the water with the lower mandible; by others it is called the Shearbill and Cutwater.---The *Bill* of this bird is greatly compressed, lower mandible much larger than the upper.---*Nostrils*, linear and pervious.---A small *back toe*.---*Tail*, a little forked. In its habits and figure it resembles the gulls.

GEN. 7. STERNA.

This genus contains the Terns and the Nodies: of the former there are seven species, all of which are found about the seas of America; of the latter we know of but one common to the same situations; indeed it is nothing but a species of the tern rather smaller. Characters---*Bill*, short, slender and pointed.---*Nostrils*, linear.---*Tongue*, slender and sharp.---*Wings*, very long.---A small *back toe*.---*Tail*, forked.

GEN. 8. LARUS.

The characters of this genus, which comprehends the Gulls and Mews, names which only distinguish this family into the greater and lesser gulls, are---*Bill*, strong, bending down at the point, on the under part of the lower mandible an angular prominency.---*Nostrils*, oblong and narrow, placed in the middle of the bill.---*Tongue*, a little cloven.---*Body*, light.---*Wings*, long.---*Legs*, small, naked above
the

the knees.--*Back toe*, small.--Briffon has eighteen species of this genus, and we are inclined to think them as common to the shores of America as Europe.

GEN. 9. PROCELLARIA.

The Peterel, which forms this genus, inhabits all parts of the ocean; it braves and sports with the most furious storms, and some of the species seem to enjoy those tremendous scenes which sink the courage of the bravest men: they are found in great plenty in the seas near the cape of Good Hope and along the coasts of America, in the same parallels. The characters of this genus are--*Bill*, straight, except at the end, which is hooked.--*Nostrils*, cylindric and tubular.--*Legs*, naked above the knees.--No back toe, but a sharp spur pointing downwards instead.

GEN. 10. MERGUS.

The Merganser is the species that forms this genus; it is found in the north of Europe and north of America.--Its *bill* is slender, a little depressed, furnished at the end with a crooked nail; edges of each mandible very sharply serrated.--*Nostrils*, near the middle of the mandible small and subovated.--*Tongue*, slender.--*Feet*, the exterior toe longer than the middle. The largest birds of this species are between a duck and goose, the smaller about the size of the duck. There are in the whole about seven species known.

GEN. 11. ANAS.

This genus includes the whole of the duck tribe, under the name of Swan, Goose, Duck, Widgeon, Teal, &c. of which near seventy species are known in America; of the species of the swan only one, of the goose ten, the rest ducks, &c. The distinguishing characters of this genus are--*Bill*, strong, broad, flat or depressed, and commonly furnished at the end with a nail, edges marked with sharp lamellæ.--*Nostrils*, small, oval.--*Tongue*, broad, edges near the base fringed.--*Feet*, middle toe the largest.

GEN. 12. PELICANUS.

The birds in this genus which may be said to belong to America, or found in its seas, are the Pelican, of which there are two species and four varieties belonging to that continent: the Boobies, six species; the Frigate or Man of War bird; and, according to the opinion of Buffon, the Garnet. The characters of the pelican are--*Bill*, long and straight, the end hooked or sloping.--*Nostrils*, either entirely wanting, or small and placed in a furrow which runs along the sides of

the bill.—*Face*, naked.—*Gullet*, naked, and capable of great distension.—*Toes*, all four webbed.

GEN. 13. PHAETON.

This genus is formed of the tropic birds; a class of the winged tribe, whose favourite haunts are the sequestered islands of India and America. There are three species known.—The *bill* is compressed slightly sloping down, point sharp, under mandible angular.—*Nostrils*, pervious.—*Toes*, all four webbed.—*Tail*, cuneiform, two middle feathers tapering and extending to a vast length beyond the others.

GEN. 14. PLOTUS.

Characters—*Bill*, long, straight, sharp-pointed.—*Neck*, of a great length.—*Face* and *gullet*, covered with feathers.—*Toes*, all four webbed. The darter or anhinga is the only bird in this genus. We believe there are three species, besides varieties, in the southern part of the new continent.

GEN. 15.

The penguin may be considered as the link between birds and fishes.—Its *bill* is strong and straight, bending only a little towards the point.—*Tongue*, covered with strong, sharp spines, pointing backwards.—*Wings*, very small, pendulous, useless for flight, covered with mere flat shafts.—*Body*, covered with thick, short feathers, with broad shafts placed as compactly as scales.—*Legs*, short and thick, placed entirely behind.—*Toes*, four standing forward, the interior loose, the rest webbed.—*Tail*, consisting of only broad shafts. There are two species found on the coasts of South-America.*

* We noticed at the beginning of this account of American birds, that in the division and orders we had followed Mr. Pennant—the several genera are as classed by Linnæus, except where otherwise mentioned.

REPTILES
OF
AMERICA.

IMPERFECT as the list of American quadrupeds and birds must be confessed to be, those of the reptiles, fishes, and insects must be much more so; few have been the characters who, with leisure and abilities, have possessed the inclination for these researches, and those who have attempted any thing of this kind, have contented themselves with very partial advances, or have found such difficulties as have prevented any great progress; they have, however, done sufficient, we trust, to stimulate others to a farther pursuit, and we may reasonably hope that a few years will open to us a more particular acquaintance with the woods, the marshes, the mountains, and waters of the new continent. The following lists in a more particular manner refer to North-America, though perhaps the greater part are found all over the continent.

DIV. I. PEDATED REPTILES.

TORTOISE.

- | | |
|--|----------------------------|
| Green Tortoise, | Testudo, Mydas, |
| Hawkbill do. | _____ imbricata, |
| Loggerhead do. | _____ marina. <i>Rail.</i> |
| Trunk do. | _____ <i>Catesby.</i> |
| Soft-shelled do. | _____ |
| Serrated do. | _____ |
| Chequered do. | _____ Carolina, |
| Mud do. | _____ |
| Great Land do. called in the United States | Gopher. |

FROG.

Toad,	.	.	Rana, bufo, several species.
Bull-frog,	.	.	———— ocellata,
Water-frog,	.	.	———— <i>Catesby.</i>
Green, tree, frog,	.	.	———— arborea,
Land-frog,	.	.	———— <i>Catesby.</i>
Cinereous,	.	.	————
Bell-frog,	.	.	————
Small green-frog,	.	.	————

LIZARD.

Alligator,*	.	.	Lacerta, crocodylus,
Green-lizard, †	.	.	————

Five-

* This formidable animal has a vast mouth, furnished with sharp teeth; from the back to the end of the tail serrated; skin tough and brown, and covered on the sides with tubercles. Grows to the length of from eighteen to twenty-three feet.

This dreadful species is found in the warmer parts of North-America, and most numerous as we approach the south, and the more fierce and ravenous; yet in Carolina it never devours the human species, but on the contrary, shuns mankind, yet will kill dogs as they swim in the rivers, and hogs which feed in the swamps. It is often seen floating like a log of wood on the surface of the water, and is mistaken for such by dogs, and other animals, which it seizes and draws under water to devour at its leisure. Like the wolf, when pressed by long hunger, it will swallow mud, and even stones, and pieces of wood. They often get into the weirs in pursuit of fish, and do much mischief by breaking them to pieces.

They are torpid during the winter in Carolina, and retire into their dens, which they form by burrowing far under ground; it makes the entrance under water, and works upwards. In spring it quits its retreat, and resorts to the rivers, which it swims up and down, and chiefly seeks its prey near the mouth, where the water is brackish.

It roars and makes a dreadful noise at its first leaving its den, and against bad weather. It lays a vast number of eggs in the sand, near the banks of lakes and rivers, and leaves them to be hatched by the sun: multitudes are destroyed as soon as hatched, either by their own species, or by fish of prey. In South-America the caracara vulture is the instrument of Providence to destroy multitudes, by that means preventing the country from being rendered uninhabitable. Bartram, in his account of his travels, has given a very particular account of these creatures.

† This little creature is totally green; very slender; tail near double the length of the body, and its whole length about five inches.

It inhabits Carolina, is domestic, familiar, and harmless; sports on tables and windows, and amuses by its agility in catching flies; gazes at mankind without concern;

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Five-lined do.	.	.	Lacerta,
Guada do.	.	.	—— iguana,
Blue tail do.	.	.	—— faciata,
Spotted do.	.	.	—— punctata,
Annulated do.	.	.	——
Slender do.	.	.	——
Scorpion do.	.	.	——
Lion do.	.	.	—— sex lineata.

SIREN.

Mud Iguana, or Siren,

DIV. II. WITHOUT FEET.

CROTALUS.

Great Rattle-snake, *	.	.	Crotalus, horridus,
Small do.	.	.	—— duriffus,
Miliary do.	.	.	—— miliarus.

COLUBER.

swells its throat into a protuberance, which it discharges at will. Cold affects the colours; in that uncertain climate, when there is a quick transition, in the same day, from hot to cold, it changes instantly from the most brilliant green to a dull brown. It is sometimes tempted by a gleam of sun to quit its retreat, but by the sudden change of weather, is so enfeebled, as not to be able to return to its hole, and will die with cold.

* This reptile has a brown broad head; yellowish brown back, marked with broad transverse dentated bars of black; scales rough; belly cinereous; the jaws furnished with small sharp teeth; four fangs in the upper jaw, incurvated, large, and pointed, the instruments of death; at the base of each a round orifice, opening into a hollow, that near the end of the tooth appears again in form of a small channel; these teeth may be erected or compressed; when in the action of biting, they force out of a gland near their roots the fatal juice; this is received into the round orifice of the teeth, conveyed through the tube into the channel, and thence with unerring direction into the wound.

The tail is furnished with a rattle, consisting of joints loosely connected; the number uncertain, depending, as is pretended, on the age of the animal, it receiving with every year a new joint. Authors mention forty and seventy.

Rattlesnakes grow to the length of eight feet, and, according to a newspaper account, to fourteen.

They swarm in the less inhabited parts of North-America; now almost extirpated in the populous; none found farther north than the mountains near lake Champlain; but in the south infest South-America, even as far as Brazil. Love woods and lofty hills, especially where the strata are rocky or chalky: the pass near Niagara abounds with them,

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pad wea-
ers, and
hatched,
carrion
eventing
s travels,
length of
and win-
concerns;
swells

COLUBER.

Familiar-snake;	.	.	Coluber, æstivus,
Porracious do.	.	.	—— micterizans,
Crossed do.	.	.	—— simus,
Water-viper,*	.	.	—— punctatus,

Black.

them. Being slow of motion, they frequent the sides of rills, to make prey of frogs, or of such animals that resort there to quench their thirst; are generally found during summer in pairs; in winter, collect in multitudes, and retire beneath the ground, beyond the reach of frost: tempted by the warmth of a spring day, they are often observed to creep out weak and languid: a person has seen a piece of ground covered with them, and killed with a rod between sixty and seventy, till overpowered with the stench, he was obliged to retire.

They couple in August, and then are most dangerous; are viviparous, and bring forth in June, about twelve young ones: between that and September they acquire the length of a foot.

Providence has given mankind a security against the bite of these dreadful reptiles, for it does not often fail warning the passenger of its vicinity, by the rattle of its tail. In fine weather that monition is always given, in wet weather seldom, which gives the Indians a dread of travelling amidst the woods in rainy seasons.

It moves along with the head on the ground; but if alarmed, it flings its body into a circle, coiling itself with the head in the centre erect, and with the eyes flaming in a most terrific manner. Happily it may be easily avoided: it is slow in pursuit, and has not the power of springing at its assailant, like many of the innocent tribe.

It is difficult to speak of its fascinating powers: authors of credit describe the effects. Birds have been seen to drop into its mouth, squirrels descend from their trees, and lewerets run into its jaws. Terror and amazement seem to lay hold on these little animals; they make violent efforts to get away, still keeping their eyes fixed on those of the snake; at length, wearied with their movements, and frightened out of all capacity of knowing the course they ought to take, become at length the prey of the expecting devourer, probably in their last convulsive motion.

Rattlesnakes are apt to frequent houses: every domestic animal on their approach, as if by instinct, takes alarm; dogs bristle, and the poultry crest their feathers; hogs only attack them, feeding on them with impunity. The Indians will also eat their flesh.

The bite is of the most venomous kind; if the wound is on a vein or artery, death ensues as rapid as thought; if in a fleshy part, there are hopes of remedy; the most efficacious, if done in time, is either the burning, or the cutting out the part affected. The symptoms are, nausea, convulsions, spitting of blood, and bloody stools; loss of the use of limbs; swellings, and discoloured skin; fever, deliria; and if the cure takes any length of time, disturbed rest, and dreams of the most horrible kinds.

* This snake has a large head, small neck; fangs in the upper jaw; colour of the head and back dusky; belly fasciated with black and yellow. At the head of the tail a small horny substance.

Inhabits

Black-snake,	.	.	Coluber, constrictor
Coach Whip do.	.	.	—— flagellum
Corn-snake,	.	.	—— fulvius
Black-viper,	.	.	—— prester
Brown do.	.	.	—— luridus
Copper-bellied snake,	.	.	—— erythrogaster
Striated do.	.	.	—— friatulus
Dotted do.	.	.	—— punctatis
White bodied, browe-eyed do.	.	.	—— atropos
Black-snake, with linear rings,	.	.	—— leberis
Hooped do.	.	.	—— doliatus
Dusky do.	.	.	—— fipedon
Vittated do.	.	.	—— firtalis
Penfacola do.	.	.	——
Minute do.	.	.	——
Golden-eyed do.	.	.	——
Mocassin do.	.	.	——
Grey spotted do. of Carolina,	.	.	——
Little brown bead do.	.	.	—— annulatus
Joint do.	.	.	——
Garter do.	.	.	——

ANGUIS.

Glassy snake,	.	.	Anguis ventralis
Chicken do.	.	.	—— maculata
Striped do.	.	.	—— eryx
Blind do.	.	.	—— fragilis
Brownish spotted do.	.	.	—— reticulata
Yellowish white do.	.	.	—— lumbricalis
Hissing do.	.	.	——
Ring do.	.	.	——
Pale-coloured do. with brown belts,	.	.	—— laticauda.

Inhabits Carolina: swims well, and is very dexterous in catching fish. During summer, numbers of them are seen hanging on the boughs of trees over the rivers, watching the approach of fish or fowl, and frequently drop into the boats passing beneath. They plunge on their prey, and pursue it with great swiftness; and as soon as they catch it, swim ashore to devour it: are called the Water Rattlesnake, and are supposed to be as fatal in their bite. The little horn at the tail gives it a dreadful name, as if armed with death at both extremities. The superstitious believe, that by a jerk of that part it can mortally wound any animal, and even cause a tree to wither by transfixing the bark.

BOA.

Hog-nose snake,	.	Boa constrictrix,
Greenish variegated do.	.	— canina,
Large spotted do.	.	— constrictor,*
Murine do.	.	— murina,
Ash-coloured do.	.	— scytale,
Yellow spotted do.	.	— cenchria,
Dusky white do.	.	— enydria,
Pale-coloured do.	.	— hortulana.

* This is an immense animal; it often exceeds thirty-six feet in length; the body is very thick, of a dusky white colour, and its back is interspersed with twenty-four large pale irregular spots; the tail is of a darker colour, and the sides are beautifully variegated with pale spots: besides, the whole body is interspersed with small brown spots. The head is covered with small scales, and has no broad laminae betwixt the eyes, but has a black belt behind the eyes. It wants the large dog-fangs, and of course its bite is not poisonous. The tongue is fleshy and forked. Above the eyes, on each side, the head rises high. The scales of this serpent are all very small, roundish and smooth. The tail does not exceed one-eighth of the whole length of the animal. The Indians, who adore this monstrous animal, use the skin for clothes, on account of its smoothness and beauty. There are several of these skins of the above dimensions preserved, and to be seen in the different museums of Europe; particularly in the library and botanic garden of Upsal in Sweden, which has of late been greatly enriched by Count Grillinborg. The flesh of this serpent is eat by the Indians and the negroes. Piso, Margraave and Kertshper, give the following account of its method of living and catching its prey. It frequents caves and thick forests, where it conceals itself, and suddenly darts out upon strangers, wild beasts, &c. When it chooses a tree for its watching-place, it supports itself by twisting its tail round the trunk or a branch, and darts down upon sheep, goats, tigers, or any animal that comes within its reach. When it lays hold of animals, especially any of the larger kinds, it twists itself several times round their body, and by the vast force of its circular muscles bruises and breaks all their bones: after the bones are broke, it licks the skin of the animal all over, besmearing it with a glutinous kind of saliva. This operation is intended to facilitate deglutition, and is a preparation for swallowing the whole animal. If it be a stag, or any horned animal, it begins to swallow the feet first, and gradually sucks in the body, and last of all the head; when the horns happen to be large, this serpent has been observed to go about for a long time with the horns of a stag sticking out from its mouth: as the animal digests, the horns putrefy and fall off. After this serpent has swallowed a stag or a tiger, it is unable for some days to move; the hunters, who are well acquainted with this circumstance, always take this opportunity of destroying it. When irritated it makes a loud hissing noise. It is said to cover itself over with leaves in such places as stags or other animals frequent, in order to conceal itself from their sight, and that it may the more easily lay hold of them.

N. B. The figure given in the annexed plate, by mistake of the engraver, is improperly called The Black Snake.

TWO-HEADED SNAKE.

This has in general been considered as a monstrous production; but Mr. Morfe says, he is disposed to believe that it is a distinct species; he observes that he has seen one, and received accounts of three others, found in different parts of the United States: one of these was about eight inches long, and both heads, as to every outward appearance, were equally perfect, and branching out from the neck at an acute angle.

F I S H

OF

NORTH-AMERICA.

CETACEOUS FISH.

DOLPHIN.	Porpoise, Grampus, Beluga.	WHALE.	Whale, <i>eight species,</i>
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CARTILAGINOUS FISH.

LAMPREY.	Sea lamprey,	ANGLER.	C. Angler,
RAY.	Thornback, Sting, Skate, Divel,	BALISTE.	Unicorn fish, Old wife, Balifra,
SHARK.	Arrow-headed shark, Saw shark, White shark,	OSTRACION.	S. Ostracion,
STURGEON.	Sturgeon, Huso,	TETRODON.	Prickly tetrodon, Short do. Globe do.
		LUMPUS.	Lump,
		PIPE.	Short pipe.

BONY FISH.

SECT. 1. APODAL.

EEL.	Common eel, Conger eel, Muray eel,	EEL.	Black eel,
		LANCE.	Lance.

SECT. 2. JUGULAR.

COD.	Common cod Frost do. Haddock, Coal fish, Pollock,	COD.	Whiting, Tau, Burbot,
		BLENNY.	P. Blenny.

SECT. 3. THORACIC.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| REMORA. Sucking fish, | CHÆTODON. Scaleless chætodon, |
| CORYPHÆNE. Blue coryphæne, | Rhombard, |
| Parrot do. | Angel, |
| Lineated do. | Noble, |
| BULL-HEAD. Father lasher, | PERCH. Yellow perch, |
| Acadian bull-head, | Rudder do. |
| ZEHUS. Doree, | Dotted do. |
| FLOUNDER. C. Flounder, | Croker, |
| Hollibut, | Eyed perch, |
| Plaice, | Philadelphian do. |
| Sole, | Black do. |
| Lineated flounder, | Margot, |
| Lunated do. | Negro perch, |
| Dentated do. | Black tail do. |
| GILT-HEAD. Snapper, | Venomous do. |
| Pork fish, | Grunter, |
| Porgy, | Striated perch, |
| Silver fish, | Hind, |
| Radiated gilt-head, | Trifurcated perch, |
| Virginian do. | Striped bass, |
| WRASSE. Mutton fish, | Basse, |
| Mangrove do. | Apodal, |
| Hog do. | River perch, |
| Great hog do. | STICKLEBACK. Stickleback, <i>four</i> |
| Cinereous wrasse, | <i>species,</i> |
| Gaper, | Skipjack, |
| Drum fish, <i>four spe-</i> | MACKREL. Mackrel, <i>three species,</i> |
| <i>cies,</i> | Tunny fish, |
| Yellow wrasse, | Bonito, |
| Bone fish, | GURNARD. Flying gurnard. |
| Antient, | |

ABDOMINAL.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------|
| LOCHE. Beardless loche, | PIKE. C. Pike, |
| Bearded do. | Fox pike, |
| AMEA. Bold ame, | Barracanda, |
| SILURE. Felis, | Bory pike, |
| Cat fish, | Carolina pike, |
| Armed silure, | Gar, |
| TEUTHYS. Tang, | Brazilian pike, |

SALMON.	Salmon,	MULLET.	C. Mullet,
	Naymacush,		White mullet,
	Salmon trout,	HERRING.	C. Herring,
	Char,		Thrift,
	Omiscomaycus,		Shad,
	Sea salmon,	CARP.	C. Carp,
	Guiniad,		Dace,
	Sea guiniad,		Roach,
	Smelt,		Bream,
	Slender,		Mimow,
	Capelan,		Gudgeon,
ELC.	Elops,		Sucker,
ARGENTINE.	Bahama argentine,		Mummy chog,
ATHERINE.	Atherine,		Minute, &c.
POLYNEME.	Virginian polyneme,		

INSECTS

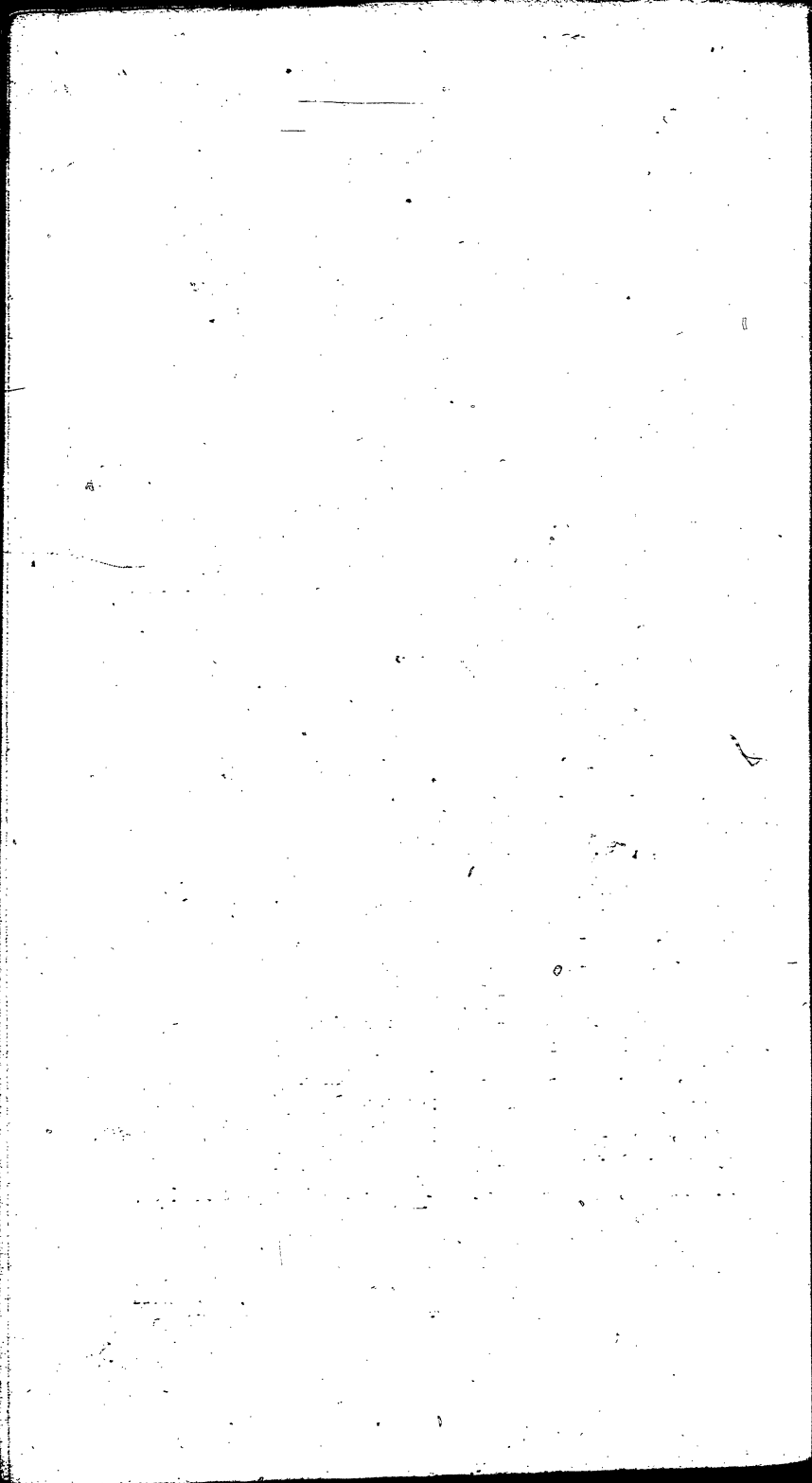
OF

NORTH-AMERICA.

SECT. I. BEETLE.

C HAFER,	Scarabeus,	thirty-one species,
STAG-BEETLE,	Lucanus,	four species,
LEATHER-EATER,	Dermestes,	four species,
MIMIC-BEETLE,	Hister,	unicolor,
WHIRL-BEETLE,	Gyrinus,	Americanus,
CARRION-BEETLE,	Silpha,	seven species,
WEEVIL,	Curculio,	eight species,
NUT-BEETLE,	Attelabus,	two species,
LADY-FLY,	Coccinella,	four species,
GLOW-WORM,	Lampyris,	three species,
SEED-BEETLE,	Bruchus Pisi,	<i>Kalm 1173—1177,</i>
GOLDEN-HONEY- BEETLE,	Chrysomela,	twenty-three species,
BLISTER-BEETLE,	Meloë,	three species,
STINKING-BEETLE,	Tenebrio,	four species,
TORTOISE-BEETLE,	Cassida,	two species,
GLOSSY-BEETLE,	Cicindela,	three species,
GROUND-BEETLE,	Carabus,	thirteen species,
BURN-COW,	Buprestis,	four species,
SPRING-BEETLE,	Elater,	four species,
WATER-BEETLE,	Dytiscus,	five species,
SOFTWINGED-BEETLE,	Malacopteryx,	<i>Amer. N. S. Mus. Bl.</i>
	Cantharis,	tropica,
WOOD-BEETLE,	Leptura,	six species,
CAPRICORN-BEETLE,	Cerambyx,	seventeen species,
ROVE-BEETLE,	Staphylinus,	two species,
CLIFT-WINGED- BEETLE,	Necydalis,	collaris. <i>N. S. Mus. Bl.</i>
EARWIG,	Forficula,	auricularia.

SECT.



APPENDIX. No. I.

T R E A T I E S

BETWEEN

HIS MOST CHRISTIAN MAJESTY AND THE THIRTEEN UNITED
STATES OF AMERICA.

TREATY OF AMITY AND COMMERCE.

LOUIS, by the Grace of God, King of France and Navarre, to
all who shall see these presents, greeting:

THE Congress of the Thirteen United States of North-America having, by their Plenipotentiaries residing at Paris, notified their desire to establish with us and our States a good understanding and perfect correspondence, and having for that purpose proposed to conclude with us a *Treaty of Amity and Commerce*: We having thought it our duty to give to the said States a sensible proof of our affection, determining us to accept of their proposals: for these causes, and other good considerations us thereunto moving, we, reposing entire confidence in the abilities and experience, zeal and fidelity for our service, of our dear and beloved Conrad Alexander Gerard, royal syndic of the city of Strasburg, and secretary of our council of state, have nominated, appointed, and commissioned, and by these presents, signed with our hand, do nominate, appoint and commission him our plenipotentiary, giving him power and special command for us and in our name, to agree upon, conclude and sign with the plenipotentiaries of the

2 TREATY OF AMITY AND COMMERCE.

United States, equally furnished in due form with full powers, such Treaty, Convention, and Articles of Commerce and Navigation, as he shall think proper; willing that he act with the same authority as we might or could act, if we were personally present, and even as though he had more special command than what is herein contained; promising in good faith, and on the word of a king, to agree to, confirm, and establish for ever, and to accomplish and execute punctually, all that our said dear and beloved Conrad Alexander Gerard shall stipulate and sign, by virtue of the present power, without contravening it in any manner, or suffering it to be contravened for any cause, or under any pretext whatsoever; and also to ratify the same in due form, and cause our ratification to be delivered and exchanged in the time that shall be agreed on. For such is our pleasure. In testimony whereof we have hereunto set our seal. Done at Versailles this thirtieth day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and seventy-eight, and the fourth year of our reign.

(Signed)

(L. S.)
(Underneath)

LOUIS.
By the King.

GRAVIER DE VERGENNES.

TREATY.

The Most Christian King, and the Thirteen United States of North-America, to wit, New-Hampshire, Massachusetts-bay, Rhode-Island, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina and Georgia, willing to fix in an equitable and permanent manner, the rules which ought to be followed relative to the correspondence and commerce which the two parties desire to establish between their respective countries, states and subjects; his Most Christian Majesty and the said United States have judged, that the said end could not be better obtained, than by taking for the basis of their agreement the most perfect equality and reciprocity, and by carefully avoiding all those burthensome preferences which are usually sources of debate, embarrassment and discontent; by leaving also each party at liberty to make respecting navigation and commerce, those interior regulations which it shall find most convenient to itself, and by founding the advantage of commerce solely upon reciprocal utility, and the just rules of free intercourse; reserving withal to each party the liberty of admitting, at its pleasure, other nations to a par-

participation of the same advantages. It is in the spirit of this intention, and to fulfil these views, that his said Majesty, having named and appointed for his plenipotentiary Conrad Alexander Gerard, royal syndic of the city of Strasburg, secretary of his majesty's council of state; and the United States, on their part, having fully empowered Benjamin Franklin, deputy from the State of Pennsylvania to the General Congress, and president to the convention of the State; Silas Deane, late deputy from the State of Connecticut to the said Congress; and Arthur Lee, counsellor at law; the said respective plenipotentiaries, after exchanging their powers, and after mature deliberation, have concluded and agreed upon the following articles:

Article I. There shall be a firm, inviolable and universal peace, and a true and sincere friendship, between the Most Christian King, his heirs and successors, and the United States of America, and the subjects of the Most Christian King and of the said States, and between the countries, islands, cities and towns, situate under the jurisdiction of the Most Christian King and of the said United States, and the people and inhabitants of every degree, without exception of persons or places, and the terms herein after mentioned, shall be perpetual between the Most Christian King, his heirs and successors, and the said United States.

Art. II. The Most Christian King and the United States engage mutually not to grant any particular favour to other nations, in respect of commerce and navigation, which shall not immediately become common to the other party, who shall enjoy the same favour freely, if the concession was freely made, or on allowing the same compensation, if the concession was conditional.

Art. III. The subjects of the Most Christian King shall pay in the ports, havens, roads, countries, islands, cities or towns of the United States, or any of them, no other or greater duties or imposts, of what nature soever they may be, or by what name soever called, than those which the nations most favoured are or shall be obliged to pay; and they shall enjoy all the rights, liberties, privileges, immunities and exemptions in trade, navigation and commerce, whether in passing from one port in the said States to another, or in going to and from the same, from and to any part of the world, which the said nations do or shall enjoy.

Art. IV. The subjects, people and inhabitants of the said United States, and each of them, shall not pay in the ports, havens, roads,
A 2 islands,

4 TREATY OF AMITY AND COMMERCE.

islands, cities and places under the domination of his Most Christian Majesty in Europe, any other or greater duties or imposts, of what nature soever they may be, or by what name soever called, than those which the most favoured nations are or shall be obliged to pay; and they shall enjoy all the rights, liberties, privileges, immunities and exemptions in trade, navigation and commerce, whether in passing from one port in the said dominions in Europe to another, or in going to and from the same, from and to any part of the world, which the said nations do or shall enjoy.

Art. V. In the above exemption is particularly comprised the imposition of one hundred sous per ton, established in France on foreign ships, unless when the ships of the United States shall load with the merchandise of France for another port of the said dominions; in which case the ships shall pay the duty above mentioned, so long as other nations the most favoured shall be obliged to pay it; but it is understood, that the said United States, or any of them, are at liberty, when they shall judge it proper, to establish a duty equivalent in the same case.

Art. VI. The Most Christian King shall endeavour, by all the means in his power, to protect and defend all vessels and the effects belonging to the subjects, people or inhabitants, of the said United States, or any of them, being in his ports, havens or roads, or on the seas near his countries, islands, cities or towns; and to recover and restore to the right owners, their agents or attornies, all such vessels and effects which shall be taken within his jurisdiction; and the ships of war of his Most Christian Majesty, or any convoy sailing under his authority, shall, upon all occasions, take under their protection all vessels belonging to the subjects, people or inhabitants, of the said United States, or any of them, and holding the same course, or going the same way, and shall defend such vessels as long as they hold the same course, or go the same way, against all attacks, force or violence, in the same manner as they ought to protect and defend the vessels belonging to the subjects of the Most Christian King.

Art. VII. In like manner the said United States, and their ships of war sailing under their authority, shall protect and defend, conformably to the tenor of the preceding article, all the vessels and effects belonging to the subjects of the Most Christian King, and use all their endeavours to recover, and cause to be restored, the
said

said vessels and effects that shall have been taken within the jurisdiction of the said United States, or any of them.

Art. VIII. The Most Christian King will employ his good offices and interpositions with the King or Emperor of Morocco or Fez; the regencies of Algiers, Tunis and Tripoly, or with any of them; and also with every other prince, state or power, of the coast of Barbary in Africa, and the subjects of the said king, emperor, states and powers, and each of them, in order to provide as fully and efficaciously as possible, for the benefit, conveniency and safety of the said United States, and each of them, their subjects, people and inhabitants, and their vessels and effects, against all violence, insults, attacks or depredations, on the part of the said princes and states of Barbary, or their subjects.

Art. IX. The subjects, inhabitants, merchants, commanders of ships, masters and mariners of the states, provinces and dominions of each party respectively, shall abstain and forbear to fish in all places possessed, or which shall be possessed by the other party; the Most Christian King's subjects shall not fish in the havens, bays, creeks, roads, coasts or places, which the said United States hold, or shall hereafter hold; and in like manner the subjects, people and inhabitants of the United States shall not fish in the havens, bays, creeks, roads, coasts or places, which the Most Christian King possesses, or shall hereafter possess; and if any ship or vessel shall be found fishing contrary to the tenor of this treaty, the said ship or vessel, with its lading, (proof being made thereof) shall be confiscated: it is however understood, that the exclusion stipulated in the present article shall take place only so long, and so far, as the Most Christian King, or the United States, shall not in this respect have granted an exemption to some other nation.

Art. X. The United States, their citizens and inhabitants, shall never disturb the subjects of the Most Christian King in the enjoyment and exercise of the right of fishing on the banks of Newfoundland, nor in the indefinite and exclusive right which belongs to them on that part of the coast of that island which is designed by the treaty of Utrecht, nor in the right relative to all and each of the isles which belong to his Most Christian Majesty, the whole conformable to the true sense of the treaties of Utrecht and Paris.

Art. XI. The subjects and inhabitants of the said United States, or any of them, shall not be reputed *aubains* in France, and consequently shall be exempted from the *droit d'aubaine*, or other similar

duty,

6 TREATY OF AMITY AND COMMERCE.

duty, under what name soever; they may by testament, donation, or otherwise, dispose of their goods, moveable and immoveable, in favour of such persons as to them shall seem good; and their heirs, subjects of the United States, residing whether in France or elsewhere, may succeed them, *ab intestat*, without being obliged to obtain letters of naturalization, and without having the effect of this concession contested or impeded, under pretext of any rights or prerogatives of provinces, cities or private persons; and the said heirs, whether such by particular title, or *ab intestat*, shall be exempted from the duty called *droit de detraction*, or other duty of the same kind; saving nevertheless the local rights or duties, as much and as long as similar ones are not established by the United States, or any of them. The subjects of the Most Christian King shall enjoy, on their part, in all the dominions of the said States, an entire and perfect reciprocity, relative to the stipulations contained in the present article: but it is at the same time agreed, that its contents shall not affect the laws made or that may be made hereafter in France, against emigrations, which shall remain in all their force and vigour; and the United States, on their part, or any of them, shall be at liberty to enact such laws, relative to that matter, as to them shall seem proper.

Art. XII. The merchant ships of either of the parties, which shall be making into a port belonging to the enemy of the other ally, and concerning whose voyage and the species of goods on board her there shall be just grounds of suspicion, shall be obliged to exhibit, as well upon the high seas as in the ports and havens, not only her passports, but likewise certificates, expressly shewing that her goods are not of the number of those which have been prohibited as contraband.

Art. XIII. If, by exhibiting of the above said certificates, the other party discover there are any of those sorts of goods which are prohibited and declared contraband, and consigned for a port under the obedience of his enemy, it shall not be lawful to break up the hatches of such ship, or to open any chest, coffers, packs, casks, or any other vessel found therein, or to remove the smallest parcel of her goods, whether such ship belong to the subjects of France, or the inhabitants of the said United States, unless the lading be brought on shore, in the presence of the officers of the court of admiralty, and an inventory thereof made; but there shall be no allowance to sell, exchange, or alienate the same in any manner, until that after due and lawful process shall have been had against such prohibited goods,

goods, and the court of admiralty shall, by a sentence pronounced, have confiscated the same, saving always as well the ship itself, as any other goods found therein, which by this treaty are to be esteemed free; neither may they be detained on pretence of their being as it were infected by the prohibited goods, much less shall they be confiscated as lawful prize. But if not the whole cargo, but only part thereof shall consist of prohibited or contraband goods, and the commander of the ship shall be ready and willing to deliver them to the captor who has discovered them; in such case, the captor having received those goods, shall forthwith discharge the ship, and not hinder her by any means, freely to prosecute the voyage on which she was bound. But in case the contraband merchandises cannot be all received on board the vessel of the captor, then the captor may, notwithstanding the offer of delivering him the contraband goods, carry the vessel into the nearest port, agreeable to what is above directed.

Art. XIV. On the contrary, it is agreed, that whatever shall be found to be laden by the subjects and inhabitants of either party, or any ship belonging to the enemies of the other, or to their subjects, the whole, although it be not of the sort of prohibited goods, may be confiscated in the same manner as if it belonged to the enemy, except such goods and merchandise as were put on board such ship before the declaration of war, or even after such declaration, if so be it were done without knowledge of such declaration; so that the goods of the subjects and people of either party, whether they be of the nature of such as are prohibited or otherwise, which, as is aforesaid, were put on board any ship belonging to an enemy before the war, or after the declaration of the same, without the knowledge of it, shall no ways be liable to confiscation, but shall well and truly be restored without delay to the proprietors demanding the same; but so as that if the said merchandises be contraband, it shall not be any ways lawful to carry them afterwards to any port belonging to the enemy. The two contracting parties agree, that the term of two months being passed after the declaration of war, their respective subjects, from whatever part of the world they come, shall not plead the ignorance mentioned in this article.

Art. XV. And that more effectual care may be taken for the security of the subjects and inhabitants of both parties, that they suffer no injury by the men of war or privateers of the other party, all the commanders of the ships of his Most Christian Majesty and of the said United States, and all their subjects and inhabitants, shall be
forbid

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forbid doing any injury or damage to the other side; and if they act to the contrary they shall be punished, and shall moreover be bound to make satisfaction for all matter of damage, and the interest thereof, by reparation, under the pain and obligation of their persons and goods.

Art. XVI. All ships and merchandise, of what nature soever, which shall be rescued out of the hands of any pirates or robbers on the high seas, shall be brought into some port of either state, and shall be delivered to the custody of the officers of that port, in order to be restored entire to the true proprietor; as soon as due and sufficient proof shall be made concerning the property thereof.

Art. XVII. It shall be lawful for the ships of war of either party, and privateers, freely to carry whithersoever they please the ships and goods taken from their enemies, without being obliged to pay any duty to the officers of the admiralty, or any other judges; nor shall such prizes be arrested or seized when they come and enter the port of each party; nor shall the searchers or other officers of those places search the same, or make examination concerning the lawfulness of such prizes; but they may hoist sail at any time, and depart, and carry their prizes to the places expressed in their commissions, which the commanders of such ships of war shall be obliged to shew. On the contrary, no shelter or refuge shall be given in their ports to such as shall have made prizes of the subjects, people, or property of either of the parties; but if such shall come in, being forced by stress of weather, or the danger of the sea, all proper means shall be vigorously used, that they go out and retire from thence as soon as possible.

Art. XVIII. If any ship belonging to either of the parties, their people, or subjects, shall, within the coasts or dominions of the other, stick upon the sands, or be wrecked or suffer any other damage, all friendly assistance and relief shall be given to the persons shipwrecked, or such as shall be in danger thereof. And letters of safe-conduct shall likewise be given to them for their free and quiet passage from thence, and the return of every one to his own country.

Art. XIX. In case the subjects and inhabitants of either party, with their shipping, whether public and of war, or private and of merchants, be forced through stress of weather, pursuit of pirates or enemies, or any other urgent necessity, for seeking of shelter and harbour, to retreat and enter into any of the rivers, bays, roads, or ports belonging to the other party, they shall be received and treated with all

all humanity and kindness, and enjoy all friendly protection and help; and they shall be permitted to refresh and provide themselves at reasonable rates with victuals and all things needful for the sustenance of their persons, or reparation of their ships, and conveniency of their voyage, and they shall no ways be detained or hindered from returning out of the said ports or roads, but may remove and depart when and whither they please, without any let or hindrance.

Art. XX. For the better promoting of commerce on both sides, it is agreed, that if a war should break out between the said two nations, six months after the proclamation of war shall be allowed to the merchants in the cities and towns where they live, for selling and transporting their goods and merchandises; and if any thing be taken from them, or any injury be done them within that term, by either party, or the people or subjects of either, full satisfaction shall be made for the same.

Art. XXI. No subject of the Most Christian King shall apply for or take any commission or letters of marque for arming any ship or ships to act as privateers against the said United States, or any of them, or against the subjects, people, or inhabitants of the said United States or any of them, or against the property of any of the inhabitants of any of them, from any prince or state with which the United States shall be at war; nor shall any citizen, subject, or inhabitant of the said United States, or any of them, apply for or take any commission or letters of marque for arming any ship or ships to act as privateers against the subjects of the Most Christian King, or any of them, or the property of any of the inhabitants of any of them, from any prince or state with which the United States shall be at war; nor shall any citizen, subject, or inhabitant of the said United States, or any of them, apply for or take any commission or letters of marque for arming any ship or ships to act as privateers against the subjects of the Most Christian King, or any of them, or the property of any of them, from any prince or state with which the said king shall be at war; and if any person of either nation shall take such commission or letters of marque, he shall be punished as a pirate.

Art. XXII. It shall not be lawful for any foreign privateers, not belonging to the subjects of the Most Christian King, nor citizens of the said United States, who have commission from any other prince or state at enmity with either nation, to fit their ships in the ports of either the one or the other of the aforesaid parties, to sell

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what they have taken, or in any other manner whatsoever to exchange their ships, merchandises, or any other lading; neither shall they be allowed even to purchase victuals, except such as shall be necessary for their going to the next port of that prince or state from which they have commissions.

Art. XXIII. It shall be lawful for all and singular the subjects of the Most Christian King, and the citizens, people, and inhabitants of the said United States, to sail with their ships with all manner of liberty and security, no distinction being made who are the proprietors of the merchandise laden thereon, from any port to the places of those who now are or hereafter shall be at enmity with the Most Christian King or the United States. It shall likewise be lawful for the subjects and inhabitants aforesaid to sail with the ships and merchandises aforementioned, and to trade with the same liberty and security from the places, ports, and havens of those who are enemies of both or either party, without any opposition or disturbance whatsoever, not only directly from the places of the enemy aforementioned to neutral places, but also from one place belonging to an enemy to another place belonging to an enemy, whether they be under the jurisdiction of the same prince or under several. And it is hereby stipulated, that free ships shall also have a freedom to carry goods, and that every thing shall be deemed free and exempt which shall be found on board the ships belonging to the subjects of either of the confederates, although the whole lading or any part thereof should appertain to the enemies of either, contraband goods being always excepted. It is also agreed in like manner, that the same liberty be extended to persons who are on board a free ship, with this effect, that although they be enemies to both or either party, they are not to be taken out of that free ship, unless they are soldiers and in actual service of the enemies.

Art. XXIV. This liberty of navigation and commerce shall extend to all kinds of merchandises, except those only which are distinguished by the name of contraband; and under this name of contraband or prohibited goods shall be comprehended arms, great guns, bombs with their fuses and other things belonging to them, cannon ball, gunpowder, match, pikes, swords, lances, spears, halberds, mortars, petards, grenades, saltpetre, muskets, musket ball, bucklers, helmets, breast plates, coats of mail, and the like kinds of arms proper for arming soldiers; musket rests, belts, horses with their furniture, and all other warlike instruments whatever.

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These merchandises which follow shall not be reckoned among contraband or prohibited goods; that is to say, all sorts of clothes, and all other manufactures woven of any wool, flax, silk, cotton, or any other materials whatever; all kinds of wearing apparel, together with the species whereof they are used to be made, gold and silver, as well coined as uncoined, tin, iron, latten, copper, brass, coals; as also wheat and barley, and any other kind of corn or pulse, tobacco, and likewise all manner of spices, salted and smoaked flesh, salted fish, cheese and butter, beer, oils, wines, sugars, and all sorts of salts, and in general all provisions which serve for the nourishment of mankind and the sustenance of life: furthermore, all kinds of cotton, hemp, flax, tar, pitch, ropes, cables, sails, sail-cloth, anchors, and any parts of anchors, also ships masts, planks, boards and beams of what trees soever, and all other things proper either for building or repairing ships, and all other goods whatever which have not been worked into the form of any instrument or thing prepared for war by land or sea, shall not be reputed contraband, much less such as have been already wrought up for any other use; all of which shall be wholly reckoned among free goods; as likewise all other merchandises and things which are not comprehended and particularly mentioned in the foregoing enumeration of contraband goods, so that they may be transported and carried in the freest manner by the subjects of both confederates even to places belonging to an enemy, such towns or places being only excepted as are at that time besieged, blocked up or invested.

Art. XXV. To the end that all manner of dissensions and quarrels may be avoided and prevented on one side and the other, it is agreed, that in case either of the parties hereto should be engaged in war, the ships and vessels belonging to the subjects of people of the other ally must be furnished with sea letters or passports, expressing the name, property, and bulk of the ship, as also the name and place of habitation of the master or commander of the said ship, that it may appear thereby that the ship really and truly belongs to the subjects of one of the parties, which passport shall be made out and granted according to the form annexed to this treaty; they shall likewise be recalled every year, that is, if the ship happens to return home within the space of a year: it is likewise agreed, that such ships being laden are to be provided not only with passports as above mentioned, but also with certificates, containing the several particulars of the cargo, the place whence the

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ship failed, and whither she is bound, that so it may be known whether any forbidden or contraband goods be on board of the same, which certificates shall be made out by the officers of the place whence the ship set sail, in the accustomed form; and if any one shall think it fit or advisable to express in the said certificates the person to whom the goods on board belong, he may freely do so.

Art. XXVI. The ships of the subjects and inhabitants of either of the parties coming upon any coast belonging to either of the said allies, but not willing to enter into port, or being entered into port and not willing to unload their cargoes or break bulk, they shall be treated according to the general rules prescribed or to be prescribed relative to the object in question.

Art. XXVII. If the ships of the said subjects, people or inhabitants of either of the parties shall be met with, either sailing along the coasts or on the high seas, by any ship of war of the other, or by any privateers, the said ships of war or privateers, for the avoiding of any disorder, shall remain out of cannon shot, and may send their boats on board the merchant ship which they shall so meet with, and may enter her to the number of two or three men only, to whom the master or commander of such ship or vessel shall exhibit his passport concerning the property of the ship, made out according to the form inserted in this present treaty; and the ship, when she shall have shewed such passport, shall be free and at liberty to pursue her voyage, so as it shall not be lawful to molest or search in any manner, or to give her chase, or to force her to quit her intended course.

Art. XXVIII. It is also agreed, that all goods, when once put on board the ships or vessels of either of the two contracting parties, shall be subject to no further visitation, but all visitation or search shall be made beforehand, and all prohibited goods shall be stopped on the spot before the same be put on board, unless there are manifest tokens or proofs of fraudulent practice; nor shall either the persons or goods of the subjects of his Most Christian Majesty, or the United States, be put under any arrest, or molested by any other kind of embargo for that cause, and only the subject of that State to whom the said goods have been or shall be prohibited, and who shall presume to sell or alienate such sort of goods, shall be duly punished for the offence.

Art. XXIX. The two contracting parties grant mutually the liberty of having each in the ports of the other, consuls, vice-consuls, agents

agents and commissaries, whose functions shall be regulated by a particular agreement.

Art. XXX. And the more to favour and facilitate the commerce which the subjects of the United States may have with France, the Most Christian King will grant them in Europe one or more free ports, where they may bring and dispose of all the produce and merchandise of the Thirteen United States; and his Majesty will also continue to the subjects of the said States, the free ports which have been and are open in the French islands of America, of all which free ports the said subjects of the United States shall enjoy the use, agreeable to the regulations which relate to them.

Art. XXXI. The present treaty shall be ratified on both sides, and the ratifications shall be exchanged in the space of six months, or sooner, if possible.

In faith whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the above articles both in the French and English languages; declaring, nevertheless, that the present treaty was originally composed and concluded in the French language, and they have thereto affixed their seals.

Done at Paris, this sixth day of February, one thousand seven hundred and seventy-eight.

(L. S.)

C. A. GERARD,

(L. S.)

B. FRANKLIN,

(L. S.)

SILAS DEANE,

(L. S.)

ARTHUR LEE.

Form of the passports and letters which are to be given to the ships and barques, according to the twenty-fifth article of this treaty.

To all who shall see these presents, greeting:

IT is hereby made known, that leave and permission has been given to _____ master and commander of the ship called _____ of the town of _____ burthen _____ tons, or thereabouts, lying at present in the port and haven of _____ and bound for _____ and laden with _____ after that this ship has been visited, and before sailing, he shall make oath before the officers who have the jurisdiction of maritime affairs, that the said ship belongs to one or more of the subjects of the a^t whereof shall be put at the end of these presents; as likewise that he will keep, and cause to be kept by his crew on board, the the marine ordinances and regulations, and enter in the proper office _____ a list,

a list, signed and witnessed, containing the names and surnames, the places of birth and abode of the crew of his ship, and of all who shall embark on board her, whom he shall not take on board without the knowledge and permission of the officers of the marine; and in every port or haven where he shall enter with his ship, he shall shew his present leave to the officers and judges of the marine; and shall give a faithful account to them of what passed and was done during his voyage; and he shall carry the colours, arms and ensign of the King or United States during his voyage. In witness whereof we have signed these presents, and put the seal of our arms thereunto, and caused the same to be countersigned by

at the day of Anno Domini

APPENDIX. No. II.

TREATY OF ALLIANCE,

EVENTUAL AND DEFENSIVE.

LOUIS, by the Grace of GOD, King of France and Navarre, to all who shall see these presents, greeting:

THE Congress of the United States of North-America having, by their plenipotentiaries residing in France, proposed to form with us a defensive and eventual alliance: Willing to give the said States an efficacious proof of the interest we take in their prosperity, we have determined to conclude the said alliance. For these causes, and other good considerations thereto moving, we, reposing entire confidence in the capacity and experience, zeal and fidelity for our service, of our dear and beloved Conrad Alexander Gerard, royal syndic of the city of Strasburg, secretary of our council of state, have nominated, commissioned and deputed, and by these presents, signed with our hand, do nominate, commission and depute him our plenipotentiary, giving him power and special command to act in this quality, and confer, negotiate, treat and agree conjointly with the above-mentioned plenipotentiaries of the United States, invested in the like manner with powers in due form, to determine, conclude and sign such articles, conditions, conventions, declarations, definitive treaty, and any other acts whatever, as he shall judge proper to answer

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answer the end which we propose; promising on the faith and word of a king, to agree to, confirm and establish for ever, to accomplish and execute punctually, whatever our said dear and beloved Conrad Alexander Gerard shall have stipulated and signed in virtue of the present power, without ever contravening it, or suffering it to be contravened for any cause and under any pretext whatever; as likewise to cause our letters of ratification to be made in due form, and to have them delivered, in order to be exchanged at the time that shall be agreed upon. For such is our pleasure. In testimony whereof we have set our seal to these presents. Given at Versailles, the thirtieth day of the month of January, in the year of grace, one thousand seven hundred and seventy-eight, and the fourth of our reign.

(L. S.)

(Signed)

LOUIS.

By the King,

GRAVIER DE VERGENNES.

TREATY.

The Most Christian King and the United States of North-America, to wit, New-Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode-Island, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina, and Georgia, having this day concluded a treaty of amity and commerce, for the reciprocal advantage of their subjects and citizens, have thought it necessary to take into consideration the means of strengthening those engagements, and of rendering them useful to the safety and tranquillity of the two parties; particularly in case Great-Britain, in resentment of that connection, and of the good correspondence which is the object of the said treaty, should break the peace with France, either by direct hostilities, or by hindering her commerce and navigation in a manner contrary to the rights of nations, and the peace subsisting between the two crowns. And his Majesty and the said United States having resolved in that case to join their counsels and efforts against the enterprises of their common enemy;

The respective plenipotentiaries impowered to concert the clauses and conditions proper to fulfil the said intentions, have, after the most mature deliberation, concluded and determined on the following articles:

Article I. If war should break out between France and Great-Britain during the continuance of the present war between the United States

States and England, his Majesty and the said United States shall make it a common cause, and aid each other mutually with their good offices, their counsels and their forces, according to the exigence of conjunctures, as becomes good and faithful allies.

Art. II. The essential and direct end of the present defensive alliance is, to maintain effectually the liberty, sovereignty and independence, absolute and unlimited, of the said United States, as well in matters of government as of commerce.

Art. III. The two contracting parties shall, each on its own part, and in the manner it may judge most proper, make all the efforts in its power against their common enemy, in order to attain the end proposed.

Art. IV. The contracting parties agree, that in case either of them should form any particular enterprize in which the concurrence of the other may be desired, the party whose concurrence is desired shall readily and with good faith join to act in concert for that purpose, as far as circumstances and its own particular situation will permit; and in that case, they shall regulate, by a particular convention, the quantity and kind of succour to be furnished, and the time and manner of its being brought into action, as well as the advantages which are to be its compensation.

Art. V. If the United States should think fit to attempt the reduction of the British power remaining in the northern parts of America, or the islands of Bermudas, those countries or islands, in case of success, shall be confederated with, or dependent upon, the said United States.

Art. VI. The Most Christian King renounces for ever the possession of the islands of Bermudas, as well as of any part of the continent of North-America, which, before the treaty of Paris, in 1763, or in virtue of that treaty, were acknowledged to belong to the crown of Great-Britain, or to the United States, heretofore called British colonies, or which are at this time, or have lately been, under the power of the King and Crown of Great-Britain.

Art. VII. If his Most Christian Majesty shall think proper to attack any of the islands situated in the Gulph of Mexico, or near that Gulph, which are at present under the power of Great-Britain, all the said isles, in case of success, shall appertain to the Crown of France.

Art. VIII. Neither of the two parties shall conclude either truce or peace with Great-Britain, without the formal consent of the other
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first obtained; and they mutually engage not to lay down their arms, until the independence of the United States shall have been formally or tacitly assured, by the treaty or treaties that shall terminate the war.

Art. IX. The contracting parties declare, that being resolved to fulfil each on its own part, the clauses and conditions of the present treaty of alliance, according to its own power and circumstances, there shall be no after-claim of compensation, on one side or the other, whatever may be the event of the war.

Art. X. The Most Christian King and the United States agree to invite or admit other powers, who may have received injuries from England, to make a common cause with them, and to accede to the present alliance, under such conditions as shall be freely agreed to, and settled between all the parties.

Art. XI. The two parties guarantee mutually, from the present time and for ever, against all other powers, to wit, the United States to his Most Christian Majesty, the present possessions of the Crown of France in America, as well as those which it may acquire by the future treaty of peace; and his Most Christian Majesty guarantees, on his part, to the United States, their liberty, sovereignty and independence, absolute and unlimited, as well in matters of government as commerce, and also their possessions, and the additions or conquests that their confederation may obtain during the war, from any of the dominions now or heretofore possessed by Great-Britain in North-America, conformable to the fifth and sixth articles above written; the whole, as their possession, shall be fixed and assured to the said States, at the moment of the cessation of their present war with England.

Art. XII. In order to fix more precisely the sense and application of the preceding article, the contracting parties declare, that in case of a rupture between France and England, the reciprocal guarantee declared in the said article shall have its full force and effect, the moment such war shall break out; and if such rupture shall not take place, the mutual obligations of the said guarantee shall not commence until the moment of the cessation of the present war between the United States and England shall have ascertained their possessions.

Art. XIII. The present treaty shall be ratified on both sides, and ratifications shall be exchanged in the space of six months, or sooner, if possible.

In faith whereof the respective plenipotentiaries, to wit, on the part of the Most Christian King, Conrad Alexander Gerard, royal syndic of the city of Straßburg, and secretary of his Majesty's Council of State; and on the part of the United States, Benjamin Franklin, deputy to the General Congress from the State of Pennsylvania, and president of the Convention of said State; Silas Deane, heretofore deputy from the State of Connecticut; and Arthur Lee, counsellor at law, have signed the above articles both in the French and English languages; declaring, nevertheless, that the present treaty was originally composed and concluded in the French language, and they have hereunto affixed their seals.

Done at Paris this sixth day of February, one thousand seven hundred and seventy-eight.

(L. S.)

C. A. GERARD,

(L. S.)

B. FRANKLIN,

(L. S.)

SILAS DEANE,

(L. S.)

ARTHUR LEE.

A P P E N D I X. No. III.

CONVENTION BETWEEN FRANCE AND AMERICA.

By the President of the United States of America.

A PROCLAMATION.

WHEREAS a convention, for defining and establishing the functions and privileges of the respective consuls and vice-consuls of his Most Christian Majesty and the said United States, was concluded and signed by the plenipotentiaries of his said Most Christian Majesty and of the said United States, duly and respectively authorized for that purpose, which convention is in the form following, viz.

CONVENTION,

Between his Most Christian Majesty and the United States of America, for the purpose of defining and establishing the functions and privileges of their respective consuls and vice-consuls.

His Majesty the Most Christian King and the United States of America having, by the twenty-ninth article of the treaty of Amity and

and Commerce concluded between them, mutually granted the liberty of having, in their respective States and ports, consuls, vice-consuls, agents and commissaries; and being willing, in consequence thereof, to define and establish, in a reciprocal and permanent manner, the functions and privileges of consuls and vice-consuls, which they have judged it convenient to establish of preference, his Most Christian Majesty has nominated the Sieur Count of Montmorin, of St. Herent, marechal of his camps and armies, knight of his orders and of the Golden Fleece, his counsellor in all his councils, minister and secretary of state and of his commandments and finances, having the department of foreign affairs; and the United States have nominated the Sieur Thomas Jefferson, citizen of the United States of America, and their minister plenipotentiary near the king, who, after having communicated to each other their respective full powers, have agreed on what follows:

Art. I. The consuls and vice-consuls, named by the Most Christian King and the United States, shall be bound to present their commissions according to the forms which shall be established respectively by the Most Christian King within his dominions, and by the Congress within the United States. There shall be delivered to them, without any charges, the exequatur necessary for the exercise of their functions: and on exhibiting the said exequatur, the governors, commanders, heads of justice, bodies corporate, tribunals and other officers, having authority in the ports and places of their consulates, shall cause them to enjoy, immediately and without difficulty, the pre-eminences, authority and privileges, reciprocally granted, without exacting from the said consuls and vice-consuls any fees under any pretext whatever.

Art. II. The consuls and vice-consuls, and persons attached to their functions, that is to say, their chancellors and secretaries, shall enjoy a full and entire immunity for their chancery and the papers which shall be therein contained. They shall be exempt from all personal service, from soldier's billets, militia, watch, guard, guardianship, trusteeship, as well as from all duties, taxes, impositions, and charges whatsoever, except on the estate real and personal of which they may be the proprietors or possessors, which shall be subject to the taxes imposed on the estates of all other individuals: and in all other instances, they shall be subject to the laws of the land, as the natives are. Those of the said consuls and vice-consuls, who shall exercise commerce, shall be respectively subject to all taxes,

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charges and impositions, established on other merchants. They shall place over the outward door of their house, the arms of their sovereign; but this mark of indication shall not give to the said house any privilege of asylum for any person or property whatsoever.

Art. III. The respective consuls and vice-consuls may establish agents in the different ports and places of their departments, where necessity shall require. These agents may be chosen among the merchants, either national or foreign, and furnished with a commission from one of the said consuls. They shall confine themselves respectively to the rendering to their respective merchants, navigators and vessels, all possible service, and to inform the nearest consul of the wants of the said merchants, navigators and vessels—without the said agents otherwise participating in the immunities, rights and privileges, attributed to consuls and vice-consuls—and without power, under any pretext whatever, to exact from the said merchants any duty or emolument whatsoever.

Art. IV. The consuls and vice-consuls respectively may establish a chancery, where shall be deposited the consular determinations, acts and proceedings, as also testaments, obligations, contracts and other acts, done by or between persons of their nation, and effects left by deceased persons, or saved from shipwreck. They may, consequently, appoint fit persons to act in the said chancery; receive and swear them in; commit to them the custody of the seal, and authority to seal commissions, sentences and other consular acts; and also to discharge the functions of notary and register of the consulate.

Art. V. The consuls and vice-consuls respectively shall have the exclusive right of receiving in their chancery, or on board of vessels, the declarations and all other acts, which the captains, masters, crews, passengers and merchants of their nation may choose to make there, even their testaments and other disposals by last will: and the copies of the said acts, duly authenticated by the said consuls or vice-consuls, under the seal of the consulate, shall receive faith in law, equally as their originals would, in all the tribunals of the dominions of the Most Christian King and of the United States. They shall also have, and exclusively, in case of the absence of the testamentary executor, administrator, or legal heir, the right to inventory, liquidate and proceed to the sale of the personal estate left by subjects or citizens of their nation, who shall die within the extent of their consulate: they shall proceed therein with the assistance of

two merchants of their nation, or, for want of them, of any other at their choice; and shall cause to be deposited in their chancery the effects and papers of the said estates: and no officer, military, judiciary, or of the police of the country, shall disturb them or interfere therein, in any manner whatsoever: but the said consuls and vice-consuls shall not deliver up the said effects, nor the proceeds thereof, to the lawful heirs, or to their order, till they shall have caused to be paid all debts which the deceased shall have contracted in the country: for which purpose the creditors shall have a right to attach the said effects in their hands, as they might in those of any other individual whatever, and proceed to obtain sale of them till payment of what shall be lawfully due to them. When the debts shall not have been contracted by judgment, deed or note, the signature whereof shall be known, payment shall not be ordered but on the creditor's giving sufficient surety, resident in the country, to refund the sums he shall have unduly received, principal, interest and costs: which surety, nevertheless, shall stand duly discharged after the term of one year in time of peace, and of two in time of war, if the demand in discharge cannot be formed before the end of this term, against the heirs who shall present themselves. And in order that the heirs may not unjustly be kept out of the effects of the deceased, the consuls and vice-consuls shall notify his death in some of the gazettes published within their consulate; and that they shall retain the said effects in their hands seven months, to answer all demands which shall be presented; and they shall be bound, after this delay, to deliver to the persons succeeding thereto, what shall be more than sufficient for the demands which shall have been formed.

Art. VI. The consuls and vice-consuls respectively shall receive the declarations, protests and reports, of all captains and masters of their respective nations, on account of average losses sustained at sea; and these captains and masters shall lodge in the chancery of the said consuls and vice-consuls, the acts which they may have made in other ports on account of the accidents which may have happened to them on their voyage. If a subject of the Most Christian King, and a citizen of the United States, or a foreigner, are interested in the said cargo, the average shall be settled by the tribunals of the country, and not by the consuls or vice-consuls; but when only the subjects or citizens of their own nation shall be interested, the respective consuls or vice-consuls shall appoint skilful persons to settle the damages and average.

Art.

Art. VII. In cases where by tempest, or other accident, French ships or vessels shall be stranded on the coasts of the United States; and ships or vessels of the United States shall be stranded on the coasts of the dominions of the Most Christian King; the consul or vice-consul, nearest to the place of shipwreck, shall do whatever he may judge proper, as well for the purpose of saving the said ship or vessel, its cargo and appurtenances, as for the storing and security of the effects and merchandise saved. He may take an inventory of them, without the intermeddling of any officers or the military, of the customs, of justice, or of the police of the country, otherwise than to give to the consuls, vice-consuls, captain and crew of the vessel, shipwrecked or stranded, all the succour and favour which they shall ask of them, either for the expedition and security of the saving and of the effects saved, as to prevent all disturbance. And in order to prevent all kinds of dispute and discussion, in the said cases of shipwreck, it is agreed, that when there shall be no consul or vice-consul to attend to the saving of the wreck, or that the residence of the said consul or vice-consul (he not being at the place of the wreck) shall be more distant from the said place, than that of the competent judge of the country, the latter shall immediately proceed therein with all the dispatch, certainty and precautions, prescribed by the respective laws; but the said territorial judge shall retire, on the arrival of the consul or vice-consul, and shall deliver over to him the report of his proceedings, the expenses of which the consul or vice-consul shall cause to be reimbursed to him, as well as those of saving the wreck. The merchandise and effects saved shall be deposited in the nearest custom-house, or other place of safety, with the inventory thereof, which shall have been made by the consul or vice-consuls, or by the judge who shall have proceeded in their absence, that the said effects and merchandise may be afterwards delivered, (after levying therefrom the costs) and without form of process to the owners, who, being furnished with an order for their delivery from the nearest consul or vice-consul, shall re-claim them by themselves, or by their order, either for the purpose of re-exporting such merchandise, in which case they shall pay no kind of duties of exportation; or for that of selling them in the country, if they be not prohibited there; and in this last case, the said merchandise, if they be damaged, shall be allowed an abatement of entrance duties, proportioned to the damage they have sustained, which

shall be ascertained by the affidavits taken at the time the vessel was wrecked or struck.

Art. VIII. The consuls or vice-consuls shall exercise police over all the vessels of their respective nations; and shall have, on board the said vessels, all power and jurisdiction in civil matters: in all the disputes which may there arise, they shall have an entire inspection over the said vessels, their crews, and the changes and substitutions there to be made: for which purpose they may go on board the said vessels whenever they may judge it necessary. It being well understood, that the functions hereby allowed shall be confined to the interior of the vessels, and that they shall not take place in any case which shall have any interference with the police of the ports where the said vessels shall be.

Art. IX. The consuls and vice-consuls may cause to be arrested the captains, officers, mariners, sailors, and all other persons, being part of the crews of the vessels of their respective nations, who shall have deserted from the said vessels, in order to send them back and transport them out of the country. For which purpose, the said consuls and vice-consuls shall address themselves to the courts, judges, and officers competent; and shall demand the said deserters in writing, proving by an exhibition of the registers of the vessel or ship's roll, that those men were part of the said crews: and on this demand so proved, (saving, however, where the contrary is proved) the delivery shall not be refused: and there shall be given all aid and assistance to the said consuls and vice-consuls for the search, seizure and arrest of the said deserters, who shall even be detained and kept in the prisons of the country, at their request and expense, until they shall have found an opportunity of sending them back. But if they be not sent back within three months, to be counted from the day of their arrest, they shall be set at liberty, and shall be no more arrested for the same cause.

Art. X. In cases where the respective subjects or citizens shall have committed any crime, or breach of the peace, they shall be amenable to the judges of the country.

Art. XI. When the said offenders shall be a part of the crew of a vessel of their nation, and shall have withdrawn themselves on board the said vessel, they may be there seized and arrested by order of the judges of the country: these shall give notice thereof to the consul or vice-consul, who may repair on board, if he thinks proper: but

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this notification shall not, in any case, delay execution or the order in question. The persons arrested shall not afterwards be set at liberty, until the consul or vice-consul shall have been notified thereof; and they shall be delivered to him, if he requires it, to be put again on board of the vessel in which they were arrested, or of others of their nation, and to be sent out of the country.

Art. XII. All differences and suits between the subjects of the Most Christian King in the United States, or between the citizens of the United States within the dominions of the Most Christian King, and particularly all disputes relative to the wages and terms of engagement of the crews of the respective vessels, and all differences of whatever nature they may be, which may arise between the privates of the said crews, or between any of them and their captains, or between the captains of different vessels of their nation, shall be determined by the respective consuls and vice-consuls, either by a reference to arbitrators, or by a summary judgment, and without costs. No officer of the country, civil or military, shall interfere therein, or take any part whatever in the matter; and the appeals from the said consular sentences shall be carried before the tribunals of France, or of the United States, to whom it may appertain to take cognizance thereof.

Art. XIII. The general utility of commerce having caused to be established, within the dominions of the Most Christian King, particular tribunals and forms for expediting the decision of commercial affairs, the merchants of the United States shall enjoy the benefit of these establishments; and the Congress of the United States will provide, in the manner most conformable to its laws, for the establishment of equivalent advantages in favour of the French merchants, for the prompt dispatch and decision of affairs of the same nature.

XIV. The subjects of the Most Christian King, and citizens of the United States, who shall prove by legal evidence, that they are of the said nations respectively, shall, in consequence, enjoy an exemption from all personal service in the place of their settlement.

XV. If any other nation acquires, by virtue of any convention whatever, treatment more favourable with respect to the consular pre-eminences, powers, authority and privileges, the consuls and vice-consuls of the Most Christian King, or of the United States, reciprocally shall participate therein, agreeably to the terms stipulated

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by the second, third and fourth articles of the treaty of Amity and commerce concluded between the Most Christian King and the United States.

Art. XVI. The present convention shall be in full force during the term of twelve years, to be counted from the day of the exchange of ratifications, which shall be given in proper form, and exchanged on both sides within the space of one year, or sooner if possible. In faith whereof, we, ministers plenipotentiary, have signed the present convention, and have thereto set the seal of our arms.

Done at Versailles the fourteenth of November, one thousand seven hundred and eighty-eight.

Signed L. C. De MONTMORIN, (L. S.)
 THOMAS JEFFERSON. (L. S.)

PROCLAMATION.

And whereas the said convention has been duly ratified and confirmed by me on the one part, with the advice and consent of the senate, and by his Most Christian Majesty on the other, and the said ratifications were duly exchanged at Paris on the first day of January in the present year. Now, therefore, to the end that the said convention may be observed and performed with good faith on the part of the United States, I have ordered the premises to be made public, and I do hereby enjoin and require all persons bearing office, civil or military, within the United States, and all others, citizens or inhabitants thereof, or being within the same, faithfully to observe and fulfil the said convention, and every clause and article thereof.

In testimony whereof I have caused the seal of the United States to be affixed to these presents, and signed the same with my hand. Given at the city of New-York, the ninth day of April, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and ninety, and of the sovereignty and independence of the United States the fourteenth.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

By the President,

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

APPENDIX. No. IV.

THE DEFINITIVE TREATY

BETWEEN

GREAT-BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Signed at Paris, September 3, 1783.

In the name of the most holy and undivided Trinity.

IT having pleased the Divine Providence to dispose the hearts of the most serene and most potent prince George the Third, by the grace of God, King of Great-Britain, France and Ireland, defender of the faith, Duke of Brunswick and Lunenburgh, arch-treasurer and prince elector of the holy Roman empire, &c. and of the United States of America, to forget all past misunderstandings and differences, that have unhappily interrupted the good correspondence and friendship which they mutually wish to restore; and to establish such a beneficial and satisfactory intercourse between the two countries, upon the ground of reciprocal advantages and mutual convenience, as may promote and secure to both perpetual peace and harmony; and having, for this desirable end, already laid the foundation of peace and reconciliation, by the provisional articles signed at Paris, on the 30th of November, 1782, by the commissioners empowered on each part, which articles were agreed to be inserted in, and to constitute the treaty of peace proposed to be concluded between the Crown of Great-Britain and the said United States, but which treaty was not to be concluded until terms of peace should be agreed upon between Great-Britain and France, and his Britannic Majesty should be ready to conclude such treaty accordingly; and the treaty between Great-Britain and France having since been concluded, his Britannic Majesty and the United States of America, in order to carry into full effect the provisional articles above mentioned, according to the tenor thereof, have constituted and appointed, that is to say, his Britannic Majesty on his part, David Hartley,

Hartley, Esq. member of the parliament of Great-Britain; and the said United States on their part, John Adams, Esq. late a commissioner of the United States of America, at the court of Versailles, late delegate in Congress from the State of Massachusetts, and chief justice of the said State, and minister plenipotentiary of the said United States, to their High Mightinesses the States-General of the United Netherlands; Benjamin Franklin, Esq. late delegate in Congress from the State of Pennsylvania, president of the convention of the said State, and minister plenipotentiary from the United States of America at the court of Versailles; and John Jay, Esq. late president of Congress, chief justice of the State of New-York, and minister plenipotentiary from the said United States at the court of Madrid; to be the plenipotentiaries for concluding and signing the present Definitive Treaty; who, after having reciprocally communicated their respective full powers, have agreed upon and confirmed the following articles:

Article I. His Britannic Majesty acknowledges the said United States, viz. 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; that he treats with them as such, and for himself, his heirs and successors, relinquishes all claims to the government, propriety, and territorial rights of the same, and every part thereof.

Art. II. And that all disputes, which might arise in future, on the subject of the boundaries of the said United States, may be prevented, it is hereby agreed and declared, that the following are and shall be their boundaries, viz. from the north-west angle of Nova-Scotia, viz. That angle which is formed by a line drawn due north from the source of St. Croix river to the highlands, along the said highlands, which divide those rivers that empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence from those which fall into the Atlantic ocean, to the north westernmost head of Connecticut river; thence down along the middle of that river to the forty-fifth degree of north latitude; from thence by a line due west on said latitude, until it strikes the river Iroquois or Cataraguy; thence along the middle of the said river into lake Ontario; through the middle of said lake until it strikes the communication by water between that lake and lake Erie; thence along the middle of said communication into lake Erie; through the middle of said lake until it arrives at the water

communication between that lake and lake Huron; thence along the middle of said water communication; thence through the middle of said lake to the water communication between that lake and lake Superior: thence through lake Superior northward of the isles Royal and Philipeaux to the Long lake; thence through the middle of said Long lake and the water communication between it and the lake of the Woods, to the said lake of the Woods; thence through the said lake to the most north-western point thereof, and from thence in a due west course to the river Mississippi; thence by a line to be drawn along the middle of the said river Mississippi until it shall intersect the northernmost part of the thirty-first degree of north latitude. South, by a line to be drawn due east from the determination of the line last mentioned in the latitude of thirty-one degrees north of the equator, to the middle of the river Apalachicola or Catahouche; thence along the middle thereof, to its junction with the Flint river; thence strait to the head of St. Mary's river; and thence down along the middle of St. Mary's river to the Atlantic ocean. East, by a line to be drawn along the middle of the river St. Croix, from its mouth in the bay of Fundy, to its source, and from its source directly north to the aforesaid highlands, which divide the rivers that fall into the Atlantic ocean, from those which fall into the river St. Lawrence, comprehending all islands within twenty leagues of any part of the shores of the United States, and lying between lines to be drawn due east from the points where the aforesaid boundaries between Nova-Scotia on the one part, and East-Florida on the other, shall respectively touch the bay of Fundy, and the Atlantic ocean, excepting such islands as now are, or heretofore have been, within the limits of the said province of Nova-Scotia.

Art. III. It is agreed, that the people of the United States shall continue to enjoy, unmolested, the right to take fish of every kind on the Grand Bank, and on all the other banks of Newfoundland, also in the gulph of St. Lawrence, and at all other places in the sea, where the inhabitants of both countries used at any time heretofore to fish. And also, that the inhabitants of the United States shall have liberty to take fish of every kind on such part of the coast of Newfoundland, as British fishermen shall use (but not to dry or cure the same on that island) and also on the coasts, bays and creeks, of all other of his Britannic Majesty's dominions in America; and that the American fishermen shall have liberty to dry and cure fish in any of the unsettled bays, harbours and creeks, of Nova-Scotia,
Magdalen

Magdalen islands, and Labrador, so long as the same shall remain unsettled; but so soon as the same or either of them shall be settled, it shall not be lawful for the said fishermen to dry or cure fish at such settlements, without a previous agreement for that purpose with the inhabitants, proprietors, or possessors of the ground.

Art. IV. It is agreed, that the creditors on either side shall meet with no lawful impediment to the recovery of the full value, in sterling money, of all bona fide debts heretofore contracted.

Art. V. It is agreed, that Congress shall earnestly recommend it to the legislatures of the respective States, to provide for the restitution of all estates, rights and properties, which have been confiscated, belonging to real British subjects; and also of the estates, rights and properties, of persons resident in districts in possession of his Majesty's arms, and who have not borne arms against the said United States; and that persons of any other description shall have free liberty to go to any part or parts of the Thirteen United States, and therein to remain twelve months unmolested, in their endeavours to obtain the restitution of such of their estates, rights and properties, as may have been confiscated; and that Congress shall also earnestly recommend to the several States, a re-consideration and revision of all acts or laws respecting the premises, so as to render the said acts or laws perfectly consistent, not only with justice and equity, but with that spirit of conciliation, which, on the return of the blessings of peace, should universally prevail: and that Congress shall also earnestly recommend to the several States, that the estates, rights and properties, of such last-mentioned persons shall be restored to them, they refunding to any persons who may now be in possession, the bona fide price (where any has been given) which such persons may have paid, on purchasing any of the said lands, rights or properties, since the confiscation. And it is agreed, that all persons, who may have any interest in confiscated lands, either by debts, marriage-settlements, or otherwise, shall meet with no lawful impediment in the prosecution of their just rights.

Art. VI. That there shall be no future confiscations made, nor any prosecutions commenced, against any person or persons, for, or by reason of the part which he or they may have taken in the present war: and that no person shall, on that account, suffer any further loss or damage, either in his person, liberty or property: and that those who may be in confinement on such charges, at the time of the ratification

fication of the treaty in America, shall be immediately set at liberty, and the prosecution, so commenced, be discontinued.

Art. VII. There shall be a firm and perpetual peace between his Britannic Majesty and the said States, and between the subjects of the one and the citizens of the other; wherefore all hostilities, both by sea and land, shall from henceforth cease; all prisoners on both sides shall be set at liberty; and his Britannic Majesty shall, with all convenient speed, and without causing any destruction, or carrying away any negroes, or other property of the American inhabitants, withdraw all his armies, garrisons and fleets, from the said United States, and from every post, place and harbour, within the same, leaving in all fortifications the American artillery that may be therein; and shall also order and cause all archives, records, deeds and papers, belonging to any of the said States, or their citizens, which, in the course of the war, may have fallen into the hands of his officers, to be forthwith restored, and delivered to the proper States and persons to whom they belong.

Art. VIII. The navigation of the river *Mississippi*, from its source to the ocean, shall for ever remain free and open to the subjects of Great-Britain and the citizens of the United States.

Art. IX. In case it should so happen, that any place or territory belonging to Great-Britain, or to the United States, should have been conquered by the arms of either from the other, before the arrival of the said provisional articles in America, it is agreed, that the same shall be restored without difficulty, and without requiring compensation.

Art. X. The solemn ratifications of the present treaty, expedited in good and due form, shall be exchanged between the contracting parties in the space of six months, or sooner, if possible, to be computed from the day of the signature of the present treaty. In witness whereof, we the undersigned, their ministers plenipotentiary, have, in their name, and in virtue of our full powers, signed with our hands the present Definitive Treaty, and caused the seals of our arms to be affixed thereto. Done at Paris, September 3, 1783.

(L. S.)

JOHN ADAMS,

(L. S.)

DAVID HARTLEY,

(L. S.)

B. FRANKLIN,

(L. S.)

JOHN JAY.

APPENDIX. No. V.

TREATY OF AMITY AND COMMERCE

BETWEEN

THEIR HIGH MIGHTINESSES THE STATES GENERAL OF THE UNITED
NETHERLANDS, AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA ;

(TO WIT)

NEW-HAMPSHIRE, MASSACHUSETTS, RHODE-ISLAND AND PROVIDENCE
PLANTATIONS, CONNECTICUT, NEW-YORK, NEW-JERSEY,
PENNSYLVANIA, DELAWARE, MARYLAND, VIRGINIA, NORTH-CAROLINA,
SOUTH-CAROLINA, AND GEORGIA.

THEIR High Mightinesses the States-General of the United Netherlands, and the United States of America, to wit, New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode-Island and Providence plantations, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina and Georgia, desiring to ascertain, in a permanent and equitable manner, the rules to be observed relative to the commerce and correspondence which they intend to establish between their respective States, countries and inhabitants, have judged, that the said end cannot be better obtained, than by establishing the most perfect equality and reciprocity for the basis of their agreement, and by avoiding all those burthen-some preferences, which are usually the sources of debate, embarrassment and discontent ; by leaving also each party at liberty to make, respecting commerce and navigation, such ulterior regulations, as it shall find most convenient to itself ; and by founding the advantages of commerce solely upon reciprocal utility, and the just rules of free intercourse ; reserving withal to each party the liberty of admitting, at its pleasure, other nations to a participation of the same advantages,

On

On these principles, their said High Mightinesses the States-General of the United Netherlands have named for their plenipotentiaries, from the midst of their assembly, Messieurs their deputies for the foreign affairs; and the said United States of America, on their part, have furnished with full powers Mr. John Adams, late commissioner of the United States of America at the court of Versailles, heretofore delegate in Congress from the State of Massachusetts bay, and chief justice of the said State, who have agreed and concluded as follows: to wit,

Article I. There shall be a firm, inviolable and universal peace, and sincere friendship, between their High Mightinesses the Lords the States-General of the United Netherlands and the United States of America, and between the subjects and inhabitants of the said parties, and between the countries, islands, cities and places, situated under the jurisdiction of the said United Netherlands and the said United States of America, their subjects and inhabitants of every degree, without exception of persons or places.

Art. II. The subjects of the said States-General of the United Netherlands shall pay in the ports, havens, roads, countries, islands, cities or places of the United States of America, or any of them, no other nor greater duties or imposts, of whatever nature or denomination they may be, than those which the nations the most favoured are or shall be obliged to pay: and they shall enjoy all the rights, liberties, privileges, immunities and exemptions in trade, navigation and commerce, which the said nations do, or shall enjoy, whether in passing from one port to another in the said States, or in going from any of those ports to any foreign port of the world, or from any foreign port of the world to any of those ports.

Art. III. The subjects and inhabitants of the said United States of America shall pay in the ports, havens, roads, countries, islands, cities or places, of the said United Netherlands, or any of them, no other, nor greater duties or imposts, of whatever nature or denomination they may be, than those which the nations the most favoured are or shall be obliged to pay: and they shall enjoy all the rights, liberties, privileges, immunities and exemptions in trade, navigation and commerce, which the said nations do, or shall enjoy, whether in passing from one port to another in the said States, or from any one towards any one of those ports, from or to any foreign port of the world. And the United States of America, with their subjects and inhabitants, shall leave to those of their High Mightinesses,

nesses, the peaceable enjoyment of their rights in the countries, islands and seas, in the East and West Indies, without any hindrance or molestation.

Art. IV. There shall be an entire and perfect liberty of conscience allowed to the subjects and inhabitants of each party, and to their families: and no one shall be molested in regard to his worship, provided he submits, as to the public demonstration of it, to the laws of the country. There shall be given moreover liberty, when any subjects or inhabitants of either party shall die in the territory of the other, to bury them in the usual burying places, or in decent and convenient grounds, to be appointed for that purpose, as occasion shall require. And the dead bodies of those who are buried shall not in any wise be molested: and the two contracting parties shall provide, each one in his jurisdiction, that their respective subjects and inhabitants may henceforward obtain the requisite certificates, in cases of deaths, in which they shall be interested.

Art. V. Their High Mightinesses the States-General of the United Netherlands, and the United States of America, shall endeavour, by all the means in their power, to defend and protect all vessels and other effects belonging to their subjects and inhabitants respectively, or to any of them, in their ports, roads, havens, internal seas, passages, rivers, and as far as their jurisdiction extends at sea; and to recover, and cause to be restored to the true proprietors, their agents or attorneys, all such vessels and effects which shall be taken under their jurisdiction: and their vessels of war and convoys, in cases when they may have a common enemy, shall take under their protection all the vessels belonging to the subjects and inhabitants of either party, which shall not be laden with contraband goods, according to the description which shall be made of them hereafter, for places with which one of the parties is in peace, and the other at war, nor destined for any place blocked, and which shall hold the same course, or follow the same route: and they shall defend such vessels, as long as they shall hold the same course, or follow the same route, against all attacks, force and violence of the common enemy, in the same manner as they ought to protect and defend the vessels belonging to their own respective subjects.

Art. VI. The subjects of the contracting parties may, on one side and on the other, in the respective countries and States, dispose of their effects by testament, donation or otherwise; and their heirs, subjects of one of the parties, and residing in the country of the

other, or elsewhere, shall receive such successions, even *ab intestato*, whether in person, or by their attorney or substitute, even although they shall not have obtained letters of naturalization, without having the effect of *such commission* contested under pretext of any rights or prerogatives of any province, city or private person: and if the heirs, to whom such successions may have fallen, shall be minors, the tutors, or curators, established by the judge domiciliary, of the said minors, may govern, direct, administer, sell, and alienate the effects fallen to the said minors by inheritance; and in general, in relation to the said successions and effects, use all the rights and fulfil all the functions which belong, by the disposition of the laws, to guardians, tutors and curators; provided, nevertheless, that this disposition cannot take place, but in cases where the testator shall not have named guardians, tutors, curators by testament, codicil or other legal instrument.

Art. VII. It shall be lawful and free for the subjects of each party to employ such advocates, attorneys, notaries, solicitors or factors, as they shall judge proper.

Art. VIII. Merchants, masters and owners of ships, mariners, men of all kinds, ships and vessels, and all merchandises and goods in general, and effects, of one of the confederates, or of the subjects thereof, shall not be seized or detained in any of the countries, lands, islands, cities, places, ports, shores or dominions whatsoever of the other confederate, for any military expedition, public or private use of any one, by arrests, violence, or any colour thereof; much less shall it be permitted to the subjects of either party to take, or extort by force, any thing from the subjects of the other party, without the consent of the owner; which, however, is not to be understood of seizures, detentions and arrests, which shall be made by the command and authority of justice, and by the ordinary methods, on account of debts or crimes, in respect whereof the proceedings must be by way of law, according to the forms of justice.

Art. IX. It is further agreed and concluded, that it shall be wholly free for all merchants, commanders of ships, and other subjects and inhabitants of the contracting parties, in every place subjected to the jurisdiction of the two powers respectively, to manage, themselves, their own business: and moreover, as to the use of interpreters or brokers, as also in relation to the loading or unloading of their vessels, and every thing which has relation thereto, they shall be, on one side and on the other, considered and treated upon

the footing of natural subjects, or, at least, upon an equality with the most favoured nation.

Art. X. The merchant ships of either of the parties, coming from the port of an enemy, or from their own, or a neutral port, may navigate freely towards any port of an enemy of the other ally. They shall nevertheless be held, whenever it shall be required, to exhibit, as well upon the high seas as in the ports, their sea-letters and other documents described in the twenty-fifth article, stating expressly that their effects are not of the number of those which are prohibited as contraband. And not having any contraband goods for an enemy's port, they may freely and without hindrance pursue their voyage towards the port of an enemy. Nevertheless, it shall not be required to examine the papers of vessels convoyed by vessels of war, but credence shall be given to the word of the officer who shall conduct the convoy.

Art. XI. If by exhibiting the sea-letters and other documents described more particularly in the twenty-fifth article of this treaty, the other party shall discover there are any of those sorts of goods which are declared prohibited and contraband, and that they are consigned for a port under the obedience of his enemy; it shall not be lawful to break up the hatches of such ship, nor to open any chest, coffer, packs, casks, or other vessels found therein, or to remove the smallest parcel of her goods, whether the said vessel belongs to the subjects of their High Mightinesses the States-General of the United Netherlands, or to the subjects or inhabitants of the said United States of America, unless the lading be brought on shore in presence of the officers of the court of admiralty, and an inventory thereof made; but there shall be no allowance to sell, exchange or alienate the same, until after that due and lawful process shall have been had against such prohibited goods of contraband, and the court of admiralty, by a sentence pronounced, shall have confiscated the same; saving always as well the ship itself, as any other goods found therein, which are to be esteemed free, and may not be detained on pretence of their being infected by the prohibited goods, much less shall they be confiscated as lawful prize: but on the contrary, when, by the visitation at land, it shall be found, that there are no contraband goods in the vessel, and it shall not appear by the papers, that he who has taken and carried in the vessel has been able to discover any there, he ought to be condemned in all the charges, damages, and interests of them, which he shall have caused, both to the owners

of vessels, and to the owners and freighters of cargoes with which they shall be loaded, by his temerity in taking and carrying them in; declaring most expressly the free vessels shall assure the liberty of the effects with which they shall be loaded, and that this liberty shall extend itself equally to the persons who shall be found in a free vessel, who may not be taken out of her, unless they are military men, actually in the service of an enemy.

Art. XII. On the contrary, it is agreed, that whatever shall be found to be laden by the subjects and inhabitants of either party, on any ship belonging to the enemies of the other, or to their subjects, although it be not comprehended under the sort of prohibited goods, the whole may be confiscated in the same manner as if it belonged to the enemy; except, nevertheless, such effects and merchandises as were put on board such vessel before the declaration of war, or in the space of six months after it; which effects shall not be in any manner subject to confiscation, but shall be faithfully and without delay restored in nature to the owners, who shall claim them, or cause them, to be claimed, before the confiscation and sale; as also their proceeds, if the claim could not be made but in the space of eight months after the sale, which ought to be public: provided, nevertheless, that if the said merchandises are contraband, it shall by no means be lawful to transport them afterwards to any port belonging to enemies.

Art. XIII. And that more effectual care may be taken for the security of subjects and people of either party, that they do not suffer molestation from the vessels of war, or privateers of the other party, it shall be forbidden to all commanders of vessels of war, and other armed vessels of the said States-General of the United Netherlands, and the said United States of America, as well as to all their officers, subjects and people, to give any offence, or do any damage to those of the other party: and if they act to the contrary, they shall be, upon the first complaint which shall be made of it, being found guilty, after a just examination, punished by their proper judges; and moreover, obliged to make satisfaction for all damages and interest thereof, by reparation, under pain and obligation of their persons and goods.

Art. XIV. For further determining of what has been said, all captains of privateers, or fitters out of vessels armed for war, under commission, and on account of private persons, shall be held before their departure, to give sufficient caution before competent judges,
either

either to be entirely responsible for the malversations which they may commit in their cruizes or voyages, as well as for the contraventions of their captains and officers against the present treaty, and against the ordinances and edicts which shall be published in consequence of, and in conformity to it, under pain of forfeiture and nullity of the said commissions.

Art. XV. All vessels and merchandises, of whatsoever nature, which shall be rescued out of the hands of any pirates or robbers, navigating the high seas without requisite commissions, shall be brought into some port of one of the two States, and deposited in the hands of the officers of that port, in order to be restored entire to the true proprietor, as soon as due and sufficient proofs shall be made concerning the property thereof.

Art. XVI. If any ships or vessels, belonging to either of the parties, their subjects or people, shall, within the coasts or dominions of the other, stick upon the sands, or be wrecked, or suffer any other sea damage, all friendly assistance and relief shall be given to the persons shipwrecked, or such as shall be in danger thereof; and the vessels, effects and merchandises, or the part of them which shall have been saved, or the proceeds of them, if, being perishable, they shall have been sold, being claimed within a year and a day by the masters or owners, or their agents or attorneys, shall be restored, paying only the reasonable charges, and that which must be paid in the same case for the salvage by the proper subjects of the country. There shall also be delivered them safe-conducts or passports for their free and safe passage from thence, and to return each one to his own country.

Art. XVII. In case the subjects or people of either party, with their shipping, whether public and of war, or private and of merchants, be forced through stress of weather, pursuit of pirates or enemies, or any other urgent necessity for seeking of shelter and harbour, to retreat and enter into any of the rivers, creeks, bays, ports, roads or shores, belonging to the other party, they shall be received with all humanity and kindness, and enjoy all friendly protection and help; and they shall be permitted to refresh and provide themselves at reasonable rates with victuals, and all things needful for the sustenance of their persons, or reparation of their ships; and they shall no ways be detained or hindered from returning out of the said ports or roads, but may remove and depart, when and whither they please, without any lett or hindrance.

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Art. XVIII. For the better promoting of commerce on both sides, it is agreed, that if a war should break out between their High Mightinesses the States General of the United Netherlands and the United States of America, there shall always be granted to the subjects on each side, the term of nine months, after the date of the rupture, or the proclamation of war, to the end that they may retire with their effects, and transport them where they please; which it shall be lawful for them to do, as well as to sell or transport their effects and goods in all freedom, and without any hindrance, and without being able to proceed, during the said term of nine months, to any arrest of their effects, much less of their persons; on the contrary, there shall be given them, for their vessels and their effects which they would carry away, passports and safe-conducts for the nearest ports of their respective countries, and for the time necessary for the voyage. And no prize, made at sea, shall be adjudged lawful, at least, if the declaration of war was not, or could not be known in the last port which the vessel taken has quitted. But for whatever may have been taken from the subjects and inhabitants of either party, and for the offences which may have been given them in the interval of the said terms, a complete satisfaction shall be given them.

Art. XIX. No subject of their High Mightinesses the States General of the United Netherlands shall apply for, or take any commission, or letters of marque, for arming any ship or ships to act as privateers against the said United States of America, or any of them, or the subjects and inhabitants of the said United States, or any of them, or against the property of the inhabitants of any of them, from any prince or state with which the said United States of America may happen to be at war: nor shall any subject or inhabitant of the said United States of America, or any of them, apply for, or take any commission, or letters of marque, for arming any ship or ships, to act as privateers against the High and Mighty Lords the States General of the United Netherlands, or against the subjects of their High Mightinesses, or any of them, or against the property of any one of them, from any prince or state with which their High Mightinesses may be at war. And if any person of either nation shall take such commission, or letters of marque, he shall be punished as a pirate.

Art. XX. If the vessels of the subjects or inhabitants of one of the parties come upon any coast belonging to either of the said allies, but not willing to enter into port, or being entered into port, and not

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willing to unload their cargoes, or break bulk, or take in any cargo, they shall not be obliged to pay, neither for the vessels, nor the cargoes, any duties of entry in or out, nor to render any account of their cargoes, at least if there is not just cause to presume, that they carry to an enemy merchandises of contraband.

Art. XXI. The two contracting parties grant to each other, mutually, the liberty of having, each in the ports of the other, consuls, vice-consuls, agents and commissaries of their own appointing, whose functions shall be regulated by particular agreements, whenever either party chuses to make such appointments.

Art. XXII. This treaty shall not be understood in any manner to derogate from the ninth, tenth, nineteenth and twenty-fourth articles of the treaty with France, as they were numbered in the same treaty concluded the 6th of February, 1778, and which make the articles ninth, tenth, seventeenth, and twenty-second of the treaty of commerce now subsisting between the United States of America and the crown of France: nor shall it hinder his Catholic Majesty from acceding to that treaty, and enjoying the advantages of the said four articles.

Art. XXIII. If at any time the United States of America shall judge necessary to commence negociations with the king or emperor of Morocco and Fez, and with the regencies of Algiers, Tunis or Tripoli, or with any of them, to obtain passports for the security of their navigation in the Mediterranean sea, their High Mightinesses promise, that upon the requisition which the United States of America shall make of it, they will second such negociations in the most favourable manner, by means of their consuls residing near the said king, emperor, and regencies.

Art. XXIV. The liberty of navigation and commerce shall extend to all sorts of merchandises, excepting only those which are distinguished under the name of contraband, or merchandises prohibited: and under this denomination of contraband, and merchandises prohibited, shall be comprehended only warlike stores and arms, as mortars, amillery, with their artifices and appurtenances, fusils, pistols, bombs, grenades, gunpowder, saltpetre, sulphur, match, bullets and balls, pikes, sabres, lances, halberts, casques, cuirasses, and other sorts of arms; as also, soldiers horses, saddles, and furniture for horses. All other effects and merchandises, not before specified expressly, and even all sorts of naval matters, however proper they may be for the construction and equipment of vessels of

war,

war, or for the manufacture of one or other sort of machines of war, by land or sea, shall not be judged contraband, neither by the letter, nor according to any pretended interpretation whatever, ought they, or can they be comprehended under the notion of effects prohibited or contraband: so that all effects and merchandises which are not expressly before named, may, without any exception, and in perfect liberty, be transported by the subjects and inhabitants of both allies, from and to places belonging to the enemy; excepting only, the places which at the same time shall be besieged, blocked or invested: and those places only shall be held for such, which are surrounded nearly by some of the belligerent powers.

Art. XXV. To the end that all discussion and quarrel may be avoided and prevented, it has been agreed, that in case one of the two parties happens to be at war, the vessels belonging to the subjects or inhabitants of the other ally shall be provided with sea-letters or passports, expressing the name, the property, and the burthen of the vessel, as also the name of the place of abode of the master or commander of the said vessel; to the end that thereby it may appear, that the vessel really and truly belongs to subjects or inhabitants of one of the parties; which passports shall be drawn and distributed according to the form annexed to this treaty. Each time that the vessel shall return, she should have such her passport renewed; or, at least, they ought not to be of more ancient date than two years, before the vessel has been returned to her own country. It has been also agreed, that such vessels being loaded, ought to be provided not only with the said passports or sea-letters, but also with a general passport, or with particular passports, or manifests, or other public documents, which are ordinarily given to vessels outward bound, in the ports from whence the vessels have set sail in the last place, containing a specification of the cargo, of the place from whence the vessels have set sail in the last place, containing a specification of the cargo, of the place from whence the vessel departed, and of that of her destination; or, instead of all these, with certificates from the magistrates, or governors of cities, places and colonies from whence the vessel came, given in the usual form, to the end that it may be known whether there are any effects prohibited or contraband on board the vessels, and whether they are destined to be carried to an enemy's country or not. And in case any one judges proper to express in the said documents, the persons to whom the effects belong,

he may do it freely, without, however, being bound to do it; and the omission of such expression cannot, and ought not to cause a confiscation.

Art. XXVI. If the vessels of the said subjects or inhabitants of either of the parties, sailing along the coasts, or on the high seas, are met by a vessel of war, or privateer, or other armed vessel of the other party; the said vessels of war, privateers or armed vessels, for avoiding all disorder, shall remain without the reach of cannon, but may send their boats on board the merchant vessels which they shall meet in this manner, upon which they may not pass more than two or three men, to whom the master or commander shall exhibit his passport, containing the property of the vessel, according to the form annexed to this treaty: and the vessel, after having exhibited such a passport, sea-letter, and other documents, shall be free to continue her voyage, so that it shall not be lawful to molest her, or search her, in any manner, nor to give her chase, nor to force her to alter her course.

Art. XXVII. It shall be lawful for merchants, captains, and commanders of vessels, whether public and of war, or private and of merchants, belonging to the said United States of America, or any of them, or to their subjects and inhabitants, to take freely into their service, and receive on board of their vessels, in any port or place in the jurisdiction of their High Mightinesses aforesaid, seamen or others, natives or inhabitants of any of the said States, upon such conditions as they shall agree on, without being subject, for this, to any fine, penalty, punishment, process or reprehension whatsoever.

And reciprocally, all merchants, captains and commanders, belonging to the said United Netherlands, shall enjoy in all the ports and places under the obedience of the said United States of America, the same privilege of engaging and receiving seamen or others, natives or inhabitants of any country of the domination of the said States-General: provided, that neither on one side nor the other, they may not take into their service such of their countrymen who have already engaged in the service of the other party contracting, whether in war or trade, and whether they meet them by land or sea; at least, if the captains or masters under the command of whom such persons may be found, will not of their own consent discharge them from their service, upon pain of being otherwise treated and punished as deserters.

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Art. XXVIII. The affair of the refraction shall be regulated in all equity and justice by the magistrates of cities respectively, where it shall be judged that there is any room to complain in this respect.

Art. XXIX. The present treaty shall be ratified and approved by their High Mightinesses the States-General of the United Netherlands, and by the United States of America; and the acts of ratification shall be delivered, in good and due form, on one side and on the other, in the space of six months, or sooner, if possible, to be computed from the day of the signature.

In faith of which, we the deputies and plenipotentiaries of the Lords the States-General of the United Netherlands, and the minister plenipotentiary of the United States of America, in virtue of our respective authorities and full powers, have signed the present treaty, and apposed thereto the seals of our arms.

Done at the Hague, the eighth of October, one thousand seven hundred and eighty-two.

(L. S.)	GEORGE VAN RANDWYCK,
(L. S.)	B. V. SANTHEUVEL,
(L. S.)	P. VAN BLEISWYK,
(L. S.)	W. C. H. VAN LYNDEN,
(L. S.)	D. J. VAN HEECKEREN,
(L. S.)	JOAN VAN RUFFELER,
(L. S.)	T. G. VAN DEDEM, (Tot den Gelder)
(L. S.)	H. T. JASSENS,
(L. S.)	JOHN ADAMS.

THE FORM of the Passport which shall be given to ships and vessels, in consequence of the twenty-fifth article of this treaty.

To all who shall see these presents, greeting :

BE it known, that leave and permission are hereby given to

 master or commander of the ship or
 vessel called _____ of the burthen of _____ tons, or
 thereabouts, lying at present in the port or haven of _____
 bound for _____ and laden with _____ to depart
 and proceed with his said ship or vessel on his said voyage, such ship
 or _____

or vessel having been visited, and the said master and commander having made oath before the proper officer, that the said ship or vessel belongs to one or more of the subjects, people or inhabitants of _____ and to him or them only. In witness whereof we have subscribed our names to these presents, and affixed the seal of our arms thereto, and caused the same to be countersigned by _____ at _____ this _____ day of _____ in the year of our Lord Christ

FORM of the Certificate which shall be given to ships or vessels, in consequence of the twenty-fifth article of this treaty.

WE _____ magistrates or officers of the customs of the city or port of _____ do certify and attest, that on the _____ day of _____ in the year of our Lord _____ C. D. of _____ personally appeared before us, and declared by solemn oath, that the ship or vessel called _____ of _____ tons or thereabouts, whereof _____ of _____ is at present master or commander, does rightfully and properly belong to him or them only: that she is now bound from the city or port of _____ to the port of _____ laden with goods and merchandises hereunder particularly described and enumerated, as follows :

In witness whereof we have signed this certificate, and sealed it with the seal of our office, this _____ day of _____ in the year of our Lord Christ

FORM of the Sea-Letter.

MOST Serene, Serene, Most Puissant, Puissant, High, Illustrious, Noble, Honourable, Venerable, Wise and Prudent, Lords, Emperors, Kings, Republics, Princes, Dukes, Earls, Barons, Lords, Burgo-masters, Schepens, Counsellors, as also Judges, Officers, Justiciaries and Regents of all the good cities and places, whether ecclesiastical or secular, who shall see these presents, or hear them read.

We, Burgo-masters and Regents of the city of _____ make known, that the master of _____ appearing before us, has declared upon oath, that the vessel called _____ of the burthen of about _____ lasts, which he at present navigates, is of the United Provinces, and that no subjects of the enemy have any

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part or portion therein, directly nor indirectly, so may God Almighty help him. And as we wish to see the said master prosper in his lawful affairs, our prayer is to all the before mentioned, and to each of them separately, where the said master shall arrive with his vessel and cargo, that they may please to receive the said master with goodness, and to treat him in a becoming manner, permitting him, upon the usual toll and expenses in passing and repassing, to pass, navigate, and frequent the ports, passes and territories, to the end to transact his business where and in what manner he shall judge proper: whereof we shall be willingly indebted.

In witness and for cause whereof, we affix hereto the seal of this city.

(In the margin.)

By ordinance of the High and Mighty Lords the States-General of the United Netherlands.

APPENDIX. No. VI.

TREATY OF AMITY AND COMMERCE

BETWEEN

HIS MAJESTY THE KING OF PRUSSIA, AND THE THIRTEEN
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

HIS Majesty the King of Prussia, and the United States of America, desiring to fix, in a permanent and equitable manner, the rules to be observed in the intercourse and commerce they desire to establish between their respective countries, his Majesty and the United States have judged, that the said end cannot be better obtained than by taking the most perfect equality and reciprocity for the basis of their agreement.

With this view, his Majesty the King of Prussia has nominated and constituted, as his plenipotentiary, the Baron Frederick William de Thulemeier, his privy counsellor of embassy and envoy extraordinary, with their High Mightinesses the States-General of the United Netherlands: and the United States have, on their part, given full powers to John Adams, Esq. late one of their ministers plenipotentiary.

tiary for negotiating a peace, heretofore a delegate in Congress from the State of Massachusetts, and chief justice of the same, and now minister plenipotentiary of the United States with his Britannic Majesty; Dr. Benjamin Franklin, late minister plenipotentiary at the Court of Versailles, and another of their ministers plenipotentiary for negotiating a peace; and Thomas Jefferson, heretofore a delegate in Congress from the State of Virginia, and governor of the said State, and now minister plenipotentiary of the United States at the Court of his Most Christian Majesty, which respective plenipotentiaries, after having exchanged their full powers, and on mature deliberation, have concluded, settled and signed the following articles:

Article I. There shall be a firm, inviolable and universal peace and sincere friendship between his Majesty the King of Prussia, his heirs, successors and subjects, on the one part, and the United States of America and their citizens, on the other, without exceptions of persons or places.

Art. II. The subjects of his Majesty the King of Prussia may frequent all the coasts and countries of the United States of America, and reside and trade there in all sorts of produce, manufactures and merchandise; and shall pay within the said United States no other or greater duties, charges or fees whatsoever, than the most favoured nations are or shall be obliged to pay; and they shall enjoy all the rights, privileges, and exemptions in navigation and commerce, which the most favoured nation does or shall enjoy; submitting themselves, nevertheless, to the laws and usages there established, and to which are submitted the citizens of the United States and the citizens and subjects of the most favoured nations.

Art. III. In like manner the citizens of the United States of America may frequent all the coasts and countries of his Majesty the King of Prussia, and reside and trade there in all sorts of produce, manufactures and merchandise, and shall pay in the dominions of his said Majesty, no other or greater duties, charges or fees whatsoever, than the most favoured nation is or shall be obliged to pay; and they shall enjoy all the rights, privileges, and exemptions in navigation and commerce, which the most favoured nation does or shall enjoy; submitting themselves nevertheless to the laws and usages there established, and to which are submitted the subjects of his Majesty the king of Prussia, and the subjects and citizens of the most favoured nations.

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Art. IV. More especially each party shall have a right to carry their own produce, manufactures and merchandise, in their own or any other vessels, to any parts of the dominions of the other, where it shall be lawful for all the subjects or citizens of that other freely to purchase them; and thence to take the produce, manufactures and merchandise of the other, which all the said citizens or subjects shall in like manner be free to sell them, paying in both cases such duties, charges and fees only, as are or shall be paid by the most favoured nation. Nevertheless the King of Prussia and the United States, and each of them, reserve to themselves the right where any nation restrains the transportation of merchandise to the vessels of the country of which it is the growth or manufacture, to establish against such nation retaliating regulations; and also the right to prohibit, in their respective countries, the importation and exportation of all merchandise whatsoever, when reasons of state shall require it. In this case, the subjects or citizens of either of the contracting parties shall not import nor export the merchandise prohibited by the other; but if one of the contracting parties permits any other nation to import or export the same merchandise, the citizens or subjects of the other shall immediately enjoy the same liberty.

Art. V. The merchants, commanders of vessels, or other subjects or citizens of either party, shall not, within the ports or jurisdiction of the other, be forced to unload any sort of merchandise into any other vessels; nor to receive them into their own, nor to wait for their being loaded longer than they please.

Art. VI. That the vessels of either party loading within the ports or jurisdiction of the other, may not be uselessly harassed or detained, it is agreed, that all examinations of goods required by the laws, shall be made before they be laden on board the vessel, and that there shall be no examination after; nor shall the vessel be searched at any time, unless articles shall have been laden therein clandestinely and illegally; in which case the person by whose order they were carried on board, or who carried them without order, shall be liable to the laws of the land in which he is: but no other person shall be molested, nor shall any other goods, nor the vessel, be seized or detained for that cause.

Art. VII. Each party shall endeavour, by all the means in their power, to protect and defend all vessels and other effects belonging to the citizens or subjects of the other, which shall be within the
extent

extent of their jurisdiction, by sea or by land; and shall use all their efforts to recover, and cause to be restored to their right owners, their vessels and effects which shall be taken from them within the extent of their said jurisdiction.

Art. VIII. The vessels of the subjects or citizens of either party, coming on any coast belonging to the other, but not willing to enter into port, or being entered into port, and not willing to unload their cargoes or break bulk, shall have liberty to depart, and to pursue their voyage without molestation, and without being obliged to render account of their cargo, or to pay any duties, charges or fees whatsoever, except those established for vessels entered into port, and appropriated to the maintenance of the port itself, or of other establishments for the safety and convenience of navigators, which duties, charges and fees, shall be the same, and shall be paid on the same footing, as in the case of subjects or citizens of the country where they are established.

Art. IX. When any vessel of either party shall be wrecked, foundered, or otherwise damaged on the coasts, or within the dominion of the other, their respective subjects or citizens shall receive, as well for themselves as for their vessels and effects, the same assistance which would be due to the inhabitants of the country where the damage happens, and shall pay the same charges and dues only as the said inhabitants would be subject to pay in a like case; and if the operations of repair shall require that the whole or any part of their cargo be unladed, they shall pay no duties, charges or fees, on the part which they shall relade and carry away. The ancient and barbarous right to wrecks of the sea shall be entirely abolished with respect to the subjects or citizens of the two contracting parties.

Art. X. The citizens or subjects of each party shall have power to dispose of their personal goods within the jurisdiction of the other, by testament, donation or otherwise; and their representatives, being subjects or citizens of the other party, shall succeed to their said personal goods, whether by testament or *ab intestato*, and may take possession thereof, either by themselves, or by others acting for them, and dispose of the same at their will, paying such duties only as the inhabitants of the country, wherein the said goods are, shall be subject to pay in like cases: and in case of the absence of the representative, such care shall be taken of the said goods, and for so long a time, as would be taken of the goods of a native in like case, until the lawful owner may take measures for receiving them. And if question shall

shall arise among several claimants, to which of them the said goods belong, the same shall be decided finally by the laws and judges of the land wherein the said goods are. And where, on the death of any person holding real estate within the territories of the one party, such real estate would, by the laws of the land, descend on a citizen or subject of the other, were he not disqualified by alienage, such subject shall be allowed a reasonable time to sell the same, and to withdraw the proceeds without molestation, and exempt from all rights of detraction on the part of the government of the respective States. But this article shall not derogate in any manner from the force of the laws already published, or hereafter to be published, by his Majesty the King of Prussia, to prevent the emigration of his subjects.

Art. XI. The most perfect freedom of conscience, and of worship, is granted to the citizens or subjects of either party, within the jurisdiction of the other, without being liable to molestation in that respect, for any cause other than an insult on the religion of others. Moreover, when the subjects or citizens of the one party shall die within the jurisdiction of the other, their bodies shall be buried in the usual burying grounds, or other decent and suitable places, and shall be protected from violation or disturbance.

Art. XII. If one of the contracting parties should be engaged in war with any other power, the free intercourse and commerce of the subjects or citizens of the party remaining neuter with the belligerent powers shall not be interrupted. On the contrary, in that case, as in full peace, the vessels of the neutral party may navigate freely to and from the ports, and on the coasts of the belligerent parties, free vessels making free goods; inasmuch that all things shall be adjudged free, which shall be on board any vessel belonging to the neutral party, although such things belong to an enemy of the other: and the same freedom shall be extended to persons who shall be on board a free vessel, although they should be enemies to the other party, unless they be soldiers in the actual service of such enemy.

Art. XIII. And in the same case, of one of the contracting parties being engaged in war with any other power, to prevent all the difficulties and misunderstandings that usually arise respecting the merchandize heretofore called contraband, such as arms, ammunition and military stores of every kind, no such articles, carried in the vessels, or by the subjects or citizens of one of the parties, to the enemies

enemies of the other, shall be deemed contraband, so as to induce confiscation or condemnation and a loss of property to individuals. Nevertheless, it shall be lawful to stop such vessels and articles, and to detain them for such length of time as the captors may think necessary, to prevent the inconvenience or damage that might ensue from their proceeding, paying, however, a reasonable compensation for the loss such arrest shall occasion to the proprietors: and it shall farther be allowed to use in the service of the captors, the whole or any part of the military stores so detained, paying the owners the full value of the same, to be ascertained by the current price at the place of its destination. But in the case supposed, of a vessel stopped for articles heretofore deemed contraband, if the master of the vessel stopped will deliver out the goods supposed to be of contraband nature, he shall be admitted to do it; and the vessel shall not in that case be carried into any port, nor further detained, but shall be allowed to proceed on her voyage.

XIV. And in the same case, where one of the parties is engaged in war with another power, that the vessels of the neutral party may be readily and certainly known, it is agreed, that they shall be provided with sea letters, or passports, which shall express the name, the property, and burden of the vessel, as also the name and dwelling of the master; which passports shall be made out in good and due forms, to be settled by conventions between the parties, whenever occasions shall require; shall be renewed as often as the vessel shall return into port; and shall be exhibited, whenever required, as well in the open sea as in port. ~~But if the said vessel be under convoy of one or more vessels of war, belonging to the neutral party, the simple declaration of the officer commanding the convoy, that the said vessel belongs to the party of which he is, shall be considered as establishing the fact, and shall relieve both parties from the trouble of further examination.~~

XV. And to prevent entirely all disorder and violence in such cases, it is stipulated, that when the vessels of the neutral party, sailing without convoy, shall be met by any vessel of war, public or private, of the other party, such vessel of war shall not approach within cannon shot of the said neutral vessel, nor send more than two or three men in their boat on board the same, to examine her sea letters or passports. And all persons belonging to any vessel of war, public or private, who shall molest or injure, in any manner whatever, the people, vessels, or effects of the other party, shall be re-

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ponsible in their persons and property, for damages and interest; sufficient security for which shall be given by all commanders of private armed vessels, before they are commissioned.

XVI. It is agreed, that the subjects or citizens of each of the contracting parties, their vessels and effects, shall not be liable to any embargo or detention on the part of the other, for any military expedition, or other public or private purpose whatsoever. And in all cases of seizure, detention, or arrest, for debts contracted, or offences committed by any citizen or subject of the one party, within the jurisdiction of the other, the same shall be made and prosecuted by order and authority of law only, and according to the regular course of proceedings usual in such cases.

XVII. If any vessel or effects of the neutral power be taken by an enemy of the other, or by a pirate, and retaken by the other, they shall be brought into some port of one of the parties, and delivered into the custody of the officers of that port, in order to be restored entire to the true proprietor, as soon as due proof shall be made concerning the property thereof.

XVIII. If the citizens or subjects of either party, in danger from tempests, pirates, enemies, or other accident, shall take refuge, with their vessels or effects, within the harbours or jurisdiction of the other, they shall be received, protected, and treated with humanity and kindness, and shall be permitted to furnish themselves at reasonable prices with all refreshments, provisions, and other things necessary for their sustenance, health, and accommodation, and for the repair of their vessels.

XIX. The vessels of war, public and private, of both parties, shall carry freely wheresoever they please, the vessels and effects taken from their enemies, without being obliged to pay any duties, charges, or fees, to officers of admiralty, of the customs, or any others; nor shall such prizes be arrested, searched, or put under legal process, when they come to, and enter the ports of the other party; but may freely be carried out again at any time, by their captors, to the places expressed in their commissions, which the commanding officer of such vessels shall be obliged to shew. But no vessel which shall have made prizes on the subjects of his most Christian Majesty the King of France, shall have a right of asylum in the ports or havens of the said United States: and if any such be forced therein, by tempest or dangers of the sea, they shall be obliged depart as soon as possible, according

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ording to the tenor of the treaties existing between his said Most Christian Majesty and the said United States.

XX. No citizen or subject of either of the contracting parties shall take from any power with which the other may be at war, any commission or letter of marque for arming any vessel to act as privateer against the other, on pain of being punished as a pirate; nor shall either party hire, lend, or give any part of their naval or military force to the enemy of the other, to aid them offensively or defensively against that other.

XXI. If the two contracting parties should be engaged in a war against a common enemy, the following points shall be observed between them:

1st. If a vessel of one of the parties, retaken by a privateer of the other, shall not have been in possession of the enemy more than twenty-four hours, she shall be restored to the first owner for one third of the value of the vessel and cargo: but if she shall have been more than twenty-four hours in the possession of the enemy, she shall belong wholly to the recaptor. 2d. If in the same case the recapture were by a public vessel of war of one party, restitution shall be made to the owner for one thirtieth part of the value of the vessel and cargo, if she shall not have been in the possession of the enemy more than twenty-four hours, and one tenth of the said value where she shall have been longer, which sums shall be distributed in gratuities to the recaptors. 3d. The restitution in the cases aforesaid, shall be after due proof of property, and surety given for the part to which the recaptors are entitled. 4th. The vessels of war, public and private, of the two parties, shall be reciprocally admitted with their prizes into the respective ports of each; but the said prizes shall not be discharged nor sold there, until their legality shall have been decided, according to the laws and regulations of the state to which the captor belongs, but by the judicatures of the place into which the prize shall have been conducted. 5th. It shall be free to each party to make such regulations as they shall judge necessary, for the conduct of their respective vessels of war, public and private, relative to the vessels which they shall take and carry into the ports of the two parties.

XXII. Where the parties shall have a common enemy, or shall both be neutral, the vessels of war of each shall upon all occasions take under their protection the vessels of the other going the same course, and shall defend such vessels as long as they hold the same

course, against all force and violence, in the same manner as they ought to protect and defend vessels belonging to the party of which they are.

XXIII. If war should arise between the two contracting parties, the merchants of either country, then residing in the other, shall be allowed to remain nine months to collect their debts, and settle their affairs, and may depart freely, carrying off all their effects, without molestation or hindrance: and all women and children, scholars of every faculty, cultivators of the earth, artificers, manufacturers, and fishermen, unarmed and inhabiting unfortified towns, villages or places, and in general all others, whose occupations are for the common subsistence and benefit of mankind, shall be allowed to continue their respective employments, and shall not be molested in their persons; nor shall their houses or goods be burnt, or otherwise destroyed, nor their fields wasted by the armed force of the enemy, into whose power, by the events of war, they may happen to fall: but if any thing be necessary to be taken from them for the use of such armed force, the same shall be paid for at a reasonable price. And all merchant and trading vessels employed in exchanging the products of different places, and thereby rendering the necessaries, conveniences, and comforts of human life more easy to be obtained, and more general, shall be allowed to pass free and unmolested: and neither of the contracting parties shall grant or issue any commission to any private armed vessels, empowering them to take or destroy such trading vessels, or interrupt such commerce.

XXIV. And to prevent the destruction of prisoners of war, by sending them into distant and inclement countries, or by crowding them in close and noxious places, the two contracting parties solemnly pledge themselves to each other, and to the world, that they will not adopt any such practice; that neither will send the prisoners whom they may take from the other, into the East-Indies, or any other parts of Asia or Africa, but that they shall be placed in some part of their dominions in Europe or America, in wholesome situations; that they shall not be confined in dungeons, prison ships, nor prisons, nor be put into irons, nor bound, nor otherwise restrained in the use of their limbs; that the officers shall be enlarged on their paroles within convenient districts, and have comfortable quarters; and the common men be disposed in cantonments, open and extensive enough for air and exercise, and lodged in barracks as roomy and as good as are provided by the party in whose power they are, for their

own troops; that the officers shall also be daily furnished by the party in whose power they are, with as many rations, and of the same articles and quality as are allowed by them, either in kind or commutation, to officers of equal rank in their own army; and all others shall be daily furnished by them with such rations as they allow to a common soldier in their own service, the value whereof shall be paid by the other party, on mutual adjustment of accounts for the sustenance of prisoners at the close of the war: and the said accounts shall not be mingled with, or set off against any others, nor the balances due on them be withheld as a satisfaction or reprisal for any other article, or for any other cause, real or pretended, whatever; that each party shall be allowed to keep a commissary of prisoners of their own appointment, with every separate cantonment of prisoners in possession of the other; which commissary shall see the prisoners as often as he pleases, shall be allowed to receive and distribute whatever comforts may be sent to them by their friends, and shall be free to make his reports in open letters to those who employ him: but if any officer shall break his parole, or any other prisoner shall escape from the limits of his cantonment, after they shall have been designated to him, such individual officer or other prisoner shall forfeit so much of the benefit of this article, as provides for his enlargement on parole or cantonment. And it is declared, that neither the pretence that war dissolves all treaties, nor any other whatever, shall be considered as annulling or suspending this and the next preceding article; but, on the contrary, that the state of war is precisely that for which they are provided, and during which they are to be as sacredly observed as the most acknowledged articles in the law of nature or nations.

XXV. The two contracting parties grant to each other the liberty of having each in the ports of the other, consuls, vice-consuls, agents, and commissaries of their own appointment, whose functions shall be regulated by particular agreement, whenever either party shall choose to make such appointment; but if any such consuls shall exercise commerce, they shall be submitted to the same laws and usages to which the private individuals of their nation are submitted in the same place.

XXVI. If either party shall hereafter grant to any other nation, any particular favour in navigation or commerce, it shall immediately become common to the other party—freely, where it is freely granted, to such other nation—or on yielding the compensation, where such nation does the same.

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XXVII. His Majesty the King of Prussia, and the United States of America, agree that this treaty shall be in force during the term of ten years from the exchange of ratifications : and if the expiration of that term should happen during the course of a war between them, then the articles before provided for the regulation of their conduct during such a war, shall continue in force until the conclusion of the treaty which shall re-establish peace ; and that this treaty shall be ratified on both sides, and the ratifications exchanged within one year from the day of its signature.

In testimony whereof, the plenipotentiaries before-mentioned have hereto subscribed their names and affixed their seals, at the places of their respective residence, and at the dates expressed under their several signatures.

F. G. de Tulemier, à la Hague, le 10 Septembre, 1785. (L. S.)

(L. S.)

(L. S.)

(L. S.)

T. JEFFERSON.

B. FRANKLIN.

J. ADAMS.

Paris, July 28,

Passy, July 9,

London, Aug. 5th

1785.

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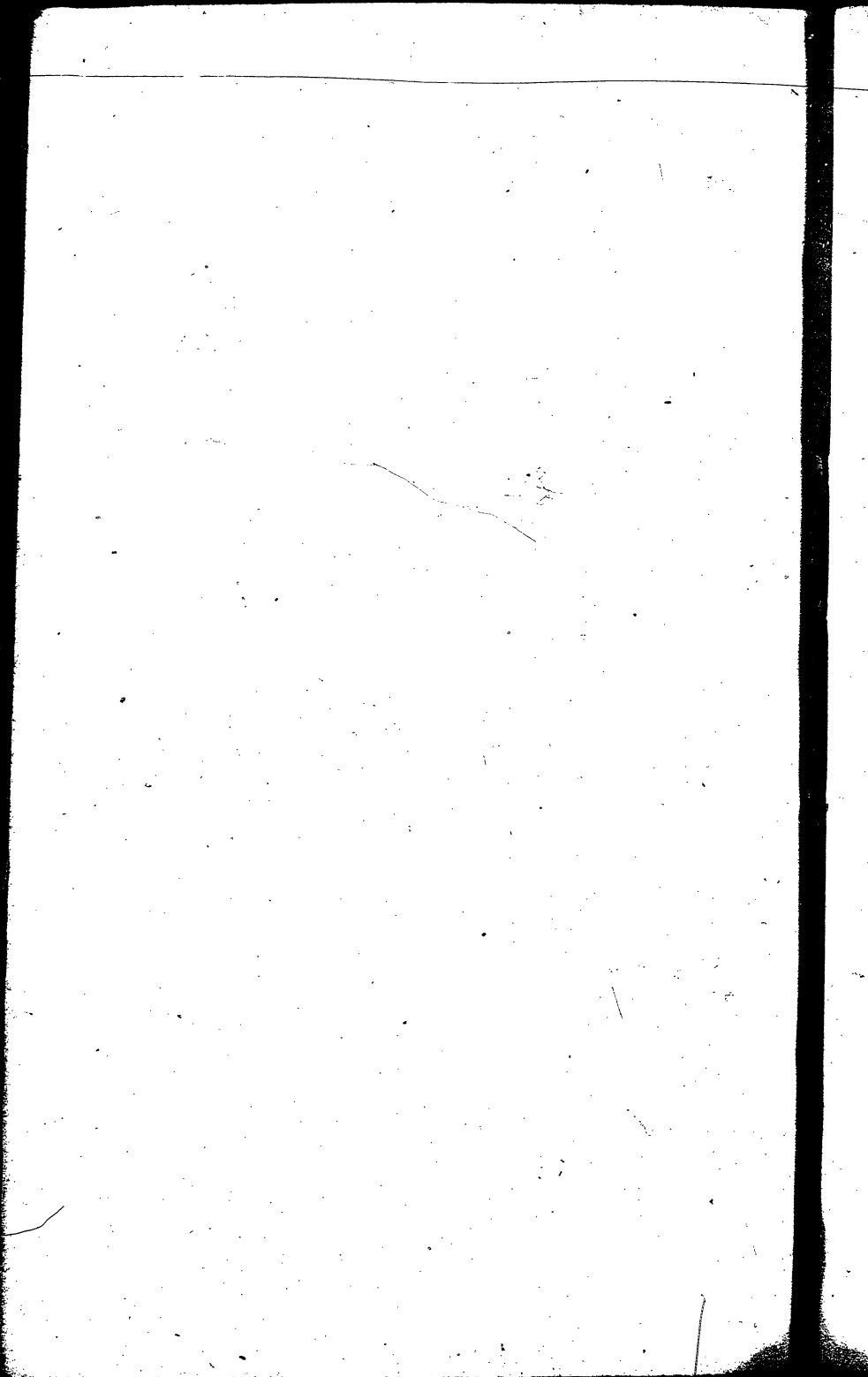
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